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VOLUME LXXVIII

FROM JULY 1, 1906, TO DECEMBER 31, 1906

NEW YORK

NEW YORK EVENING POST COMPANY

1906



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JULY TO DECEMBER, 1906

(Nos. 2140-2165.)

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ERRATA.

Page 74, col. 3, lines 4 and 30, for "Commisslouer" read "Commedatore"; line 43, for "inches" read "metres."
 Page 195, col. 1, line 62, for "non-resident" read "non-resistant."
 Page 356, col. 2, line 46, for "Bessler" read "Besler."
 Page 461, col. 1, line 18, for "Conrod" read "Conrad."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 5, 1906.

The Week.

By Executive order, Secretary Root has now succeeded in obtaining nearly the full measure of consular reform which he asked of Congress. Hereafter, under the comprehensive rules issued by President Roosevelt, all promotions within the service are to be made only for demonstrated efficiency, while all original appointments to the lower grades are to be in accordance with the merit system. Vacancies in these grades are to be filled, first, by the appointment of consular clerks, agents, and deputies, who have themselves entered the service after examination; and, second, by the nomination of other candidates who shall have met the prescribed tests in knowledge of languages and commercial law. It is especially provided that in no case "will the political affiliations of a candidate be considered." The only limitation on the pure merit system is that appointments shall be made so as to secure "proportional representation" among the various States. All in all, this is a notable reform which Mr. Root has compassed by steady persistence, seconded as he has been by Mr. Roosevelt. The Secretary must have taken secret pleasure, in view of the refusal of Congress to do what has now been accomplished by the President's order, in penning the following sentence, of which the irony is delicate:

Judging from the positive commendation which many members of both Houses have expressed for the proposed change in the method of appointing consuls, I do not doubt that the new system will receive the hearty approval of the Senate and of Congress whenever occasion may arise for an expression upon the subject.

"Fearless and patriotic" is one of the phrases which President Eliot used in conferring upon Secretary Ethan Allen Hitchcock the Harvard doctorate of laws. The characterization is apt. An honorary degree for public service could not be more worthily bestowed. It is unnecessary to detail Mr. Hitchcock's victories, which are still fresh in all memories. Enough to say that he found the administration of certain land offices honeycombed with fraud—fraud involving not only men of wealth and of prominence in local politics, but high officers, Representatives in Congress, and even one member of the United States Senate. Unmoved by clamor, appeal, or powerful political influences, unterrified by threats, he has pursued, and is still pursuing, these malefactors to the bitter end. In his speech at the commencement

dinner, Mr. Hitchcock declared that the successful prosecution of these cases would have been impossible without "the inspiration, example, and support at all times and under all circumstances" of President Roosevelt. This, as men familiar with conditions in the Northwest are well aware, is not a mere perfunctory acknowledgment. The bringing of the land-thieves to justice must rank as one of the finest achievements of the Roosevelt Administration. But if Secretary Hitchcock was fortunate in having the hearty backing of the President, the President was equally fortunate in having a Secretary of the Interior who deserved such backing.

The railway catastrophe at Salisbury, by which twenty-three Americans lost their lives, will set many a newspaper reader to wondering if in the matter of accidents English railways are, after all, so superior to American. When the killing of 10,046 persons and the injuring of 84,155 others was reported by the Interstate Commerce Commission as the terrible record for the United States in the year ending June 30, 1904, there was a justifiable outcry against a waste of human life, beside which the losses in many great battles appear insignificant. That there should be systematic effort to check the slaughter is obvious; this feeling has already led President Roosevelt to invoke the law against such railroads as have violated statutes in regard to safety appliances. Nevertheless, comparisons with foreign statistics are often misleading. Of the thousands of victims in 1903-04, only 262 were killed and 4,978 injured by collisions and derailments in the United States. The majority are those who insisted on walking the tracks, stealing rides, and jumping from moving trains, or are employees sacrificed by incompetent officials or by the carelessness of the management. In England, in 1904, 1,158 persons were killed, although the railway mileage in the United Kingdom is but one-tenth of that in the United States. When the English injured for the same period, 18,802, is compared with the 84,155 injured in the United States, it is apparent that the number of killed and injured in Great Britain was greater per mile in that year than in the United States. It is in the number of employees and trespassers killed and hurt that our own railroads may be rightly indicted as far more reckless than the English.

The "Sixth and Final Report" of the two remaining members of the investigating committee of the Mutual Life, William H. Truesdale and John W.

Auchincloss, brings forth new instances of mismanagement and dishonesty. Speaking of the real estate department the committee declares:

In the administration of this branch of the company's operations great extravagance is glaringly apparent on every hand, coupled with entire absence of ordinary business methods and care.

One specification is that the entire real estate investment holdings of the company showed a net loss on cost price of \$5,723,633 on December 1, 1905, and earned approximately 2.444 per cent. on the capital invested in 1904 and 2.495 in 1905. Moreover, there is a discrepancy between the general books of the company and those of the bond and mortgage department, whereby three "temporary" loans were made, aggregating \$410,000, of which the law department has no knowledge and no record of title. Of this whole sum \$300,000 is still unaccounted for. The committee discusses several other transactions of questionable character. As significant as anything in the report is the clear admission that the trustees should not be interested in subsidiary companies or in syndicate operations with the Mutual. A year ago such practices seemed to be almost the rule in life insurance management. The agitation of the subject—to say nothing of the legislation at Albany—has brought to all minds a clearer understanding of the fact that no trustee should be placed where his decision regarding the company's investments will affect his own pocket.

The poor "widow woman" who sewed on trousers for the army and who, threatened with the loss of employment by the heartless contractors at the Schuylkill Arsenal, appealed to the President to save her job, need not fear that her work will be taken over by imported needlemen from London. A patriotic Acting Secretary of War assures us that the British expert on army uniform is only to modify or "smarten" the pattern after which the clothes of our soldiers are cut. Mr. Winter expressed the object of his mission cleverly when he declared: "I am going to make your privates look like officers, and your officers—all like generals." The khaki uniform, leggings, and slouch hat are useful and picturesque; on hard duty our privates yield nothing to Tommy Atkins in the matter of dress. But the "army blue," as it is cut and fitted to the average American recruit, is not calculated to rouse a soldier's pride in his clothes. Only the French and Italian infantry soldier is as dowdy and unimpressive a figure as that shown on the lithographs pasted above the doors of recruiting stations in this country.

If all of our great sartorial designers insist upon taking up illustration and portrait painting, we must bring over from London an artist humble enough to work on an army uniform.

The news that the Hamburg-American Company is to build the first 800-foot steamship is a fresh reminder that the rivalry of Atlantic steamship companies is international. This venture is avowedly to put on the New York route a ship superior to the 760-foot *Lusitania* and *Mauritania* of the Cunard Line. These leviathans were intended to win back for England that supremacy on the Atlantic which the German companies have held for several years. And if, as some would have us believe, every French heart is throbbing ecstatically in unison with *La Provence's* mighty engines, we may soon hear of an 850-foot Frenchman. Canal and dock builders must take notice. The day of the 1,000-foot liner is not far off. The *Great Eastern*, with her 690 feet of length, is forgotten. For the last decade or more there has been a falling off in the desire for very fast vessels. In the eighties, when the *Alaska*, the *Arizona*, and the *Oregon* were making their records, speed was the great desideratum. From 1895 to 1900 more attention was paid to other features. All the companies—particularly the German ones—have found much profit in catering to the many people of small means who want comfortable steamers, but are ready to spend from eight to ten days on the water. The English builders have responded to this demand by constructing such ocean giants as the *Baltic*, the *Cedric*, and the *Celtic*, whose stewards vaingloriously boast of never having had to produce table racks.

The Cunard Company has shown foresight in turning—like the British navy—to turbines. The Germans still hesitate to adopt them, just as they have been over-conservative in taking up the submarine; but the turbine ship is such a vast improvement in steadiness, in the comparative absence of vibration, the lack of unpleasant odors, and in the saving in engine-room force, that its eventual capture of the whole ocean can hardly be doubted. That turbine engines are still in the experimental stage and have not made the saving in coal hoped for, is true. Even the *Lusitania's* turbines and the arrangement of her four great screws have not escaped the censure of engineers. Her reversing engine-power, however, will be tremendous, and she will disprove the early argument that turbine boats cannot back. What further revolutions the liner will undergo no one may dream; but this is certain: the turbine has come to stay until superseded by some still more remarkable invention.

"If I go into a saloon for a glass of beer," declared a loyal union cigar-maker, at a meeting of the Central Federated Union in New York last Sunday, "and I see non-union bolognas, I walk right out." He might be excused, in these troubled days, for walking right out if he merely saw bolognas on the free-lunch counter. But there is implied in his words a fine enthusiasm for union principles—let the mottled segments but show the mystic label, and this man would not only drink his union-made beer, but would eat his sawdust, candle-ends, and tow, disguised as bologna, and be virtuously refreshed thereby. Bit by bit, the horrible treachery of the average working man is being exposed. He buys boycotted beer merely because he likes it; he smokes non-union cigars, and is not choked by the fumes; his wife is allowed to patronize non-union bakeries; his children go to school to be taught by unorganized "scab" teachers; and, worst of all, when he arrives at the dignity of an office in the Central Federated Union, he neglects to find out whether the horse he rides in the Labor Day parade has been shod by a union horseshoer. These are all preventable blunders. Let no guilty union man say that he forgot or that he didn't know, or that his wife didn't ask him. It is only by the rigid observance of such minor points of doctrine that the majesty of the whole union theory is borne in upon the toiler.

The National Sculpture Society is investigating the rather unusual controversy between Charles Henry Niehaus, the sculptor, and the Louisiana Purchase Exposition Company. Mr. Niehaus had made, as was supposed for temporary purposes connected with the exposition, a statue of St. Louis. Learning that it was to be put in bronze and permanently installed in Forest Park, he protested, and demanded opportunity for revision and improvement of the statue, with extra compensation. The dispute has little artistic consequence; it is easier to comprehend the sculptor's desire to suppress the statue than the committee's zeal to perpetuate it. But the case raises an interesting issue of principle. Much avowedly ephemeral work for temporary decoration is done by all artists. Certainly it is desirable that they should retain control over such production. They should, it seems, be protected by a specific form of contract, such as an author enters into when he sells merely the magazine rights of an article, and reserves rights of permanent publication. The case seems to call, not for new legislation, but for more businesslike dealings between artists and arrangers of exhibition pageantry.

Educational authorities who smile

pitiably when a self-made critic denounces "fads" in the schools, may now quote the result of a recent inquiry among Providence parents. A blank was sent to 5,500 parents and guardians of children in public schools, asking for an answer to this question: "Shall the so-called 'fad' studies be taught, or shall the whole effort of education be confined to the teaching of 'the three R's' alone?" Some 4,900 replies were received, 87.9 per cent. of them favorable to the "fads." In special divisions of the questions, the answers were distributed as follows:

	Favorable.	Not favorable.
Music	4,726	173
Drawing	4,663	222
Gymnastics	4,651	231
Nature study	3,844	1,004
Manual training	3,360	1,047

By a majority of five to one, also, the replies favored the teaching of physiology. No single school district failed to return an affirmative majority on any single subject. Over half of the replies, it is estimated, were made by taxpayers.

Harvard's victory in the 'varsity race at New London will stimulate anew the somewhat flagging interest in rowing at Cambridge. Unfortunately, it will also, we fear, fasten the professional rowing coach upon Harvard for a long time to come. Wray has not yet proved himself the match of Courtney at Cornell, but this one victory will make him seem indispensable to many friends of a college which has had only four rowing successes in the last twenty-one years. This we cannot but regret. In the long run, Harvard in particular and college athletics in general, would have benefited far more had the Cambridge authorities stuck to graduate coaching, even at the price of a still longer list of defeats. But the younger graduates insisted on a professional trainer, and a weak Athletic Committee yielded to their opinion. As a result, the contest at New London is primarily one between Wray and Kennedy, and will become year by year more of a duel between these trainers. Meanwhile, the old idea of sixteen young men trained by themselves or their friends and rowing for pure sport, which ruled in President Eliot's day and still holds in England, is relegated further and further to the forgotten past. At Poughkeepsie, for instance, the only question the visitor need ask himself annually is whether or not Courtney has got his material licked into shape. If he has, the outcome is practically certain.

Match play vs. medal play is a question which Horace Hutchinson, the English writer on golf, has been discussing, and which is forced on American attention also by the open championship tournament just ended. Why should the amateur championship be determined by match play, while the open or professional championship is awarded to the

man returning the lowest score after four rounds of medal play? For match play, it may be argued that it pits man against man, and not a man against an ideal score, and so brings out the personal element which adds so much to all competitions in sport. Then there are the delightful surprises, the lucky accidents, the constantly changing aspect of the match. In such picturesque uncertainty, match play is superior. On the other hand, advocates of medal play urge that the object of a tournament is to ascertain, not who is the luckiest or sporadically most dashing player, but who is the steadiest, the most even—in a word, really the *best*. With this end in view, medal play is the only sure test. By this standard, perfection is the aim all through. You cannot indulge in the pleasant sins of slicing or pulling, and comfortably hope that they will not make much difference in the end. Every stroke lost goes down against you. It cannot be denied, however, that, compared with match play, medal play is dull and monotonous. The sight of a hundred men going sternly through a long competition, not with each other, but with an abstract measure of excellence, is not inspiring. Professionals, no doubt, attack the business in a cool and matter-of-fact fashion, as all in the day's work, but to the amateur it is certainly irksome, and for the spectator depressing. These differences fit in well with the differences between the amateur and the professional spirit; so that it is just as well to leave the matter where the golfing authorities have fixed it—match play for the amateur championship, with medal play for the professional.

Disaffection in the Preobrajensky regiment of the Guards must seem to the Czar a final insult. No military organization in Europe has been more famous, and none more closely associated with a royal family. During the exciting days of 1880-1881, this regiment was the mainstay of the Czar Alexander II. When the anarchists in February, 1880, blew up the guard room of the Winter Palace, the dead and wounded were of the Preobrajensky regiment. Its battalions were the first on the spot after this explosion, and to its "ever-loyal members" was granted the privilege of standing watch over the body of the Czar, when he finally became the victim of an anarchist's bomb. Till within a short time before his death, Alexander II. had regularly observed the custom which required the sovereign to bivouac with the regiment during the manœuvres at Tsarkoe-Selo; and he slept among the men with no special guard beyond the regiment itself. That within a quarter of a century this picked organization would openly rebel, defy its officers, demand political and military reforms—
even a free reading room with the revo-

lutionary newspapers they would not look at in 1881—nobody could have imagined. The Czarina herself might as readily have been expected to take up arms. Truly, the Czar seems nearly as helpless as Louis XVI. when he faced the Parisian mobs at Versailles.

Despite the universal weariness with the Education bill, the Liberal Government continues to hold its majorities of nearly three hundred. Last week a substantial concession was made to the Opposition, by authorizing denominational teaching in schools when it is requested by four-fifths of the parents of the pupils. In principle, this approaches the Prussian system, and the result will be, in effect, to continue such denominational schools as can secure the virtually unanimous support of their communities. The compromise will permit a certain number of voluntary—mostly Church of England—schools to come under national control without any essential change in character. So far the bill makes for religious conciliation. The defect of the clause, from the point of view of the broadest interests of public education in England, is that by establishing two different sorts of elementary schools, it leaves a remnant of denominational institutions to be dealt with later. But one can hardly blame Mr. Birrell for deciding to make two bites of the rather unmanageable cherry of secularization.

Discussion of the proposed new income tax in France has provoked a debate about the distribution of wealth in that country. M. Jaurès had affirmed, *en bon socialiste*, that 221,000 persons, "not a single one more," owned 60 per cent. of all the wealth of France. He derived these figures from the statistics of inheritance taxes for a single year. But a skilled economist like Jules Roche had no difficulty in showing in the *Figaro* into what gross errors the eloquent orator had been betrayed. He had taken the figures for a single year, in which it chanced that fourteen exceptionally large estates had fallen. A three-year average was much fairer, and yielded very different results. We cannot go into the details, but M. Roche makes it clear that Jaurès was about 40 per cent. out of the way—as he says, "une différence appréciable." More striking, in a way, is the comparison which he institutes between inheritance taxes in France and England. The conclusion at which he arrives is that there are many more huge English estates, but that the number of moderate French estates is vastly greater. His final deduction is that, whatever the Socialists may think or allege, "there is no country where wealth is less unequally distributed than in France, more mobile, more peculiarly dependent upon labor and initiative."

The death of Manuel Garcia, the centenarian teacher of singing, recalls the changes in the musical world during his lifetime. It was given to him to see an extraordinary development of chamber music, of the piano piece, and the modern song, as well as of the opera and the symphony. When he began to revolutionize the art of teaching by his great invention, the laryngoscope, and by the theories he based upon it, Schubert and Schumann and many lesser lights were developing the "art song," whose very creation must be attributed to Schubert, despite the few pretty *lieder* of Haydn, Mozart, and Gluck. In the opera, Garcia witnessed even more remarkable changes—Wagner's revolution of the whole plan. More than that, America at the time of Garcia's birth was musically quite undiscovered, and remained so until he was well beyond middle life. He survived to see it become not only a great musical country, but able to train its own artists for opera and concert stage without the necessity of a resort to European teachers. In England, too, in his old age, he was able to notice a distinct progress in public appreciation of the best in musical art.

A German military writer calls attention to the fact that, notwithstanding all modern improvements in facilitating communication and locomotion, by telephone, wireless telegraphy, bicycle, and automobile, it has not been possible to diminish the need for horses in cavalry and artillery divisions. On the contrary, the supply of horses, so far as Germany is concerned, is falling short of the demand. While the population of the country increases by nearly a million a year, the acreage for supplying fodder for horses remains about the same, and the demand for horses even in non-military pursuits grows rapidly. Pending the time when every peasant and every merchant shall have his motor car, it will therefore be necessary to provide a military substitute for the horse. Automobiles are out of the question, because of their fragility and their uselessness on roads in the condition in which the march of an army leaves them. Under these circumstances, the only available motor is the steam street locomotive. At least, such is the opinion of Lieut. Otfried Layriz, who has written a book, "Der mechanische Zug mittelst Dampf-Strassen-Locomotive," in which, basing his deductions on the experiences of the last fifty years, he dwells in detail on the uses of these locomotives, in peace as well as in war. He admits that automobiles have their use as a means of rapidly transporting men and mails; but he maintains that for all other purposes, and they are many, the steam locomotive alone can supplement or supplant horses.

THE MUCK-RAKE CONGRESS.

Various Congresses have had various names, in characterization of their chief activities or notorieties. There was the Billion-Dollar Congress, though it will soon be well forgotten in the presence of the Two-Billion-Dollar Congress, presently to be with us. There was the Back Pay, or Salary Grab, Congress, the Credit Mobilier Congress, and so on. Judged by its first session, the Fifty-ninth Congress bids fair to be known as the Muck-Rake Congress.

As used, the phrase is not necessarily a term of reproach. It merely describes the kind of pressure and motive which led to the chief legislative enactments. President Roosevelt is quite right in saying that more general laws of a far-reaching sort were passed in the late session than in any of recent years. But the characteristic thing about it all has been the excitement, the frequent crises, the sensational methods used, the series of exposures, of special messages, of bitter controversies, of Presidential letters, and other deliverances, the steam-gauge often marking an approach to the exploding point. All this fervor and acrimony, this shouting, appeal, protest, threatening, and attack are of the essence of what has come to be known as muck-raking. Without it, we may be certain, Congress would not have passed the two measures by which the session will be chiefly remembered, the railway bill and the meat-inspection law. And the main driving power was undoubtedly the President's. The rate bill was passed in a form which he long fought, and with attendant circumstances that damaged his repute; but it was passed, and Mr. Roosevelt may justly claim the credit. In the case of meat inspection, he made a plain surrender on points which he had declared essential; but by this stooping he conquered, in the sense that he got a law, which, but for his feverish activity, we should not have seen at all.

However, it must not be thought that the Presidential programme proved to be anything like a schedule of legislation. If we compare the list of measures urged in Mr. Roosevelt's message, with the list of laws actually passed, we shall see how many rebuffs even a man of his overflowing energy and fertility of resource must encounter when he flings himself upon the inertia of Congress. Let the comparison speak for itself, including the main subjects:

WHAT WAS ASKED.	WHAT WAS DONE.
Prevention of over-capitalization by corporations.	Nothing.
Regulation of railway rates.	Passed.
Limiting hours of labor of railway employees.	Nothing.
Employer's liability bill.	Passed.
Limiting injunction against labor unions.	Refused.

Federal regulation of insurance.	Declared unconstitutional.
Economy of appropriations.	Increase of \$60,000,000.
Provision of elastic currency.	Nothing.
Prohibition of campaign contributions by corporations.	Nothing.
Federal naturalization law.	Passed.
Ship subsidies.	Nothing.
Immigration law to keep out "the lazy," etc.	Failed in conference.
Revision of copyright laws.	Nothing.
Pure food law.	Passed.
Reduction of tariff on Philippine goods.	Denied.
Citizenship for Porto Ricans.	Refused.
Joint Statehood.	Granted in different form.
Type of Panama Canal.	Settled.
Protectorate over Santo Domingo.	Refused.

Such a large admixture of failure with success results partly, no doubt, from too ambitious a programme. No President ever equalled Mr. Roosevelt in the number of measures which he "earnestly asks" Congress to pass at once; hence no other President has had to put up with so many outright refusals to budge. In one respect, however, Mr. Roosevelt's failures have peculiar significance. In domestic legislation he has had marked success; it is only in his appeals in behalf of our island dependencies, and in connection with the gorgeous dreams of a West Indian and Central and South American protectorate, that the President has been repulsed at every point. Despite his pleas, Congress remained callous to the appeals of the Filipinos, and the Porto Ricans. As for Mr. Roosevelt's grandiose Dominican policy, it again hangs unacted upon, though the friends of his treaty resisted its being brought to a vote, knowing that it would surely be rejected. These defeats indicate pretty plainly the line of least resistance just now in Congressional law-making. Large and generous legislation for unrepresented colonists can be compassed only with great difficulty. Bills to prevent political corruption die of inanition. The protected interests are left immune. But the passion for regulating corporations, for extending Federal functions in new and dubious ways, for piling up appropriations, is now so strong in the land that it visibly asserts its sway over Congress. By falling in with it, the President is able to make the energizing power of his personality seem redoubled. Whether this tendency will be permanent and wholesome, it is too soon to say; but that it is at present a mighty tide in our public affairs, is plain to even the wayfaring man.

The final verdict upon this session of Congress will be largely favorable. It was marred by no great scandals; it passed few profligate bills; it resisted the ship-subsidy clamor; it saw the freedom and power of debate rise to unac-

customed heights; it was, in general, responsive to the will of the people, so far as that will was clearly declared. Its net record undoubtedly puts the Republicans in better shape for the Congressional elections than they dared hope two months ago. But what the issues and what the result of the approaching campaign will be, many are, to be sure, asserting, but no man knows.

THE FAIR-MINDED SOUTH.

This truth at least underlies the assertion that the South must be left to settle the negro question by itself—that without the initiative and coöperation of fair and broad-minded and justice-loving men and women in the South there can be no settlement. It is, therefore, a ground for taking fresh courage when an utterance by a leading Southerner deals with this great matter in a lofty spirit; loyal to his section, yet national in his patriotism; affirming the South's peculiar duty to take the lead, yet insisting that it lead only where believers in equal laws and democratic principles can follow. Such a spirit inspires the address on "Slavery and the Race Problem in the South," delivered at the University of Georgia on June 19 by William H. Fleming.

Mr. Fleming is a man of repute and weight in Georgia. His political service as Speaker in the State Legislature and member of Congress for three terms was honorable, and his professional standing is shown by the fact that for a year he was President of the State Bar Association. An alumnus of the University of Georgia, he went back to speak on a platform dedicated to free speech by the lamented Chancellor Hill. In fact, Mr. Fleming states that the late Chancellor highly approved his choice of a topic, saying to him, just before being stricken by fatal illness: "I wish my platform at Athens to be a place for the freest expression of honest thought."

In the rather sordid Georgia campaign, where rival candidates for the Governorship are competing in promises of negro disfranchisement, Mr. Fleming's speech has a bracing sound. Not temporary and partisan advantage is his aim, but lasting decisions conceived in justice. With a fine gesture, he dismisses "that trinity of impossibilities—deportation, assimilation, or annihilation"—and says, "Let us offer the simple plan of justice." Himself a firm believer in race purity and white supremacy, Mr. Fleming shows by a broad statistical survey how chimerical is the notion of negro domination, and concludes that "the white people of the South, and especially of the State of Georgia, can now proceed to work out their racial problem on lines of justice to the negro. . . . Those fears which once appalled us we may now dismiss and let reason resume its sway."

Mr. Fleming gave one warning which ought to be heeded, for it is based on accurate knowledge. This was that the South can expect no alteration in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution, except "in the direction of placing under Federal control the entire subject of suffrage qualifications in all national and State elections." "The less we agitate it the better." And the lawyer in the speaker also had some direct things to say about the schemes "to disfranchise the negro by a fraudulent administration of the law." By no other means could the promise be kept of entirely "eliminating" the negro without depriving "a single white man of his ballot, no matter how illiterate or ignorant he may be." Of the various tricks used by the officers of registration in other States, in order to turn away from the polls negroes legally qualified to vote, Mr. Fleming spoke with proper indignation: "It is on this miserable bare-faced scheme of fraud that our proud and noble people are asked to rest their safety and their civilization!" Even of the "grandfather clause"—that favorite device to include white illiterates while excluding black—he expressed the opinion that, whenever the Supreme Court came fairly to pass upon it, it "must fall of its own crookedness."

In lieu of further epitome, we insert a few of the more striking passages from this notable address:

Not only is this campaign against the negro unnecessary and unjust, but it is most inopportune at this juncture. When every county in the State is calling loudly for more labor to serve the household and till the fields and develop our resources, why should we seek to enact more oppressive laws against the labor we now have?

Suppose we admit the oft-reiterated proposition that no two races so distinct as the Caucasian and the negro can live together on terms of perfect equality; yet it is equally true that without some access to the ballot, present or prospective, some participation in the Government, no inferior race in an elective republic could long protect itself against reduction to slavery in many of its substantial forms—and God knows the South wants no more of that curse.

Are there two codes of morality, one for individuals, and another for aggregations of individuals? Can we practise fraud as a collective body of citizens and still preserve our personal integrity as individual citizens?

Let us solve the negro problem by giving the negro justice, and applying to him the recognized principles of the moral law. This does not require social equality. It does not require that we should surrender into his inexperienced and incompetent hands the reins of political government. But it does require that we recognize his fundamental rights as a man, and that we judge each individual according to his own qualifications, and not according to the lower average characteristics of his race. Political rights cannot justly be withheld from those American citizens of an inferior or backward race who raise themselves up to the standard of citizenship which the superior race applies to its own members.

When we place such a deliverance as this of Mr. Fleming in contrast with that of Senator F. McL. Simmons of North Carolina, in the last *Independent*, we have the fair-minded and progres-

sive South alongside the narrow and stagnant, and are left in no doubt which one has the future in its keeping.

THE ARTIST IN OUR WORLD.

The follies of the time and his own frailties did everything possible to undo the great artist in Stanford White, but, fortunately, did not wholly succeed. The pleasure-house which was the scene of his murder remains an imposing monument to his genius; a few more fine buildings testify to the playfulness and exuberance of his inspiration. Many structures of his firm (McKim, Mead & White), the credit for whose work was rather indiscriminately given to the member most in evidence, bear the sign manual of his taste. Yet a review of the work definitely assignable to him shows that it is small in comparison with his powers and with the impression he made upon his colleagues. In actual creative quality, probably only Richardson among American architects was his equal. In physical force he was indomitable. Once he rode all night over the roughest of mountain trails to keep an appointment which he was in danger of missing because he had gone from New York to New Orleans to witness a prize-fight. Why was it that, with the energy and knowledge of the great architects of the Renaissance, and with a wealthy patronage fairly rivalling that of the Medici princes and popes, his work seems so incomplete and episodic?

Severe moralists will find the cause in his devotion to pleasure. Many another great artist, however, has been overmastered by the flesh, with no apparent detriment to his art. His colleagues explain that he was in a sense misplaced, being by temperament and gift rather a painter and decorator than an architect. But this does not really explain anything. It is the essence of genius to make its own opportunities, and his was genius of a high order. An achievement that would be creditable for a smaller man, is confessedly inadequate for him. Surely, then, we have to do with a capital case of unutilized or even perverted energies. He seems to have been in a large degree the victim of the society which he sought above all else to please, to which he was the titular arbiter of taste.

His own æsthetic standards were the highest; but insensibly, as he sold his taste to a wealthy but half-trained society, he condescended to their ignorance and vanity. The time that he should have given to creative design, he spent in despoiling French and Italian country houses of their fittings and furnishings, and he adorned many an American mansion with irrelevant plunder of this sort. Enormously profitable as an incident to his profession, this traffic was naturally congenial to a passionate collector of every sort of art. The fallacy

of the undertaking will be realized when it is noted that the shiploads of antiquities he furnished to his plutocratic clients contained very few objects above respectable mediocrity, while he himself, one of the most-talked-of collectors of our time, has left personal accumulations inferior to those of amateurs of far smaller wealth and opportunity. In other words, he offered the tragic spectacle of a taste gradually adjusting itself to that of its market. Though immensely the superior of his world, he was content to be its purveyor. His career, as you choose to regard it, is that of a magnificent condottiere in architecture, who won brilliant skirmishes, but avoided the laborious operations of sieges and great campaigns; or of an æsthetic major domo to an opulent world, whose especial vanity was the possession of fine works of art. Stanford White gave his clients quite as good as they deserved or wanted, but meantime, in such brokerage, he wasted precious days that should have seen a succession of his own masterpieces.

We have thus dwelt upon this remarkable career because it is typical: it illustrates with singular and pathetic emphasis the defects of art patronage among us. It is, we believe, the business of the artist to please his public, but it is also his privilege to educate his patrons. In the great periods of art the painter and his patron have met on something like equal terms; in fact, the man who pays the money has been very willing to learn from the artist. Between the two classes, under these circumstances, there is a lively and profitable interchange of ideas. Such was the case in the courts of Philip of Burgundy, the Emperor Maximilian, of Charles the Fifth, the Medicis, Sforzas, D'Estes, Louis the Fourteenth; such was the case in the republics of Athens and Florence, and in the Venetian oligarchy. But the artist in America who to-day addresses himself to his natural patrons in the wealthiest classes, meets either a disheartening indifference or a more positively demoralizing vanity.

Possibly, indifference is the more sinister attitude. There is no greater enemy of the artist than the man who, while he fills his house with objects of art, as he fills his greenhouses with orchids, or his stables with thoroughbreds, neither knows nor loves the splendid things his money buys. To the artist, appreciation is the breath of life. For him to be in the position of merely giving a money's worth is suicidal; to be habitually and consciously giving less is artistic death in life. Yet this is the danger that constantly threatens the artist in a day of indiscriminate accumulation. It was a danger that diverted and diminished the career of the artist we have lost. With the arrogance that pretends to know, Stanford White was able to cope. To the vanity that did not care

but could pay lavishly he became a victim.

His career points the difficulty of the middle way that the artist must follow to succeed. A generation earlier or later, we are fain to hope, the flowering of such a genius would have been more normal, and the fruit more abundant. Our age has tended to debase the artist to its own standards, or to shut him up in the musky atmosphere of adoring cliques. The frittering away of genius, as illustrated by the apparently successful career of Stanford White, is an exhortation to all true artists to master that most difficult art of being in the world, but not of it.

FRAGMENTARY SIDE OF THE CLASSICS.

A considerable portion of the *School Review* for this month is given up to a discussion of "The value of humanistic, particularly classical, studies, as a preparation for the study of medicine and of engineering." Professors Vaughan and Hinsdale of the medical schools of Michigan University, and Professor Williams of the engineering department, all agree that the student of medical or engineering science is badly off with "small Latin," and may profitably spend considerable time upon Greek. There is a singular unanimity in the old-fashioned opinion that the study of the classics is more disciplinary than that of the newer subjects which the elective system has imposed upon the secondary schools.

All three speakers dwell upon the value of classical studies in cultivating habits of mental precision. Professor Sadler gives the sense of the meeting when he says:

As a means of inculcating ideas of exactness the study of the humanities is *facile princeps*. The niceties of translation, the importance of gender, number, and case, the proper use of the moods and tenses, and the demands of the relative clause, compel the mind toward a certain definiteness which is lacking in many of the subjects taught in the early stages of education. The most simple translation, or even the study of the grammar of these subjects, demands a directness of attention and a consideration of detail which cannot be otherwise than beneficial to a student whose work in the future will lead him into subjects where generalization is impossible.

About this view there is nothing novel: it has been held by generations of school teachers, and it has been seriously challenged only in our own times—in the name, be it noted, of specialization. Highly significant, then, is a plea for the classics from the ranks of those who are specialists themselves and whose task is to educate specialists. These practical men join Charles Francis Adams and other educational theorists in reverting to the immemorial ideal of athletic mental training as opposed to premature accumulation of special information.

These teachers of medicine and engi-

neering had all found their greatest obstacle in a prevailing intellectual flabbiness among their students. President Thwing, in an article on "College Students as Thinkers," in the *North American Review*, reluctantly notes the same tendency. He regrets that in some cases "an easy-going system [the elective system] results in a neglect of the intellectual severities and virilities." Dr. Thwing refers us to the hopeful fact that "the Anglo-Saxon man, too—even if he be the college man—has the primary power of self-correction." Apparently, a certain number of medical men are distrustful of these automatic healing processes, and would prescribe rather frequent stiff doses of Greek and Latin.

A special plea for the humanities was made by the representative of the engineer's profession. He recalled the intimate relation between engineering science and great commercial exploitations. On the technical side, an engineer making a report or presenting a project, should command the most lucid English and a ready pen. Considering his calling more broadly, he must be able to cope socially and intellectually with all manner of men. In a very true sense, he must be a man of the world, with an easy possession of the niceties of human intercourse. Professor Sadler did not exalt his ideal engineer to the level of Castiglione's ideal courtier, but none the less he outlined a character which, according to the traditional view, is best formed through studies at once difficult and humane.

At present there is indubitably a movement of educational thought back towards the older disciplinary ideals. The discussion we have noticed, and the evidence presented in Dr. Thwing's article, are merely typical expressions of a widespread misgiving. Have the various substitutes for the classical languages fairly justified themselves as disciplinary equivalents? This question cannot be answered satisfactorily until the modern languages, history, and the elements of the sciences have worked out their own definitive methods. One may admit that French and German have fairly warranted the proud title applied to them by President Woodrow Wilson when he hailed "the new humanities." But the case for the varied and crowded curriculum, whether in the college or secondary school, is not yet completely convincing.

In any event, the theory that either in school or college a large fund of intrinsically "valuable information" may be imparted, is being seriously challenged. The doctors scoff at school physiology; engineers make little of the studies preparatory to the technical school; lawyers, we dare say, would rather have a pupil who had had his fill of Cicero and the Latin historians than one who had made a premature ac-

quaintance with the common law. In fact, no one who proceeds to a specialty is likely to set a high value on the mere intellectual accumulations of his school and college years. There is only too much truth in the saying that what we remember is less important than what we have forgotten. It is easy to see that in the apparent drudgery of memorizing declensional forms, and in the mere exercise of rearticulating the words of a Latin period into an English sentence, the youthful mind learns to act cleanly, to deal, in short, uncompromisingly with the inexorable.

It should be noted, however, that if we are to witness a renaissance of classical studies, teachers of Greek and Latin will have to do their part. The present age is not likely to admit a monopoly of disciplinary value in any two branches of learning. The partial supersession of the classics has been due to the fact that classicists rested on authority and tradition, and failed to demonstrate that the old discipline had lost none of its validity through the new ascendancy of the natural sciences. The evident desire on the part of scientists for a revival of a more severe mental training should be a Macedonian call to despondent classicists in school and college. If they will lead the way towards practical humanism, as opposed to heterogeneity, they will not lack a following.

THE CAMPAIGN AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS.

The second annual report of the Henry Phipps Institute for the Study, Treatment, and Prevention of Tuberculosis—a document of some four hundred and fifty pages—contains much matter that is of interest to layman as well as physician. The report is based on the observation of 885 new cases. Dr. Lawrence F. Flick, the director, lays much stress on the fact which, though not novel, cannot be over-emphasized, that tuberculosis is produced by the artificial conditions of life indoors. "Of all diseases," he says, "tuberculosis more than any other is a house disease. It is implanted in the house, develops in the house, and it matures in the house." The first step, therefore, in the task of prevention is to provide proper houses, both to work in and to live in. Light and ventilation for shops and factories is a subject which has already been fully discussed. Dr. Flick is more concerned for the moment over the question whether private houses or apartments are more likely to be nurseries for the disease. His conclusion is that apartment houses (including those of all grades), "as they have been built in the past," are undoubtedly a more serious source of danger than private houses. Cleanliness, ventilation, drainage, comfort, and convenience he enumerates as the factors which count most for health;

and, he adds, a "greater amount of comfort, convenience, and sanitation is procurable with the money at the command of a laboring man in an apartment house than in a private house, provided apartment houses are built with these objects in view, and not for the mere purpose of making money for the landlord."

This last proviso brings us face to face with one of the gravest of problems—that of securing a sufficient number of tenements built primarily for promoting health rather than returning income on investment. Dr. Flick himself suggests no way out of the difficulty. Obviously, in cities like New York or Philadelphia, or even in smaller places like Providence or Buffalo, the bulk of the laboring population must, for a long time to come, be forced into houses which are constructed as mere business ventures. So far as we can look into the future, "model" tenements, built by private capital, can at best be scarcely more than a drop in the bucket. Stringent building laws may accomplish something; but when the landlord has his eye first of all on gain, he will, in spite of inspectors, "scamp" his plumbing. This is the strongest argument offered by advocates of municipal housing for the poor—that the only safeguard against tuberculosis and other maladies is a landlord who can and will set sanitation above everything else.

The troubles of the indigent consumptive are aggravated by certain other conditions on which Dr. Flick dwells. The sufferer is inevitably compelled to seek the most wretched and unwholesome of all the tenements. A man who is coughing and manifestly breaking down is so objectionable to neighbors that landlords want to get rid of him. This is generally easy enough, for the tuberculous laborer can earn but little; he is often without money on rent-day; and he has no alternative but to get out. Thus it is that only the houses which do not rent well are open to poverty-stricken consumptives; and these unhappy people "circulate in the worst and most unsanitary houses, and infect each house into which they move."

The symptoms of tuberculosis are not at all well understood by the inexpert, or indeed by many physicians. At first the malady does not greatly discommode its victims. The average physician does not recognize tuberculosis in a stage earlier than that in which tissue has been destroyed; in all probability he is rarely consulted in an earlier stage. This earlier stage may be found in cases diagnosed as "stomach trouble, neurasthenia, malaria, and many undefined conditions passing current under some convenient name which means nothing." Indeed, Dr. Flick makes the round assertion: "The probabilities are that all people who are considerably below normal weight for their height are so on account of dormant

tuberculosis." On the other hand, though the tuberculous subject is by tradition emaciated, nearly one-half the patients who apply at the Phipps Institute are recorded as looking well. "It is surprising," says Dr. Flick, "how advanced a tuberculous subject may be and yet retain the appearance of physical well-being." The symptom which is most frequently misunderstood and misinterpreted, even by physicians, is that of cough. According to Dr. Flick, "tuberculosis of the lungs in itself does not produce much cough, and [as his tables show] may be entirely free from cough." Moreover, tubercle bacilli are not found in the sputum until the disease has gone beyond incipency; and even when the tissue has begun to break down, the bacilli are not always in evidence.

As to treatment, this second report adds but little to what was said in the first about nourishing food, rest, and fresh air. These are the three luxuries which the poor are unable to command. Under the goad of necessity they neglect the disease until it has made such headway that it has begun to incapacitate them. The huge undertaking, then, that confronts those who have enlisted for the stamping out of tuberculosis is to persuade people to consult physicians in regard to all symptoms that are not those of acute and brief illness; to teach physicians to recognize the early phases of the disease; and to furnish for the imperilled poor a supply of nourishing food and good housing on a scale hitherto unknown.

THE MOST VALUABLE AMERICAN-PRINTED BOOK.

The most valuable American-printed book, which has long been sought after, but of which no copy has hitherto been known to exist in recent times, has, true to prophecy, at last come to light. This is no less than the first printed collection of the laws of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, issued from the press of Matthew Day at Cambridge, in 1648. After years of fruitless search by students and bibliographers, a copy has now turned up in a small private library in England and has been purchased by Dodd, Mead & Co. of this city. The title of this book, beside which the famous "Bay Psalm Book" is, in point of rarity, a common volume, and in point of historical interest far inferior, is in full, as follows:

The | Book Of General | Lawes And Liberties | Concerning The Inhabitants Of The Massachusetts | Collected Out Of The Records Of The General Court | For The Several Years Wherin They Were Made | And Established, | And now revised by the same Court and disposed into an Alphabetical order | and published by the same Authority in the General Court | held at Boston the fourteenth of the | first month Anno | 1647. | VVhosoever therefore resisteth the power, resisteth the ordinance of God, | and they that resist receive to themselves damnation. Romanes 13.2. | [Ornament] Cambridge. | Printed according to order of the General Court. | 1648. | And are to be solde at the shop of Hezekiah Usher | in Boston |

No other "lost" book has been more zeal-

ously hunted for. Such special investigators as George H. Moore, William H. Whitmore, and Dr. Samuel A. Green have ransacked all contemporary writings, manuscript and printed, in search of data concerning it. When the city of Boston published in facsimile the collections of laws of 1660 and 1672, with the intermediate session laws, Mr. Whitmore, record commissioner of the city, and a recognized authority on matters relating to antiquities of Boston, prepared an accompanying "Bibliographical Sketch of the Laws of Massachusetts Colony from 1630 to 1686." In this he devotes thirty-four pages to the discussion of this first printed collection and to transcripts of contemporary statements concerning it. He even succeeded in building up (from citations) a fairly exact table of contents; but he failed in the very vital matter of the date. He speaks throughout of "The Code of 1649."

The story of this first printed law book is most interesting. After congratulating the colonists that in New England the church and the civil state had been "planted and growne up (like two twinnes) together like that of Israel in the wilderness," the editors, or compilers, go on to tell something of the origin of the book:

For this end about nine years since wee used the help of some of the Elders of our Churches to compose a modell of the Iudicial lawes of Moses with such other cases as might be referred to them, with intent to make use of them in composing our lawes, but not to have them published as the lawes of this Jurisdiction: nor were they voted in Court. For that book intituled *The Liberties, &c.* published about seven years since (which containes also many lawes and orders both for civil & criminal causes, and is commonly (though without ground) reported to be our Fundamentals that wee owne as established by Authority of this Court, and that after three years experience & generall probation: and accordingly we have inserted them into this volume under the severall heads to which they belong yet not as fundamentalls, for divers of them have since been repealed, or altered, and more may justly be (at least) amended heerafter as further experience shall discover defects or inconveniences for *Nihil simul natum et perfectum*. The same must we say of this present Volume, we have not published it as a perfect body of laws sufficient to carry on the Government established for future time, nor could it be expected that we should promise such a thing.

These Lawes which were made successively in divers former years, we have reduced under severall heads in an alphabetical method, that so they might the more readily be found, & that the divers lawes concerning one matter being placed together the scope and intent of the whole and of every of them might the more easily be apprehended: we must confesse we have not been so exact in placing every law under its most proper title as we might, and would have been: the reason was our hasty indeavour to satisfie your longing expectation, and frequent complaints for want of such a volume to be published in print: wherin (upon every occasion) you might readily see the rule which you ought to walke by.

The manuscript "book intituled *The Liberties &c.* published about seven years since," referred to in this Preface, was the first body of laws drawn up and adopted for the Colony. It had been composed, mainly at least, by the Rev. Nathaniel Ward of Ipswich, the author of the famous book, "The Simple Cobbler of Agawam." This famous "Body of Liberties" was not printed, but transcripts were made for the use of the various officials requiring them.

The records of the General Court, under date of December 10, 1641, contain the following entry:

Mr. Deputy Endicot, Mr. Downing, and Mr. Hawthorne are authorized to get nineteen Copies of the Laws, Liberties and the forms of oaths transcribed by their several hands, and none to be authentic but such as they subscribe, etc.

No one of these nineteen certified transcripts seems to have come down to our day, but a contemporary copy, which formerly belonged to Elisha Hutchinson, is now in the library of the Boston Athenæum.

It is a curious fact that, though this first Law Book of 1648 had itself been so completely lost, the exact number of leaves in the volume, the number of copies printed, and the cost of the printing and paper for the edition have long been known. This information was discovered in some papers relating to a suit by the heirs of Jesse Glover, who had brought the first press to America, but who died on the passage over. This suit was against President Dunster of Harvard, who had married Glover's widow, and who for fifteen years was the actual owner and manager of the press. This entry reads as follows:

The Law Book, 17 sheets, 600 copies, using 21 reams of paper. Sold at 17 pence a book, £42 10s. The printing cost £15 16s. 3d., and the paper £5 5s.

Now, an examination of the book shows that this record as to its size is correct. It is made up of signatures A, B, C, D, E, F, G, and H, each 4 leaves, and probably I, 2 leaves, in all 68 leaves, consisting of: Title, p. [i]; blank, p. [ii]; Preface, pp. [iii-iv]; text, with heading "The Book of the General Lawes and Libertyes concerning, &c.," pp. 1-59, blank, p. [60], followed, probably, by the Table, 2 leaves, not in this copy. The margins in this copy are entirely uncut; the leaf measures 12x7¼ inches.

Although, as is shown by the printer's statement quoted above, six hundred copies of this Law Book of 1648 were printed, it soon became scarce. The Preface to the edition of 1660 begins:

The Book of Lawes, of the first Impression, not being to be had for the supply of the Country, put us upon thoughts of a second.

Some explanation of this scarcity may perhaps be found in a petition to the General Court of Richard Russell, Treasurer of the Colony, dated the 22d day of the third month, 1651:

Whereas By ye Courts Incoradgment I purchased ye Last printed Law Bookes, and by reason of ye Courts Alternation of summe things in those bookes made them unvendible Insomuch that your petitioner Lost above Tenn pounds, a great pt. Turned to wast pap'r and many of them Burnt, your Petitioner desires this Court would Tenderly Consider ye same, etc.

Mr. Whitmore thought this referred to the first volume, called by him the "Code of 1649." After various calculations he made the deduction that "it will be safe to say that at least one-quarter of the edition [of six hundred copies] was destroyed before A.D., 1651." From the expression "ye Last printed Law Bookes," I think, however, that Russell must have referred to the volume of supplemental laws, which was printed in 1650, and which I shall refer to later.

While there are a considerable number

of laws in the 1660 collection which are not found in the 1648 volume, only one law of those promulgated in 1648 seems to have been repealed before 1660. This is the law against Ana-Baptists, which was passed in 1644. The last paragraph only, somewhat modified, appears in the 1660 volume, under the head of "Heresy."

In the 1648 volume the laws proper end in the middle of page 55, the lower part of this page, and pages 56-59 are filled with various forms of oaths, declarations, etc., for the use of the various officers, headed "Presidents and Forms of things frequently asked." These are practically the same as those of the 1660 edition, except that the 1660 volume contains three additional forms. One form only, that for the auditor-general, is found in the 1648 book, and not in that of 1660.

This volume of the "Lawes and Libertyes" of 1648 is not the only lost law-book of the Massachusetts Colony. Besides certain single-leaf "Capitall Laws," probably broadsides, Mr. Whitmore has made out from the records that the laws passed at the intermediate sessions of the General Court were printed as three supplements to this first book. The first of these was undoubtedly printed in 1650, and included laws passed during the latter part of 1648, 1649, and a few earlier laws which had been thrown out by the editors of the first printed compilation, but which were afterwards incorporated in the general body of laws. The second of these supplements, including new laws passed during 1651, 1652, and 1653, was sent to the press in accordance with a resolution dated May 3, 1654. A third supplement, covering the laws of 1654, 1655, 1656, and 1657, was undoubtedly printed in 1657. No copy of any one of these three supplements, which were probably thin pamphlets of a few leaves each, is now known to exist. The earliest printed volume heretofore known is the second compilation, that of 1660, in which the laws of the four earlier books were collected, rearranged, and occasionally altered in their wording.

In 1641 there was printed anonymously in London a small quarto volume having the title: "An Abstract of the Lawes of New England as they are now established." This is not what it purports to be. It is a series of ecclesiastical laws drawn up by John Cotton, and very probably the "copy of Moses his judicials, compiled in an exact method," which by previous request, Cotton presented to the General Court on October 25, 1636. They were never adopted, but instead the larger compilation drawn up by Nathaniel Ward, the "Body of Libertyes," was adopted in 1641. L. S. L.

THE COMMISSIONERSHIP OF EDUCATION

Dr. William Torrey Harris has retired after seventeen years of service as United States Commissioner of Education, and Prof. Elmer Ellsworth Brown of the University of California is appointed his successor. Below are discussions of the importance of the office, the personality of the two men, and their contributions to education:

The office of Commissioner of Education has never before commanded so great a man as Dr. Harris. Before his coming, the

place was, rather obscure and unimportant. Probably no one thought that the bureau might be raised to prominence and power. The salary, until lately, was ridiculously small, and even now it is considerably less than is paid a number of State and city superintendents of schools. The Government has never treated the office with deserved respect. The disposition of matters that should naturally be in charge of the bureau is an example in point. Philippine school affairs are managed by the War Office; Indian education is a separate organization; agricultural instruction is carried on without reference to the bureau. Inadequate financial support has still further retarded the expansion of the bureau into a national clearing house of educational experience. With the right attitude on the part of the Government, the bureau, with Dr. Harris as its chief, could have been converted, without interference with jealously guarded local prerogatives, into a powerful lever for educational improvement throughout the United States.

Dr. Harris owes nothing to the bureau. His reputation here as well as abroad was solidly established long before he took the office; in fact, he had won a place in the history of American education, in line with Thomas Jefferson, Horace Mann, and Col. Francis Wayland Parker. He is the most commanding figure in the educational field to-day. Neither England nor France nor even Germany, the home of pedagogy, has as great an intellect at work in the philosophical elaboration of the fundamental problems. Jefferson was the first to organize for American education an ideal plan, which is to-day most fully alive, perhaps, in the State of Michigan. Horace Mann announced the basal principles of the common school. Parker was a force which broke the yoke of traditional and European scholasticism, and inaugurated methods in harmony with democracy. Harris has laid the foundation for an American philosophy of education. As a preparation, a mastery of Germany's achievements and of the history of philosophy was an absolute necessity.

In the future the study of philosophy inspired and developed by Dr. Harris in his St. Louis days will be more adequately recognized than it is now as an influence in the intellectual life of America. Never were the history and the thought of Hellas, and the philosophic writings of Kant, Hegel, and Fichte, studied with keener zest, never did Homer and Dante and Goethe appeal more strongly to the leaders of an American community. "Spiritual interpretation of the universe" was the watchword. Gradually the speculative study of education was lifted into prominence. School teaching ceased to be regarded as a mere stepping-stone to something else, and a biding place for those unwilling to do manual work and not qualified for higher intellectual pursuits. The best minds were enlisted in the cause. The belief spread that the highest service to humanity was the bringing up of young men. Under the new dispensation Col. Parker was enabled to win victories for the "New Education," and William James, G. Stanley Hall, and John Dewey to find eager disciples. The Herbartians might never have arrived at their own creed and certainly would not

have found a receptive audience if Harris had not been a preacher in the wilderness. The philosophic circle of St. Louis gave birth to similar clubs in other cities. Some of its outgrowths were the Kant Club of Denver, the Goethe studies at Milwaukee, and the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*.

When failing health compelled Dr. Harris to give up his educational position at St. Louis, he became a lecturer at the Concord School of Philosophy. His addresses upon education, especially his criticisms of new theories, soon attracted attention to him as an authority. When President Harrison appointed him as commissioner of education, there was general satisfaction. A man had been chosen whose expert judgment commanded the respect of the world. To the credit of Harrison it should be said that the appointment was not influenced by political considerations, and that in fact he knew Harris had not voted for him. At once, the bureau began to attract attention. Visitors from Europe, Latin-America, Polynesia, and the Orient came to America for light, and Washington was the first place they visited in search of information.

The commissioner's range of interests was marvellously wide. Dr. Harris is a versatile scholar. Latin and Greek are his great joy. He is especially fond of mediæval Latin hymns. "I live by them," he said lately in a private conversation. He has few equals in familiarity with Oriental languages, literature, and customs. A Chinese laundry ticket can open the sluices of his knowledge of the variety of dialects, caligraphical usages, and historical developments of the Middle Kingdom. He is regarded as one of the two greatest living exponents of Hegel. His acquaintance with economic theories and statistics has more than once provoked him to break lances with the advocates of various Utopias. When Spencerian ideas struck America, he forthwith had a laboratory established in the rear of his house, and made a thorough study of biology and related sciences. In mathematics and astronomy, and along other lines of experimentation and pure science, he has kept in touch with new developments. He is a sound critic of architecture, sculpture, painting, and music. At one time he greeted the writer on a car leaving Milwaukee, with the genial question, "What is your opinion of the Logos?" inviting and conducting a discussion which lasted a considerable time beyond our arrival in Chicago, and which had not been fully concluded when his train started for Washington.

His sympathies are as extensive and expansive as his mind. A little child in sincere search for help, a young man puzzled as to his destiny, a student on the quest for truth, can command his interest and time to almost any extent. The writer has in his possession a copy of a long letter to a small boy who had written to Dr. Harris as Commissioner of Education to find out what stories would be most interesting for boys to read. Dr. Harris tells the books he himself enjoyed when he was young, and then speaks with especial fervor of Walter Scott, whose novels, he adds, he still reads and enjoys.

Dr. Harris established the kindergarten in America as part of the common school

system. He devised the first rational plan for the classification and promotion of pupils at school. He was the first to mark out the distinctive purposes and limits of elementary, secondary, and tertiary schools and to set forth their proper correlation and articulation. Never a servile follower of German schools of speculation, he has extracted from all whatever was best and has welded it with his American philosophy. Enthusiastic agitators of new ideas have sometimes called him an arch reactionist, because his calm prevision of the future puts a damper on most cherished pretensions. From history, however, he has acquired the patience to wait for things to take the turn that he is sure some day they must. And in waiting he carefully watches his opportunities to advance the cause, ever ready to sacrifice minor points for the gain of greater ones.

To my view, Harris's greatest literary contributions are his "Psychologic Foundations of Education," and his book on "The Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia." OSSIEN LANG.

BERKELEY, Cal., June 25.

If any younger man can be expected to carry forward the educational movement of which Dr. Harris is the protagonist, in none, surely, may hope be more confidently reposed than in Elmer Brown.

Dr. Brown is not only a teacher of practical and successful experience—who has worked his way through all the grades of the American school system, from instructorship and principalship in the public schools to headship of an educational department in a great university—he is not only a practical teacher, but a scholar. His is not the superficial pedagogy of the "faddist," or the spasmodic procedure of the empiric. He has had a thorough training in philosophy and the history of it, in psychology and the perils of it, in the classics and the perennial vitality and need of them, in history and the unchanging fact of it, in modern languages and their efficiency in education, so far as it goes. He has the advantage of many professors of the incipient science of pedagogy in possessing an uncommon sum of common sense, in being a scholar, and a man among men as well as among teachers. He is an historian of education, versed in its relations to civilization and modern civil polity. His associates in the University of California have been impressed with his accuracy of information, his modesty and tact, his hospitality to ideas, and, withal, an unobtrusive persistence of purpose and an unshaking attainment of ideals. Personally, he is an eminently just and true man; kind beyond the ordinary run of men.

Professor Brown was born in 1861 at Kiantone, Chautauqua County, N. Y. His father, Russell McCrary Brown, a farmer in Kiantone, and later in Illinois, was a soldier in the Civil War. His earlier education was obtained in the public schools of northern Illinois; in 1881 he was graduated from the State Normal School of Illinois, and began his career as a teacher in Belvidere. He taught in Illinois till his matriculation in the University of Michigan. After taking the degree of A.B., in 1889, he studied at Halle, and gained his Ph.D. in the brief period of a year. In

1890 he became principal of the High School in Jackson, Mich., but was recalled to the University of Michigan the next year, as acting assistant professor of the science and art of teaching. His success in higher education was immediate. Few young men in his field could compete with him in happy combination of scholarship and experience. Consequently, when, in 1892, the Regents of the University of California were seeking an incumbent for the newly created chair of education they chose Dr. Brown. He has so managed the department as to make it one of the most important in the university and in the direction of educational affairs in the State at large. He has, of course, been a prominent member of the educational associations and councils of California. He has contributed largely to the efficiency of the California State Text-Book Committee; and has been a vital force ever since 1895 as an *ex-officio* member of the State Board of Education.

In the University he has stood for a settled policy to elevate teaching to a professional plane as high as that of law or of medicine; and to make the department of education immediately helpful, by expert service, to the varied interests of the schools of the State. In this relation to the educational system of the State Dr. Brown has done much to further a spirit of coöperation among the various departments of public schools. He has labored for State aid in the maintenance of the high schools; and for the appointment, retention, and promotion of teachers on the basis of professional fitness alone. He has also aimed at securing a better system of text-books for the lower schools.

Since 1891, Professor Brown has been an active member of the National Educational Association. In 1897 he was made a member of the more select body, known as the National Council of Education; and of that he has been president since 1905. He was a member of the Congress of Arts and Sciences at St. Louis, and there he read a notable paper on secondary education in its relation to recent advances in psychological research. In religious organizations, too, he has performed an unobtrusive, but still executive part. He is a member of the Religious Education Association, and has been for some years a trustee of the Pacific Theological Seminary of the Congregational Church.

In his educational relation with the country at large, Dr. Brown's activities have been directed toward promoting freedom in organization and control of State school systems. He has always insisted that the prescribed studies which necessarily predominate in the earlier years of school work should be leavened in the classroom with whatever spontaneity of method teacher and pupil may jointly evolve; and that the larger freedom of election in the later years be safeguarded by the personal direction and assistance of teachers who know enough to be more than methodical or formal.

A more industrious, and at the same time original and inspiring writer on educational topics than Dr. Brown, would be hard to find in America. A list of his occasional articles, scattered through pedagogical magazines and reviews and periodicals of more general interest, would occupy about

one-half of the space available for this notice of his career. There are monographs on all sorts of phenomena dear to the magisterial mind, from children's drawings and manual training, up to education and national character; from graduate instruction and the baccalaureate course in relation to the professional schools, and secondary instruction, all the way down to naughty boys. His book, "The Making of Our Middle Schools" (Longmans, Green & Co., 1903), is a recognized authority on the history and organization of our secondary schools. It is at once the most complete and scholarly survey of the subject that we possess, and the most seductively constructed. It actually entices one to whom the word "pedagogy" is a source of shudders. For Professor Brown has not only a keen appreciation of historical and literary values, but also an ability for historical presentation and an admirable gift of literary expression.

CHARLES MILLS GAYLEY.

GERMAN ART IN LONDON.

LONDON, June, 1906.

Apart from the big annual shows, there are, this summer, large and important exhibitions of Flemish and modern Belgian artists at the Guildhall, of early German art at the Burlington Fine Arts Club, of Munich artists at the Grafton Gallery, of modern German art at Prince's, Knightsbridge, of modern Austrian art at Earl's Court. It looks as if there had been some sort of general plot to force upon the British public facilities for studying the German and kindred schools. In truth, however, it is the merest chance that these different exhibitions should be held at the same time.

As for the opportunity to study these different schools, it is by no means what might be expected from the number and size of the exhibitions. To begin with the Guildhall, unquestionably one of the most interesting of all. The historical sequence is followed with fair success from the Van Eycks, Memlings, Malense, through Rubens, Jordaens, Van Dyck, down to Alfred Stevens and Braekeleer, Jan Van Beers, and Fernand Kbnopff. The Flemings are well represented, though not as well as in Bruges three years ago, while the room in which they hang is so crowded that they cannot be seen with pleasure—the last thing, however, the Morelian looks for from a picture. In comparison too little space has been reserved for Rubens and his group, nor is it easy to understand the principle on which the examples here have been chosen. But if it is unexpected to find Franz Hals among the Flemings, it is none the less a delight to see his "Young Man Playing a Guitar," lent by Earl Howe; a study so animated, so alive in its simple, straightforward realism, that Rubens's exuberant vivacity seems in comparison to have the reality only of a brilliant pose.

The modern work is disappointing. It was not possible to show very much; therefore, nothing but the very best should have had a place. There is, however, a great deal that is anything but the very best. The large historical pictures by Baron Leys, Willem Geets, De Vriendt—artists who have been of such service to Mr. Abbey and some of the English paint-

ers of history—are characteristic, though it would have been easy, surely, to find finer canvases by Leys. Two or three of the paintings by Alfred Stevens would explain his reputation, if it needed explaining—beautiful little interiors, in which the subject counts for as little as in the pictures of Ver Meer or Terborch, and all the beauty is in the color, the quality, the tone; but they suffer from having in their midst his large, flashy "Fedora," a portrait so meretricious, so vulgar even, one can only wonder how Stevens came to paint it. The modern who really stands out with most distinction is Braekeleer, not half as well known as he ought to be. From one picture, "Antwerp," you look out upon the roofs and gables and towers of the town with a woman who sits sewing at the open window of a room as bare and unadorned as her dress is poor and simple. But in this emptiness, in this simplicity, the modern painter has seen, and has made us see, as much loveliness as Ver Meer found in the detail to which too many artists to-day think they must return in search of the pictorial. It is wonderful how the gray, quiet light, the cool, restful atmosphere of the room, is suggested, though the town is seen red and brilliant; wonderful, too, how carefully everything is studied, even to the reflections in the sashes of the window opening inward. Braekeleer died all too soon. For the rest, most of the modern Belgians have been represented to greater advantage at the International.

I need say little of the show at the Burlington Fine Arts Club. It is restricted to early German art, and has been easier to arrange successfully than a collection that attempts, as at the Guildhall, to cover several centuries. There is no question of its importance to the student—especially the student whose interest in art is archaeological. But few Primitives suffer so much from having their work displayed away from the place for which it was designed as the German. Primitives ought always to be seen in churches, or in palaces, or on the panels of old chests—that is, on the walls or objects they decorated. The early Germans never had the same feeling for beauty and grace as the early Italians; and in the cold light of museums or galleries they impress you chiefly by the clumsiness of form and line, the unrelenting realism of painters who are determined to give you Nature as they saw it, and whose models were not so apt to familiarize them with beauty as those of the Italians. Much of the early work is extremely curious, but hardly more until you come to Cranach and Dürer. A surprising portrait of a lady by Cranach shows how well the genius among these early painters could feel and express character, notwithstanding his flat modelling and the apparent joy with which he reproduced and dwelt upon every detail of an elaborate costume. The Dürer paintings are not so remarkable as the Dürer drawings: strong studies of heads, detailed designs for armor, a proposed sketch for the "Triumph of Maximilian," a most marvellous little study of a stag-beetle—all triumphs of draughtsmanship by the artist who had the respect for sound knowledge so rare nowadays when ambition would grasp the prizes of art

without submitting to the apprenticeship. It is not only painter and draughtsman who have a place. The goldsmith and the jeweller, the medallist and the sculptor, are also included, and most delightfully. But the special value of the exhibition is that it should be held just in time to make possible a comparison between early German art and modern as illustrated in the three remaining exhibitions. Not one of these, to be sure, fills the great gap between Cranach and Dürer on the one side, Lenbach and Böcklin on the other. But though long years and centuries are not accounted for, it is evident that, no matter how much German art has developed, or retrograded, as you will, it has retained something of the old tendencies and character.

The exhibition at Knightsbridge undertakes to cover the entire field of modern German art. Inspired by the International, its immediate organizers are certain British artists who have sold pictures to, and received honors from, the German Government, and who have felt they should make some effort, in return, to encourage German art in England; and they have had the support of a number of more or less well-known people who believe an "Anglo-German understanding" can thus be promoted. Unhappily the enterprise was rushed through too emotionally, or too fast; and the present exhibition is not worthily representative.

There are no pictures by Menzel, nothing except a few drawings, and these cannot compete with the fine series shown by the International only a few months ago. When all is said, it is to the work of Menzel one returns from the experiments and new departures, the secessions and sensations so dear to the modern German artist—to Menzel, the supreme draughtsman, the master. He dominates German art for the better part of a century, but there is no sign, no suggestion of this domination. If you did not already know Menzel's position, the exhibition would not help you to discover it. Nor is this because only living painters are included.

There are two large pictures by Böcklin, another of the dominating figures in Germany during the last century, for if he was a Swiss by birth, if he lived mostly in Florence towards the end, the Germans seem to have adopted him as one of their own. Böcklin is hardly known, save by name, in England, and the pictures selected will only make Englishmen wonder why his name should be so great in Germany. One is the "Pietà" from the National Gallery in Berlin, theatrical in color and treatment as in sentiment; the other the "Elysian Fields" from the same gallery, an arrangement of the centaur, mermaids, nymphs, and romantic landscape that Böcklin delighted in, but without the beauty, the charm, the real splendor of his masterpieces. It is hard and sharp in color, it has not his usual dignity of composition, like the "Pietà"; it is theatrical, not dramatic, in feeling. And yet, even in Berlin, it should have been easy to secure a Böcklin that would have justified and maintained his reputation. And so with the only picture by Von Stuck, a "Procession of Bacchantes," a little group of Rubens-like figures in a fresh green landscape under a cloud-swept sky, animated, accom-

plished, but not one of the artist's most important canvases, though decidedly worthier of him in every way than "The Fight for the Woman," now at the Grafton.

There is no painting at all by Max Klinger, and only one, a not very noteworthy portrait, by Hans Thoma. I do not think the Lenbachs can compare to the series at the Grafton—none of the portraits equaling the "Bismarck" there; nothing by Kaulbach appears; the one Leibl, a "Young Peasant," an interesting study and little more; the one Liebermann, "Flax Cleaning in Laren, Holland" (also from the National Gallery of Berlin), is a good, sound, academic performance; the Von Uhdes, both here and at the Grafton, are the familiar Scriptural subjects interpreted in modern terms, but the least pleasing in color and composition. Stronger work by Von Bartels has already been shown in London. The best things are a Whistlerian interior and London landscape by Sauter, studies of still-life by Schuch, perhaps a quiet landscape hidden away here and there; the big and powerful (to the point of brutality) equestrian portraits and studies by Wilhelm Trübner. If few of the artists are seen at their best, neither is there any of the work the Germans can do most successfully nowadays—the large paintings, like the decorations of Klinger, or such pictures as "The Flagellants" by Carl Marr, for instance—paintings that in the German exhibitions must strike any one fresh from England with the ability and energy and courage of the painters. Instead of the distinctively German work you would prefer to find, you get reëchoes of the various recent movements—impressionism, pointillisme, and so on—movements not started in Germany.

But, with all these drawbacks, the collection seems astonishingly virile and vigorous as you see it in its present quarters, while the Academy and New Gallery are still open to mark the difference. You feel that the German artists are men who have learned their trade, who are not afraid of experiment—men who are alive. But though they are ready to adventure themselves in almost any new movement, to take up enthusiastically any fad or sensation of the moment, in their work, as in that of the early Germans, you are conscious of an unrelenting realism, of a strict adherence to nature as they see it, as they find it—nature in all its crudity and clumsiness. No matter how imaginative they may be in their subjects, there is always this insistent realism in their rendering. You can see it even in the hide of Böcklin's Centaur, in the scales of his Mermaids, and their reflections in the water. Far apart as the work at the Burlington Fine Arts Club and the work at Knightsbridge are technically, in this respect they are in close sympathy, being always essentially German.

At the Grafton Gallery the show is limited to the work of Munich artists, selected and arranged by one of the principal Munich dealers. Therefore, the variety is less, while more room has been given to artists like Lenbach and Kaulbach. To go into detail would be to come to very much the same conclusions as at Prince's.

The Austrian exhibition is a small part of a big show that is a welcome excuse for

a summer garden and outdoor theatre of varieties, where all London may amuse itself when the weather gives all London the chance. You carry away the impression—and it is all I have space now to record—that the Austrians plunge deeper into experiment even than the Germans, while their finer sense of beauty helps them to more careful selection and rejection in the study of Nature. They know what to leave out without any sacrifice of truth. I can only add that the Secessionists, here at least, prove that there is something more in their secession than the name, and that the group of Bohemians, especially in their sculpture, show a freshness of vision and observation for which I, certainly, was not prepared, simply because the very names of the exhibitors were unknown to me.

N. N.

Correspondence.

THE TEST OF GENIUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of May 24, I find a suggestive article, "Schools for Geniuses." You conclude by saying that, no doubt, there would be considerable difficulty in the way of the teachers at such *Sonderschulen*. True, but let me point out another—if you will, a previous—difficulty, namely: How will you select your pupils? I am strongly inclined to think that the teachers recommending such pupils would be guided by wrong principles. In Germany they would universally be guided by the pupils' *Auffassungsgabe*—that is to say, by his capacity for the acquisition of knowledge, be it of language, or history, or mathematics. In America we should be sure to hear the word *quick* in this connection—that is, the scholar must be quick to perceive and acquire what is presented to him. Now, I submit that these tests do not answer the question to which an answer is desired. For, indeed, which scholar comes nearest being a genius—the one who excels in *Auffassungsgabe*, or (what comes to nearly the same thing) who perceives and acquires quickly, on the one hand; on the other, he who thinks independently, and critically? Undoubtedly, the latter. But then, how will you test his capacity for thinking? There is the rub.

Now, I will here propose a test, which, upon due consideration will be found to serve our purpose. Ask the scholar not about Latin or Greek, or history, or mathematics, but hand him a short list of well-known proverbs, and common sayings, or parables; desire him to select one and express his opinion, concerning the truth or untruth of such saying, its validity and applicability, giving his reasons for such judgment. If at this point it should be objected that the pupil would simply repeat what he had heard others say, the answer is that we can easily guard against this by interposing questions. One more remark concerning the nature of the proverbs or sayings. Be sure to select *easy* ones, and see *how* your young athlete handles the light weight.

How many teachers have tried the plan? I can assure them that they will often

be surprised at the depth of pupils who are not quick.

WERNER A. STILLE.

Hanover, Germany, June 16.

Notes.

Beginning with this issue, the *Nation* will be conducted by Hammond Lamont, for six years managing editor of the *Evening Post*, and Paul Elmer More, literary editor of the same newspaper. The aim will be to hold the *Nation* to the standards and principles with which it has been identified.

It is just six years since we reviewed Mr. John M. Robertson's "Short History of Free Thought, Ancient and Modern" (Putnam's). The title is still retained, though the work has expanded into two volumes in the second edition now before us. A leading defect has thus undoubtedly been repaired, but we cannot pursue the particular changes that have been made.

The Francis D. Tandy Co.'s "Gettysburg Edition" of the supplemented Nicolay and Hay's "Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln" proceeds with vols. v. and vi., and for the first time really justifies its catch-title by printing a facsimile of the Gettysburg speech from the original draft. Lincoln's portraits are evidently now becoming scarce, and the quality of the introductions is not improved by McKinley's having been drawn upon for a formless and platitudinous eulogy.

Of all Edward FitzGerald's works we ourselves return least frequently to his versions from the Spanish stage. They are, as a whole, too sombre and painful, however enlivened here and there by humor and good intercalated verse. Still, one may be glad to have the "Eight Dramas of Calderon" in the original handy Macmillan form. It will save searching in a general collection, and can be comfortably held in the hand.

A new edition of Sir Walter Armstrong's pocket life of Gainsborough has been called for (Dutton), and justly.

Sara Coleridge's translation of the Chevalier Bayard's "Right Joyous and Pleasant History," and the "Travels of Mungo Park," are very acceptable additions to the Newnes-Scribner handy volumes so tasteful in their bindings. The Park has the more open letter-press.

From Messrs. Scribner we receive the sixteenth revised edition of Baedeker's "The Rhine" and the sixth of "Great Britain." Tourists need but the bare announcement.

We can give nothing more to the second edition of Lewis F. Day's "Alphabets, Old and New" (London: Batsford; New York: Scribner's). It is an instructive compendium of examples from all ages and on many materials, together with some recent designs by the author himself and others. Partial alphabets have freely been eked out in the spirit of the extant letters. This will at least save trouble to the craftsman.

Accustomed as we are to the perennial flow from Canon Rawnsley, it still gives one a little shock to receive from his publishers (Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan) three volumes at once on that favorite garden which he cultivates so incessantly and intensively. Two of them, however, are quickly seen to

be old acquaintances with a new face, viz., "Literary Associations of the English Lakes," over twelve years old. The third is a fresh product of the Canon's ingenuity, "Months at the Lakes"—i. e., a chat for each month in the year, with pleasing photographic illustrations of scenery. Another novelty is that our worshipper of the Lake poets and Lake landscape and commingled associations forbears to drop into verse of his own. This will propitiate some. The texture of the work is quite of a piece with that of its predecessors, and is too well known to call for comment.

With some introductory notice of Milton and of his youthful "Ode on the Morning of Christ's Nativity," by Prof. G. L. Swiggett, the University Press of Sewanee sends out that poem in a little *édition de luxe*, which opens pleasantly in the hand.

The praise which we accorded five years ago, at some length and quite analytically, to Carmichael's "In Tuscany" (London: Murray; New York: Dutton), we will not withhold from the third edition just received. It is a handsome and an entertaining book by a sympathetic and light writer.

"The Highlands and Islands: Painted by William Smith, jr. Described by A. R. Hope Moncreiff" (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) is not a very happy pendant to Mr. Moncreiff's earlier "Bonnie Scotland." It covers the remoter Highlands, West and North, to St. Kilda and the Shetlands, but its forty colored illustrations fail completely to render the glamour of that rain-steeped, sun-swept atmosphere. The subjects tend to the commonplace, and the treatment to the chromo. In part there is a lack in the needed daring—notably in some sun and mountain effects—and in part there is overmuch, as in a Whistleresque Oban Bay at night. Through the letter-press Mr. Moncreiff rambles in his wonted style, feeling, perhaps, some little lack of material. So a chapter is given to a very entertaining onslaught on Dr. Johnson as a Highland traveller, and another to a heart-breaking account of the Sutherland clearing. Such melancholy histories were not for this book, however to be remembered. The cover is very striking.

Professor Vambéry's "Western Culture in Eastern Lands" (E. P. Dutton & Co.) could easily have been reduced to half its length and been a much better book. It essays a defence of the author's known pro-British views through an elaborate statement and comparison of the methods and results of the two "culture-bearers," Russia and England, in Asia, and brings out a very good balance on the English side. His reckoning is probably correct enough, for the very defects of Russian rule in Central Asia are exactly those made very clear as existing in European Russia. Our own political system, as we have discovered, has not been made corruption-proof by transport to the Orient. A less threadbare and more puzzling subject is handled in the third part of the book, which asks what is the cause of the present backward state of the Muslim world, and whether there is any future for Islam. Even in Islam itself Professor Vambéry finds stirrings which will bring about in the future a great awakening and upset many plans. The Ottoman Empire has not known the time of its visitation, but in that empire

is still some hope if its rulers could understand. For the Turk can administer; only his administration is corrupt. It is the tyranny and obscurantism of its rulers that have hindered Islam—not anything in Islam itself. Yet why such rulers were necessarily produced by Islam is not explained; and the conclusion is that, as things are, the still independent Muslim countries will have to give that independence as a price for modern civilization, and can be regenerated only under the protection and direct administration of Western Powers. This means subject races and exploitation, and is, in truth, a hard doctrine. The book is distinguished by Professor Vambéry's usual extraordinary Arabic, and by his quoting as "Koran" all sorts of traditions from Muhammad which never had any connection with the Koran.

The Clarendon Press of Oxford (New York: H. Frowde) has just issued in English translation the second volume of Professor Suess's "Das Antlitz der Erde" ("The Face of the Earth"), dealing principally with the physics of past and present oceanic basins and the all-important geological topics of elevation and subsidence. This excellent translation, for which the student is indebted to Hertha Sollas of Newnham College, Cambridge, and to Prof. W. J. Sollas of Oxford, is fully worthy of the original work, which it now brings directly to the English-speaking geologist, and fittingly supplements the earlier volume, which has already been noticed in these columns. Although the better part of twenty years has elapsed since the appearance of the German work, it still remains the foundation for modern thought in geology.

A more careful obituary notice than ordinary fills the regulation place in the July issue of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. The subject is the late Robert C. Winthrop, jr., a man of great charm of character, but who did not seek the public ways trod by his eminent father, of whom he became the biographer. Lacking the pecuniary incentive to produce, he accepted a "life flowing full without a plan." An English correspondent points out a new and important source of genealogical information soon to be exploited. It proceeds from early seventeenth-century political and religious persecution, the proceedings being held and recorded in the courts of Star Chamber and High Commission. Many of the remonstrants eventually came to this country.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for June Prof. C. Cobb describes in an interesting way, with illustrations, the chain of islands and fringing sand reefs extending along the North Carolina coast. He explains the growth of the sand dunes, largely through deforesting, by which villages have been buried, and tells how, by planting the seed of the loblolly pine, he changed in twenty years a moving sand waste into a forest. Through this means he believes that the islands could be made subtropical gardens for early fruits and vegetables, and conservative lumbering could be added to the industries of the islanders. These are not "the slothful bankers and rude wreckers pictured in song and story. They are fair women and brave men, most of whom live and do for others—life-savers, heroes." Mr. G. F. Williams, for fifteen

years manager of the De Beers diamond mines, tells of the methods by which the diamonds are won from the "blue ground," and how the affinity of the stones for grease has been used in the invention of an automatic sorter. Professor Jaggard of Harvard University gives a graphic picture, with illustrations, of Mount Vesuvius as it appeared when he ascended it shortly after the eruption in April, and Mr. R. A. Harris outlines, with accompanying charts, a system of co-tidal lines for semi-daily tides throughout the world.

The most interesting part of Weld Blundell's account of his explorations in Abyssinia, in the *Geographical Journal* for June, relates to the gold washing in the Blue Nile and its tributaries. The outfit of the natives is an oblong shallow dish, a sharpened stake, a flat curved scoop like a hockey stick, a small gourd, with a string to fasten over the head and hang behind the ears, for carrying the gold nuggets, and a huge pipe also made of a gourd. The annual amount of gold exported from the principal market is estimated at \$400,000. The industry is traced back to early days. Prof. Scott Elliot advocates a systematic inquiry into the resources of the British Empire through surveys which should ascertain and map the character of the vegetation of the different colonies, and through a catalogue of all the Government documents and valuable literature dealing with them. The paper, when read before the Royal Geographical Society, provoked an animated and suggestive discussion which is given in full. From an examination of standard atlases, school geographies and guidebooks, Mr. R. A. Daly of Ottawa shows the lamentable lack of uniformity and confusion in the nomenclature of the North American Cordillera, between the 47th and 53d parallels of latitude. He prefers Cordillera and, as the best alternative, "The Pacific Mountain System."

"The Territorial Development of the European Colonies," by Dr. A. Supan, editor of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, has recently been published by J. Perthes. It is noteworthy as being the first attempt to write the world history of colonisation in chronological order. The different periods into which the work is divided are the Spanish-Portuguese, 1492-1598; the Dutch, 1598-1670; the French-English, 1670-1783; the English-American, 1783-1876; the European-American, 1876-1900. The narrative is accompanied by an historical atlas, and there are forty maps in the text.

Professor Rhys's paper on the "Celtic Inscriptions of France and Italy," read before the British Academy on May 23, is to all intents and purposes a continuation of his "Celtæ and Galli," read before the same learned body twelve months ago. It embodies the results of investigations which the Professor undertook on the spot, and covers nearly the whole domain of the Celtic inscriptions of the Continent. He has examined about forty in all, some a mere name, some (e. g., the Coligny Calendar and the Rom "defixiones") containing a fair number of words. The collation of these latter with previous readings (those of Dissard for the first, of Jullian for the second) has brought to light some inaccuracies, but none of such importance as to upset his interpretation in the main, or to lead him to believe with D'Arbois de

Jubainville that the documents are Ligurian rather than Celtic.

We lately received a copy of the Inaugural Lecture of H. E. Egerton, the Oxford professor of Colonial History (H. Frowde). The chair, which he is the first to fill, was founded not long since by Mr. Beit, and would seem to be the logical complement of the scheme of the Rhodes trustees. His lucid address was a statement of the claims of the study of Colonial History in the University of Oxford. He urges it not so much for the sake of research, as for its bearing on current questions, *c. g.*, compulsory arbitration, the legal minimum wage, Chinese labor, and tariff reform.

—Edmund Gosse contributes to the *Atlantic* a fifteen-page appreciation of Ibsen, whom he couples with Nietzsche as representing pure intelligence in its proudest and most independent form among men of the second half of the nineteenth century. Sprung from an impoverished and remote civilization, dwelling among a people "suffering from that radical inaptitude for receiving the truth which comes from knowing too much and yet not enough," he was like a man in a lunatic asylum devoting his whole energy to the task of keeping his own sanity intact in the midst of a world of illusion and absurdity. Mr. Gosse finds in him many affinities with Euripides, "the agitator of the people," as interpreted by Dr. Verrall, and surmises that his attitude of bitter revolt, in some of its manifestations, would have presented matchless opportunities for ridicule if Christiania in the seventies had had an Aristophanes among the defenders of the old ideas. The determinist, it is suggested, may well find reason to question the sufficiency of his formula in the character of Ibsen, turning doubt and despondency into the props of his youth, according to his own declaration, and developing not in conformity with, but in unceasing resistance to, the motives acting upon him. The failure of the two great Anglo-Saxon countries to assume towards Ibsen the attitude of appreciation long since manifested by other civilized communities, Mr. Gosse assigns to two causes: one that his moral anger cannot be understood by those who have grown up under the influence of the dominant Anglo-Saxon optimism, and the other that we tolerate the stage only as a place of physical amusement and hence do not realize that anything seen at the play, or written for it, can be serious or intellectual.

—The aim of *Scribner's* this month is to entertain rather than instruct or convince, the one noticeable exception being a paper on Glasgow by Frederick C. Howe, who seeks, of course, to turn the successfully managed municipal industries of the Scotch city into an argument for similar methods in American cities. Here, as in his recent book, Mr. Howe presumes too much on his belief that the exorbitant profits of public service franchises in private hands constitute the only seriously important corrupting force in city government. The leading illustrated articles of the number are by Ernest C. Peixotto and Edward Penfield, the former dealing in a general way with Dalmatia and the latter selecting a little village of Holland for more intimate presentation. In his references to the earlier history of Dalmatia Mr. Peix-

otto passes over one point not unworthy of mention in such an article, the fact that it was in a campaign against the Dalmatians that Asinius Pollio accumulated the fortune which enabled him to open a library to the public in Rome and to set himself up thereafter as a liberal patron of letters and literary men. The third paper in the "Railways of the Future" series describes the projected transcontinental system of Canada. Friends of "Bob and the Guides" will read "The Perfect Tribute," by Mary R. S. Andrews, with some surprise. One cannot avoid a strong desire to know just how much historic basis there is for the minute details of the Lincoln incident which she relates.

—In the *July Century*, John L. Cowan describes a method of soil-culture destined to play perhaps as great a part as irrigation in the development of the semi-arid regions of the West. "Dry farming," as it is called, consists in such mechanical preparation of the soil as will hold and utilize the small amount of rain which does fall. With implements specially adapted to the work, the sub-soil is finely pulverized and firmly compacted, thus becoming a good bed for the retention of moisture. The surface soil, on the other hand, is kept finely pulverized and loose, acting as a kind of mulch to let the rain and melting snow through to the sub-soil easily, and retain it there. This preparation is, of course, excellent for the roots of growing crops, aside from its special relation to the dry climate, and extensive experiments have shown that regions with an annual rainfall of not more than twelve inches have produced as bounteous crops under this system as with irrigation. Professor Bailey, of the Cornell College of Agriculture, applies the statistical method on a small scale to the question, Why boys leave the farm, presenting tabulated replies to inquiries submitted to students from farming communities in Cornell University. The substance of these replies may be simmered down to the two objections, that farm life is dull, and offers no road to great financial success. Of genuine literary interest is a paper by Julia Scott Vrooman on the friendship between Robert Louis Stevenson and Jules Simoneau, the old restaurant-keeper of Monterey, who kindly allowed liberal extracts to be made from his rich treasure of Stevenson letters. Perhaps the most piquant quotation is a balancing of the English, "hypocrites, good stout, reliable friends, dishonest to the root, and fairly decent to women," over against the French, "free from hypocrisy, incapable of friendship, fairly honest, and rather indecent to women."

—Mr. Howells is never an inconsiderable part of a number of *Harper's*, but an appreciation by Mark Twain, in addition to the usual twofold contribution from his own pen, makes him inevitably the leading feature of the July number. For forty years Mr. Clemens has found his English a continual delight and astonishment, notable for its clearness, compression, verbal exactness, and seemingly unconscious felicity of phrasing. The attempt to rewrite a passage of Howells and reproduce its compactness he compares to the case of a man whose trunk has been packed by a woman; he can get the things out of it,

but he can never put them all back. Naturally, the reader looks for his opinion of Mr. Howells as a humorist: "I do not think any one else can play with humorous fancies so gracefully and delicately and deliciously as he does. . . . His is a humor which flows softly all around, about, and over and through the mesh of the page, pervasive, refreshing, and health-giving, and makes no more show and no more noise than does the circulation of the blood." In those artifices which authors are forced to employ to give a natural setting to a scene or conversation, he finds in Howells a pleasing contrast to writers who overdo their "stage directions," and "spend so much time and take up so much room in telling us how a person said a thing and how he looked and acted when he said it, that we get tired and vexed and wish he hadn't said it at all." Mr. Howells's English paper for the month deals with Bradford-on-Avon, with its eighth-century Saxon chapel and its old stone cottages, handing down from generation to generation an inheritance of colds in the head as unbroken as their other traditional appurtenances. "How rheumatism must run riot among the joints of age in the very beds and chimney-corners! Better, it sometimes seemed, the greatest ugliness ever devised by a Yankee carpenter in dry and comfortable wood than the deadly beauty of such dwellings." The *Easy Chair* satirizes in its own way the recent attempt to prescribe a certain manner of dress as a prerequisite to appearance at the dining-table of a New York innkeeper.

Among the theatrical novelties promised for next season there are few which will be awaited with more hopeful expectation than "The Hypocrites," the new comedy by Henry Arthur Jones, which will be presented in the Hudson Theatre in this city early in September. For some reason or other Mr. Jones has been treated with scant justice by many contemporary critics, who have been more eager to dwell upon his defects—his tendency to preach, dogmatize, or exaggerate, for instance—than to recognize his many excellences as a potent satirist, a good story-teller, and a composer of humorous or witty dialogue. His latest piece is reputed to be a companion play to "The Liars," which is one of the cleverest comedies of modern times.

A discussion has been started in some of the English newspapers as to whether the British public is or is not prejudiced against American plays. The excuse for it is the comparative failure of "The Lion and the Mouse," which has been so successful in this city. Of course, the public here, there, or anywhere else, cares nothing about the nationality of any play. It is governed entirely by the impression of the moment. Plenty of American plays and players have succeeded in England; and plenty of English plays, including some very poor specimens, have been exceedingly prosperous here. About the cool reception extended to "The Lion and the Mouse" and "Shore Acres" there is very little mystery. The former dealt with conditions, types, and interests perfectly familiar to American audiences, but little known, and therefore, in a measure, insignificant, in London, while the play itself, apart from its main purpose and subject,

was not a particularly good one. In its earlier scenes, indeed, it was both lame and feeble. As for "Shore Acres," it was so deformed and transfigured that it might, with almost as much propriety, have been called a Dutch play as an American.

George Alexander has assigned all his American and Canadian rights in Stephen Phillips's "Paolo and Francesca" to H. B. Irving. It seems probable, therefore, that Mr. Irving will include that piece in his repertory when he comes to this country next fall.

Paul Souchon's pastoral play, "Le Dieu Nouveau," which has just been produced at Champigny, in France, appears to be a strange composition. A brief synopsis of it is as follows: The gods of Olympus have been hunted out of Hellas, and have taken refuge in Provence. Some shepherds have seen them there, and Apollo with the nine muses is in a smiling valley near the little white town of Arles. Apollo appeals to the shepherds to protect them against the new God, the God of the Nazarenes, and against his doctrine, which is, says Apollo, destructive of joy, liberty, and love. But Lazarus and Magdalen come to Provence and hound the Gods out of Arles again. The people of Arles take the part of the shepherds, and Apollo would have lost his life but for the appeal for mercy which Magdalen makes for him. Conquered by the new God, Apollo disappears into exile, and waits for his revenge.

After a career of thirty years as an operatic tenor, Hermann Winkelmann had farewells to the stage a few weeks ago at Vienna, where he had been a member of the Imperial Opera for twenty-three years. His numerous admirers prepared a great ovation for him, and in thanking them he promised to reappear occasionally in the concert hall—a foolish promise, for if his voice is no longer good enough for opera, it certainly cannot be satisfactory on the concert stage, where he will lack the accessories which enable an operatic tenor to atone in part for vocal shortcomings by excellent acting. Americans who have heard Winkelmann in recent years say that he usually sang atrociously in the first act of an opera, better in the second, and superbly in the third, when his vocal cords were, so to speak, thoroughly limbered.

Like Alhert Niemann (who is still living) Winkelmann has been renowned for his histrionic gifts quite as much as for his singing. Wagner chose him to impersonate Parsifal when his last opera was first performed at Bayreuth. Other Wagner rôles in which he has been famous are Tannhäuser, Lohengrin, Siegfried, Siegmund, Rienzi, and Tristan. He also has had few equals as Florestan in Beethoven's opera, and as the Prophet, Otello, and Merlin in the operas of Meyerbeer, Verdi, and Goldmark. His birthplace was Braunschweig. He was "discovered" by a writer, Hugo Wittmann, who persuaded him to cultivate his fine voice. After singing for some years at Hamburg and elsewhere he made his home in Vienna, where he became the idol of a special cult. There was also a Reichmann cult, and whenever both the tenor and the haritone appeared in the same opera there was sure to be abundant applause, as each coterie, tried to outdo the other. New Yorkers had a chance to hear Winkelmann

when Theodor Thomas brought him over, with Materna and Saria, for his great Wagner Festival.

When Edvard Grieg was made a Mus. Doc. at Oxford, the other day, one of England's leading musicians, Sir Hubert Parry, made a Latin speech, in course of which he said: "How great and how individual the beauty of his songs! The force and grace of expression, the sweetness of sound, the exquisiteness of their representation touch the innermost chords of the human heart, and by merely touching them make men stronger and better. There is no lyric hard who has to such an extent won at once the admiration of the critic and the love of the public." Let anyone who doubts, get volume iv. of the Grieg Album in the Peters edition, and see for himself. The eight songs in this volume were written by Grieg in ten days, at a white heat of inspiration, to words by the peasant-poet Vinje. No set of songs quite equal to this has ever been created except Schubert's "Winter-journey," the musical "Book of Joh." Of indescribable charm also are Grieg's "Ragna" and "Ragnhild," which he had on his second London programme—simple as folksongs, yet every har a bar of gold.

Regarding the causes which led to Mozart's early death, a number of interesting details are given in a recent number of the Paris *Revue Médicale*, which is printing a series of articles in which the maladies of famous men of the past are studied in the light of modern medical science. On the strength of the death certificate, it is commonly assumed that Mozart died of inflammation of the membranes of the brain. Dr. J. Barraud of Bordeaux, however, shows conclusively that what he succumbed to was Bright's disease. As a boy of six, Mozart, though healthy, was delicate and very nervous; he would almost faint at the sound of a trumpet. At the same age he had scarlet fever, and three years later, typhoid, with a relapse. During the time he ought to have devoted to convalescence, he worked hard, writing six symphonies and as many sonatas. In 1767, he had smallpox in a virulent form; during nine days he was almost blind. In 1781 he was again weakened by a persistent attack of influenza. The body which he brought to the great tasks of the last years of his life was so feeble that he fainted on the slightest provocation and had to take to his bed. Poverty compelled him to add overwork to the causes which undermined his health. When the success of "The Magic Flute" promised to improve his financial resources it was too late; the mischief was done; any slight accident upset his brain. Hallucinations were frequent during the last month of his life; his hands and feet were swollen, and he was pitifully pale and emaciated. Dr. Barraud thus sums up the case: "Overwork, constant feeling of exhaustion, direst distress. Mozart is used up at the age of thirty-five; all his vital force is gone, and now he is seized by the disease which carries him off; rapid loss of strength, attacks of suffocation and swooning, swelling of the extremities—if that is not Bright's disease then there is no such malady."

The late W. G. Hurlstone of London is spoken of as "one who regarded music

as an art to live for rather than to live by"; which would make a fine epitaph for any musician.

BENSON'S PATER.

Walter Pater. By A. C. Benson. (English Men of Letters Series.) New York: The Macmillan Co. 75 cents net.

Mr. Benson's Pater, like his Rossetti and his FitzGerald, is one of the better of the rather uneven new additions to the useful Men of Letters Series. It is not quite an ideal biography. The ordonnance of the material is a little casual, and it was a mistake, we believe, to present an abstract of every one of Pater's essays. The texture of style, charming in the main, lacks, nevertheless, the entire *ordo concatenatioque veri*, and is a little loose and repetitious, as of a talented writer composing in too great haste with other irons in the fire. The reader does not feel that the heart of Pater's mystery is finally plucked out. Yet as a whole the volume is a most agreeable piece of writing and is generally adequate both on the personal and on the critical side.

The singular inwardness of Pater's life is shown anew in the fact that while Mr. Benson has consulted all of his author's surviving friends and relatives—he gives a formidable list of them in his preface—he has discovered no new incidents of importance in the development of that composed, self-centred career, and has adduced few hints of temperament and intimations of character beyond those already cited by Mr. Gosse, Mr. Sharp, and other writers. Nevertheless, there is a touch of fresh picturesqueness in Mr. Benson's pen portrait of Pater, and it has several marks of distinction from those of other writers who have found it hard to refrain from trying to make him look the part of the Cyrenaic. Mr. Benson concedes him the "Japanese" look, the complexion as of old ivory, the air of world-wearied languor which have always figured in accounts of his person, and he grants that "he had a slight stoop, and dragged one foot slightly, advancing with a certain delicacy." But he calls to mind that he was "broad-shouldered, strongly built, sturdy, and gave the impression of soundness and toughness of constitution," and that his "low, deferential voice, his shy smile, the delicate phrasing of his sentences, and his obvious interest in the temperament of his companion gave the feeling of great and sincere humility."

Of the few fresh anecdotes which Mr. Benson has collected, one or two are of some significance. Thus, we are told that Pater once said: "I admire Poe's originality and imagination, but I cannot read him in the original, he is so rough; I read him in Baudelaire's translation." And that singular love of ceremony which was the life-long trait of the author of "Marius" comes out vividly in Mr. Benson's account of the delight which Pater had in his office of Dean, a purely honorary post, having as its only duty the presenting of men for their degrees, but giving the holder a dignified stall, "that on the extreme right on the decani side, next to the altar—the stall dignified by an especial canopy and an exalted desk." "Sitting in this stall," says Mr. Benson, "his large, pale face, his heavy moustache and firm chin, his stoop, his

eyes cast down on his book in a veritable *custodia oculorum*—all this was deeply impressive, and truly revealed the solemn preoccupation which he felt." He never failed to occupy his stall, we are told, both on Sunday morning and evening, and he was a strong advocate of the Sunday services being compulsory.

Of the personal isolation of Pater, Mr. Benson says pointedly: "He could be kind, courteous, considerate, and sincere; but he could not be intimate; he always guarded his innermost heart"; and Benson is the first writer on Pater to point out clearly and definitely what many of his friends were sorrowfully aware of, that while this peculiar isolation was at root a temperamental matter, it was in large measure fostered by a discordant environment. Pater had fallen on evil days.

"Oxford itself," says Mr. Benson, "which should have been the home of intellectual and artistic speculation, was crowded by a younger generation whose idea of a university was a place where, among social and athletic delights, it was possible to defer for a time the necessity of adopting practical life. The older men, those who were accepted by the academical world as men of leading, were too often men of bur-sarial minds who loved business and organization better than intellectual freedom. Even the keener spirits, both among the younger and older men, were of a dry and rigid type, believing in accuracy more than in ideas, in definite cumulation more than in intellectual enjoyment. In this atmosphere, Pater felt himself misunderstood and decried."

If Mr. Benson has added little that is startling to the criticism of Pater as a writer, he has, nevertheless, phrased his quality with a curious felicity. Take this, of his style:

Indeed, the writing of Pater may best be compared to the opal. It has not the clear facets, the limpid color of the unclouded gem; but it is iridescent, rounded, shot with flashing lights, and suffused with a milky mist, of which one can hardly say whether it be near or far. It is this strange sense of depth, so inherent in a cloudy gem, that it gives one. One can measure to a millimetre the actual bulk of the jewel; but within that limit what spent lights gleam, what misty textures roll! It is like a little colored eye-hole through which one can discern the orbits of pale stars, the swimming vapors of some uncreated world.

In its perfect and ornate expressiveness, this, save perhaps for the "little colored eye-hole," might have been written by the *parfait prosateur* himself. Indeed, like nearly all except the most unsympathetic writers who have had their say of Pater, Mr. Benson seems to experience some difficulty in freeing his mind from the echo of the Paterian cadence. Once, in the elaborate and not quite tactful passage in which he panegyricizes Pater's love of cats, Mr. Benson pays, it seems to us, the penalty of discipleship, but in the main his humor as well as his critical sense preserves him. Perhaps the most suggestive and satisfying bit of criticism in the book is that in which he points out the frequent humor of Pater's writing—a humor so delicate, so mournfully disguised, that it has escaped the notice of some of the most attentive readers, and caused those who have ventured to assert its presence to be regarded as fantastic and paradoxical persons.

It is the kind of humor (says Mr. Ben-

son) that one may sometimes discern in the glance of a sympathetic friend when some mirth-provoking incident occurs at a solemn ceremony at which it is essential to preserve a dignity of deportment. At such moments a look of silent and rapturous appreciation may pass between two kindred spirits; such in its fineness and secrecy is the humor of Pater's writing, and presupposes a sympathetic understanding between writer and reader.

The burden of Mr. Benson's interpretation of Pater is the reiteration of the truth that has been many times stated of late—that Pater was far from being the sbad-owy aesthete that he so long appeared to downright persons, the Mr. Rose of Mallock's parody, living, in the suppressed phrase of his own, in a "medicated air," concerning himself about "remote and unaccustomed beauty, somnambulistic, frail, androgynous." But though Mr. Benson is wholly successful in painting the delicacy and devotion of Pater's temperament and the fundamental austerity of his mind, we do not derive from him a wholly satisfactory understanding of the inner spirit of that "new Cyrenaicism" which was, when all the evidence is considered, the true reflection of Pater's personality. This, no doubt, is because Mr. Benson quite rightly sees how much there is in the world other than new Cyrenaicism. But he would, we think, have been a truer interpreter of Pater if he had contrasted less and compared and expounded more. New Cyrenaicism, as it is taught in the "Renaissance" and in "Marius," is more than a mere æsthetic philosophy of life which might have found its arch saint in Benvenuto Cellini and its fallen angel in Dorian Gray. It was, as Mr. Benson capably points out, a synthesis of piety, humanistic scholarship, and the most delicate artistic appreciation in the deep imagination of a dreamer forever busied in reconstructing "with lucid purity of soul" the evanescent dreams, the abiding visions, of other dreamers and embodyers of dream in old forgotten ages of the world. So far, Mr. Benson is an excellent guide. It is only when he would introduce us to the cool, inscrutably smiling figure of Pater himself that we fail to be sure that he has a perfect comprehension of the quality and source of that elaborate, yet, as it were, passionate, serenity which was the chief trait of Pater as a man and as a critic of letters and art and life.

TWO NOVELS.

Fenwick's Career. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Harper & Bros.

The Bridal of Anstace. By Elizabeth Godfrey. John Lane.

If a novel is to go off well there must be something likeable about the principal character. It is not in the nature of man to sympathize with the brother whom he can't like, or even to take more than a perfunctory interest in a narrative of his ups and downs. There is nothing to like in Mrs. Ward's "John Fenwick," and therefore we are not moved from indifference by the well-told story of his misfortunes and wrongs, his success and failure. The best reason that can be given for not liking him is that his strong instincts are wrong. He makes a great show of despising popular success in his art (the art of painting),

yet that is what he craves and instinctively works for. He dislikes men who openly bid for and win what he secretly covets, and hates men whose social experience and accomplishment are greater than his own. After his wife takes revenge for his practical denial of her existence he instinctively blames her for the rupture, and for many years (when he happens to think of her) is filled with "fierce and inextinguishable resentment." His friendship for Mme. de Pastourelle is thoroughly egotistical, resting always on what he thinks she can, may, or will do for him. From the beginning he is easily seen through, and hope of pleasant surprises diminishes as his career unfolds.

It does not appear probable that his wife's abandonment of him had the baleful effects which Mrs. Ward would have us believe. Indeed, she seems to us to have espoused the wrong side in the quarrel. The most that can be truthfully said of Mrs. Fenwick's conduct is that it was hasty, when great caution was important. At the moment when she found Mme. de Pastourelle's portrait in her husband's studio and her letters on his table, she is described as being in "an abnormal state, the victim of morbid processes of brain developed in her by solitude and wounded love and mortified vanity." It would be fairer to say that she was angry, naturally and justifiably angry, finding as she did what seemed to be excellent evidence of the faithlessness of a husband from whom she had already suffered (with indifferent patience) neglect that almost amounted to desertion. At this critical juncture the author exclaims: "One hour with him—one hour of love, scolding, tears—would have saved them both!" We cannot share her hopefulness. Fenwick had just been paid for two pictures, and had gone off to talk about his success to fellow-artists. It was his pious intention to go down to Westmoreland the next morning and share his good luck with his family. Supposing that he had returned to his studio and found his wife in a fine rage, nothing that the author has told about him justifies her beatific vision. It is more likely that, during the hour, he would have decided that he needed his money for a higher purpose than the support of his wife and child, and that Phoebe would have been packed off by an early train to enjoy a further period of seclusion in her native hills.

By espousing what seems to us the wrong side, the author has contrived to make a good ending. After twelve years of exile in Canada, Phoebe comes home, sensible of error, humble and suppliant, and her passionate eagerness to win back her husband supplies some emotional moments. As an entertaining picture of artists and their lives, wherein these differ from more equable people pursuing humdrum professions, the book cannot be commended. There is plenty of the temperamental irritability ascribed to artists, but no compensating temperamental gayety. Fenwick's musings about art and the "shop" talk are stiff and formal, rarely spontaneous. Mrs. Ward is more fluent and plausible in the discussion of politics or current questions. It is only in construction that "Fenwick's Career" seems to us better than her preceding novels.

Miss Godfrey's new novel opens instead of ends with a marriage ceremony. An

English girl is wedded to an Asiatic Greek count—more specifically, belonging “to one of the old archontic families of the Fanar”—whose proud boast was “that the blood of the Paleologus” ran in his veins. The bride has accepted his religion with himself, and is about to be wafted with him on his yacht to live on an isle in the Ægean, among orange trees and ilex-bordered terraces. A terrible collapse occurs—nothing less than the disappearance of the bridegroom while the carriage waits at the door. Nor does he loom in sight again till the three-hundredth page. In the meantime, Anstace flees to a remote point on the English coast, where she hopes to find calm and privacy with an old nurse, married to a coast-guard officer. The year she spends in this wild, lovable region goes far toward making the reader forget the lost bridegroom. Here, beside the coast-guard folk, lived the Stonedge quarrymen, “a race apart, marrying only in their own community, keeping their own trade and trade-customs, and regarding every stranger as an intruder.” “Not only no stranger, but no base-born man may even work in [the quarries], far less own them, and this has made them descend from father to son in a kind of perpetual entail.” Some kindly souls there were in this clannish community to be hospitable to the unhappy refugee. By their distinctness they might be called village types, if that hackneyed name did not suggest hackneyed folk, whereas the men and women of Stonedge were ruggedly original.

Presently Anstace finds her intellectual level with the clergy and gentry of the region. She enters upon the enjoyment of their wonderful libraries and their collections of rare Greek manuscripts, makes catalogues and teaches the Romaic fashion of pronouncing; she learns their histories, too, and finds that all like herself have their private griefs. Thus she is slowly attuned to the great world-symphony of suffering, and learns to play her own little pipe with courage. Then comes the dénouement, bringing no conventional joy for her, but, instead, the peace of understanding, and she finds that, after long torture, to understand is to be almost happy. That for the reader there may be some weak points in the explanation is possibly only a tribute to its reality. There usually is a weak point in an explanation, and frequently more than one in the person who has to explain. As mysteries and solutions go, these will pass, and they have the advantage of a certain amount of originality. The book would be well worth while even if it had been written solely to picture the life of Anstace among the “Ancient Company of Marblers,” wandering over their beautiful downs, learning their superstitions, seeing their ghosts. The Greek element is effective, but its fires flare now and then. At such moments its smoke is less of the torch than of the midnight oil. Just the least little suppression of its fumes, just the least touch more of the concealing art, and there need not be a sense of a story growing up around a study. Manners, customs, and pronunciations come in with the breath of research in their garments. But these easily-seen inequalities do not prevail over the fine and interesting features of the story. In construction and in omission, it is the most masterly novel Miss Godfrey has yet written.

Life in the Open: Sport with Rod, Gun, Horse and Hound in Southern California. By Charles Frederick Holder. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3.50 net.

The Log of a Sea Angler: Sport and Adventures in Many Seas, with Spear and Rod. By Charles Frederick Holder. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50 net.

Mr. Holder has long been one of the most prolific of sportsman-naturalist writers, but two such books as we have before us at a time is a “double” somewhat beyond the ordinary, even for him. “Life in the Open,” with its wide margins, large type, superior paper, abundant inset illustrations and appropriately decorated binding, is a volume which will take hold of the book-lover at once, regardless of contents; but it would be a pretty exacting reader who could feel any material disappointment after its perusal. Mr. Holder is well known to sportsmen as the original demonstrator of the fact that the leaping tuna of Southern California waters can be taken with rod and reel with a sufficient percentage of success to make the effort a fine sport for the expert angler. His organization of the famous Tuna Club followed this demonstration, and through its influence not only has tuna fishing been rescued from the unsportsmanlike and wasteful methods which formerly attended it, but the movement for the ethical elevation of sport in general has also received additional impetus. The reader of his books may feel assured from the start that he will be spared such disgusting details of enormous catches as disfigured much of the literature of angling in a not remote past. Paradoxical as it may seem to the uninformed, the most intelligent devotees of the rod and gun are to-day taking place as the most persistent and effective advocates of every rational movement to preserve our native fishes, birds, and wild animals from extinction. Let the zest for gentlemanly sport of this nature die out, and the “fish-hog,” pot hunter, and milliner would go their old way rejoicing.

Mr. Holder's appreciative pores are open to every phase of nature and life in California. It is not only a good winter resort, but a good place for the summer as well, and he expresses hearty approval of the man who long years ago dropped into a Southern California town for a day's sojourn, vowed within a few hours that he would never leave it, telegraphed for his family, and now, in the ninth decade of his life, is still “growing up with the country.” There are paragraphs in his book, as in the chapter on “Life in the Sierra Madre,” which are strongly suggestive of the nature-writing of John C. Van Dyke, in such volumes as “The Desert” and “The Opal Sea.” We do not mean to suggest imitation, or even unconscious influence of the one writer upon the other. The similarity is doubtless due to a certain likeness in the mental attitude of the two men towards the phenomena of nature. It would take more than internal evidence to show that the devotee of the rod, and not of the brush, penned the following sentences:

I have stood on the high peaks at night and watched the fog come stealing in from the sea, until it spread out, an opaline vestment, filling all the valleys with seas of silver, through which the tops of hills and lesser mountains protruded like islands; an sea of marvellous lights and shades. In

early morning it is vermilion or violet or silver, a splendid spectacle, as though the very air had frozen and filled the lowlands with a rolling, billowy sea of ice that stretched away to the horizon and wound its way around the limitless world.

Of course, it is easy for such nature descriptions to slip insensibly into a mere habit of the pen, only indirectly the product of real feeling and incapable of begetting real feeling in the reader. Mr. Holder's shooting-stars and Mariposa lilies bloom together often enough to arouse a disquieting suggestion of the literary bouquet-maker, but on the whole the scent of the real blossoms is conveyed to his pages with noteworthy success.

We have suggested points at which the nature vision of Mr. Holder coincides with that of the art critic, John C. Van Dyke. Readers of the remarkable volume on “The Desert” will recall that Mr. Van Dyke's eye is open to certain moods and phases of Nature so sombre and heartless, so relentless in her carelessness of such a petty thing as man's fleeting interests and feelings, as to be profoundly depressing to the reflective mind. Whether from temperament or from conscious choice, Mr. Holder paints the outer world to us almost exclusively in its brighter and more optimistic phases. Henry Van Dyke could not go over Mr. Holder's pleasure haunts without adding to his literary record scores of sharply individualized pictures of human character, as definitely and lovingly presented to the mind of the reader as any of his sketches of lake or woodland or “little river.” Mr. Holder's guides and companions are too vague in their outlines to stick fast in our memory as personal acquaintances, though in some of his chapters, especially in “The Log of a Sea-Angler,” their successful characterization would add materially to the desired effect.

When it comes to his tales of fishing and hunting, the critic finds Mr. Holder somewhat of a puzzle. One feels wholly unwilling to classify him along with “the tribe of Ananias and Sapphira,” a tribe much given to fishing and hunting, and yet the details of his long and remarkably comprehensive experience with gun and rod do make very heavy drafts upon the bank of human probability. We recall an old friend whose carefully chosen tackle appeared in the window of the village hardware store for sale. An exclamation of surprise brought from a store-box philosopher the remark, “Oh yes, he's resolved to put away his rod and gun and henceforth to lead a better life.” Perhaps, however, we ought not to bring an angler's interpretation of his experiences to the clumsy standards certified by the official sealer of weights and measures. He is no grocer, or carpenter, but an artist, of the school of impressionism. How his captured tuna would balance against a bushel of coal in the opposite scale-pan is not the question, but how it balanced at one end of his nicely adjusted tackle, against his own high-strung, nervous and muscular organization at the other. From this and not the basely material point of view we may read without being disturbed the story of Mr. Holder's record black sea-bass, a monster that in thirty minutes' fighting had drawn full seven hundred feet of line from a reel which, according to his express statement

but three paragraphs back, had but about six hundred feet on it when the lure was tossed into the water. It is one of the most indubitable proofs of Mr. Holder's possession of the true spirit of the angler that, "inch for inch and pound for pound, the gamest fish that swims" (Dr. Henshall invented the formula, if we remember rightly) is found in many waters and under various forms and names. The power to eliminate every other possible consideration by the joy immediately in hand, when a game fish is actually on your line, is the *ne plus ultra* of the angler's bliss, and, of course, removes all limit to the possible number of gamest fish or most exciting captures.

On the naturalist side, Mr. Holder shows some of the marks of the "new school." If we are to take his words, in various passages, at their face value, the fish that cuts the line against a projection of coral, tangles it in the weeds and then jerks loose because of the unyielding resistance thus secured, or springs into the air and throws the hook from its mouth by a muscular rebound from a suddenly assumed curve, is acting on a rational plan, as definitely conceived as that of a man who removes a fish-hook from his finger by cutting the line and drawing the shank of the hook on through the wound, to prevent the laceration incident to drawing the beard backward. All this takes no account of the fact that the first fish hooked in a virgin lake or stream, where no experience with contrivances of the kind has been possible, either to that particular fish or its ancestors, will go through exactly the same manoeuvres as one of the same species in frequently fished water. The characteristic shake, we might almost say *shudder*, of a small-mouthed black bass, as it springs into the air with a hook in its mouth, is too natural a reflex effect of the sudden pain and nervous shock experienced to need any explanation which lugs in the advanced mental processes of the civilized human being. However, the gross amount of this new-fangled animal-psychology of the story writers is too small to be regarded as a serious drawback to Mr. Holder's books. All in all, we shall be surprised if the present season brings forth any comparable offering in the way of outdoor literature.

The Heart of the Railroad Problem: The History of Railway Discrimination in the United States, the Chief Efforts at Control, and the Remedies Proposed; with Hints from Other Countries. By Prof. Frank Parsons, Ph.D. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50 net.

Some years ago, when the mania for serial biographies was at its height, a magazine publisher is said to have rejected a proffered manuscript with the remark, "What I want is a *snappy* life of Christ." The quality which the publisher required is very much in evidence in Professor Parsons's book. The volume is before everything else a "snappy" indictment of the railroads. Its thesis is, that "our railway practice is a tissue of unjust discrimination, denying the small man equal opportunity with the rich and influential." That there is very substantial ground for this charge is undeniable, but the author pursues his quest in curiously discursive

fashion symptomatic of *la courte haleine*. Instead of assembling his counts under three or four main heads, he meanders through more than thirty chapters, each devoted to some phase of railroad iniquity. Again and again he recrosses his own argumentative trail. Thus, chapter 14, on Locality Discrimination, chapter 27, on The Long-Haul Anomaly, and chapter 28, on Other Place Discriminations, all treat of essentially the same theme. Chapter 13, entitled Imports and Exports, duplicates chapter 29, on Nullifying the Protective Tariff. In chapter 30, his "assortment of favoritisms" numbers over sixty separate offences. Browning's

Twenty-nine distinct damnations,
One sure if another fails,

is simply nowhere by comparison.

The average chapter is short, and rather more readable than the usual assault upon common carriers. Interviews and fragments of testimony, both questions and answers, are interspersed in the text. Occasionally a happy phrase throws a gleam of humor upon the discussion. Thus, on page 76, Professor Parsons remarks: "Aside from these sudden fainting spells of the oil tariff at convenient seasons for the Standard, the ordinary arrangements showed thoughtful care for its comfort." The author has an extensive knowledge of concrete facts about railroads. He has interviewed many railroad officials, and has travelled widely in quest of information. But no one will ever charge him with an undue tendency towards discrimination. He does not adequately sift the instances he cites. He does not always cross-examine his facts. An ex-parte statement, as on page 56, is as good as a court decision if it tends to help his case. He habitually underestimates or minimizes the influence inevitably exerted on rates by water transportation. A tyro could explain the disparity in the rates between New York and Ogden, and between New York and San Francisco (p. 25). Occasionally Professor Parsons falls into downright error. Thus, on page 232, he asserts that the Interstate Commerce Commission "has not been overruled in respect to questions of fact, but on the application of what it believed to be law." And yet in the San Bernardino case the Circuit Court declared the facts "to be widely different from those set out in the report of the Commission."

Professor Parsons evinces no very thorough grasp of the theory of transportation. He has never taken to heart the adage, *non multa, sed multum*. He evidently inclines to a gradual realization of the postal principle of uniform charges irrespective of distance as the rule for railroad rates. Thus, on page 293, he remarks: "The equalization of rates through application of the principle to one commodity after another, or the gradual extension of zone distances in a zone tariff, offers the only hope of attaining a really just and scientific system of rates."

The sanest, most judicious part of the book sounds a warning against entertaining extravagant hopes that discrimination will practically cease if the power to set maximum rates is conferred on the Interstate Commerce Commission. Twenty-two States have given their respective commissions certain powers of fixing rates on intra-State traffic. "In none of the States does

the power to regulate rates appear to have produced results of much value" (p. 255, note). Many kinds of discrimination, as Professor Parsons shows, will hardly be removed even if pooling is legalized. As an opportunist policy the author supports the Hepburn bill, but he looks forward with hope to the eventual nationalization of our railroads.

The book is a readable collection of single instances of railroad enormities. In the hands of one acquainted with the essentials of transportation, it may prove of service; in the hands of a novice, it is likely to engender prejudice and disseminate error.

The Dynamics of Living Matter. By Jaques Loeb. Columbia University Press. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$3.

Chemistry of the Proteids. By Gustav Mann. Macmillan. \$3.25.

It is needless to say that no living wight comprehends even the outlines of the dynamics of living matter or the chemistry of any protoplasmic body. But it is an intensely interesting thing to see with what resistless march science seems to be now approaching the final investment of the two strongholds, of which the latter must be the key to the former. The attack upon that may be said to be the highest enterprise that man has ever undertaken with any reasonable prospect of success. The body of a living being is a chemical "works" of stupendous complexity, whose operations are of a most delicate nature. One could not, thirty years ago, have ventured even upon that statement without fear of contradiction; but it is now plain that it is a problem of chemistry, in which other sciences have to be considered about in the same proportion that they must be in explaining the manufacture of sulphuric acid.

In his "Concluding Remarks," Professor Loeb declares that the goal of biology is "experimental abiogenesis." He doubtless thought the time had not come to pick one's words upon such a point, but in any sense in which such a feat could be the goal of biology, it must include a practical understanding of the chemical constitution of albumens and nucleic acids. These are all optically active bodies, twisting the rays of light which pass through them, albumens to the left, nucleic acids to the right. At present, we can isolate such bodies only by the aid of other optically active bodies. Indeed, as yet we do not know what holds the atoms even of ordinary chemical compounds together. If chemical synthesis were uniformly accompanied by an evolution of heat, we should, no doubt, infer that attractive forces hold different kinds of atoms together in one molecule; but as long as there are decidedly stable bodies, such as acetylene, in whose synthesis heat disappears, it is plain that something besides attractions or repulsions must be concerned in the effect.

When we say that we understand the constitution of a chemical substance, we mean that we know what all the linkages of pairs of atoms are, and also what those modes of connection are that are not described by saying with what atoms each atom is linked and by how many bonds, but require a "stereochemical diagram" to represent the case. We now know that the

reactions of a chemical body depend, not only upon its constitution, but also upon its impurities; for many of the most violent reagents are absolutely inert when they are absolutely pure; and there can be no doubt that the minute quantities of different salts which accompany the different albumens are essential to their chemical behavior. Even neglecting them, we cannot write the constitutional formula of any natural albuminous substance; and even if some archangel were to draw it up for us, with its fifteen thousand atoms represented by close-packed letters on a large sheet, where is the human intellect to which the diagram could reveal much? We do, however, now know, in a general way, that perhaps three-fourths of an albumen molecule consists of various alpha-amino-acids (which unite the characters of acids and bases), linked together as acid-amides—a description which, to a chemist, is sufficiently comprehensible and does not imply any terrible intricacy. There are further theories of Dr. Mann which appear to be almost proved, and which promise a still more definite conception of the protein bodies. It can no longer be said, as the chemistry books of only a few years ago told us, that the constitution of the proteins is "completely hidden in night." Dr. Mann gives a list of twenty-eight of their "primary dissociation products," or bodies which are almost fully present in the albumens, and discusses them clearly. His work professes to be based upon that of Prof. Otto Cohnheim, but in truth has many original merits of its own, and upon more than one point opposes Cohnheim's opinion, sometimes with great ability.

Dr. Mann's volume is severely scientific. Professor Loeb's, without any special charm of style or manner, recounts a history of ingenious and sound research by many biologists which will absorb the attention of average readers even if they find a reference to a dictionary occasionally helpful. Its main purport is that all the phenomena of development, self-preservation, and reproduction are capable of plain and complete physical and chemical explanation. It is not pretended that we are already in possession of such complete explanation; but that the explanation awaits only a further development of chemistry and of physiology (possibly of anatomy, too) to come to light. Upon this point, which is the kernel of his volume, Professor Loeb does not make his logic quite clear. His conclusion, that physiological life is fully explicable upon physical and chemical principles, is repeatedly asserted by him in unmistakable terms. His declarations are so emphatic that he is led to deflect such terms as "mysterious" and "metaphysical" from their precise philosophical acceptations in order to intone the disapproval, not to say reprobation, that he entertains for the opposite opinion. Yet he never tells us just how his position is supposed to be logically justified. If he only meant that it is a thoroughly vicious scientific method to introduce any other than purely physical and chemical hypotheses, in the present state of the question, then the reviewer, to speak for one very humble intelligence, would go along with him most heartily (though in opposition to some eminent anatomists), and would quite agree that it is morally wrong to contaminate science with

such uncalled-for considerations. But such a merely regulative maxim of method would, after all, concern the scientific investigator alone, and not the general public, since it would not necessarily carry with it the slightest denial of the likelihood that "mysterious" and "metaphysical" agencies are at work, but only a denial that we are yet in a condition to prove their existence scientifically. Or, again, if Professor Loeb merely meant to say that the facts already in our possession are sufficient to render it improbable that the "mysterious" and "metaphysical" agencies, even if they exist, play more than an exceedingly subordinate part in the phenomena of physiological life, then we could understand how he might perhaps logically have reached such a conclusion. But his language is too absolute to afford room for such an interpretation.

The last sentence in the book, in its two clauses, both defines his position and affords some ground for characterizing it. It runs thus: "The idea that mutation is working in a definite direction is a mere anthropomorphism [this expands the term "anthropomorphism" to a vast and nebulous word, expressive of little but the utterer's aversion to that of which it is predicated], and, like all anthropomorphisms, is in contradiction with the facts." That is to say, because the writer is a brilliant leader in a difficult branch of physiology—a degree of eminence which can hardly have been attained without almost exclusive absorption in that branch of activity—he undertakes to make an absolute pronouncement upon a vexed question which concerns every department of human experience. Nevertheless, think what we may of such questions of logic, it is undeniable that the book is full of the most instructive and extraordinarily interesting matter, in large part new to all but the most fully informed, which is presented with great perspicuity, and put in as simple a form as possible.

The Origin of Life: Its Physical Basis and Definition. By John Butler Burke. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.

The mad Laird's plaintive cry, "I dinna ken where I came fra," is still repeated insistently by thoughtful men everywhere. From the questions of individual and family genealogy with which the most ancient records are burdened, the inquiry has proceeded to the origin and evolution of the human race, and the source of life itself. The theories of philosophers and biologists have been endless, and the discussion has received a distinctly novel impetus from the field of the new physics, especially the recently promulgated facts and theories of radio-active matter and the dynamic philosophy of such students of physical chemistry as Ostwald. General interest was aroused by the publication some months ago of the remarkable experiments of J. Butler Burke of Cambridge, England, upon the effect of radium salts upon sterile solutions of bouillon and other organic media. Under the influence of the radiations, small bodies (termed "radiobes") appear in the medium which behave strikingly like micro-organisms in that they grow in size and later exhibit nuclei and then divide. It is held that they are not bacteria nor even protoplasm, but that they are really alive, and represent transitional and evanescent

forms of matter and energy lying between the common inorganic types of matter and stable living aggregates. This author has just published a bulky volume entitled as above, in which these facts are fully presented, with illustrations, in a setting which shows their relations to the new electric theories of matter and energy and to a general philosophy of dynamic idealism. While biologists generally will probably regard this presentation, like the earlier one, as failing to prove the author's main thesis, viz., that his radiobes are in any ordinary sense alive, nevertheless, the volume will serve a valuable purpose as an excellent *exposé* of both old and new theories of the origin of life, and of a philosophy of nature which is growing in popularity.

The Federalist System, 1789-1801. By John Spencer Bassett. Pp. xviii., 327.—*The Jeffersonian System, 1801-1811.* By Edward Channing. Pp. xiii., 299. [The American Nation, vols. xi., xii.] New York: Harper & Bros. \$2 net each.

The above volumes of the "American Nation" series treat concisely two short periods of American history which, more than any others of equal length, are at once clearly defined and sharply contrasted. Nowhere in the constitutional period do we find a more decided break in spirit and temper than in passing from the administration of John Adams to that of Jefferson; and never, surely, has there been exhibited more complete oppositeness of view and aim. Into the first period of twelve years fall the organization of the Federal Government under the new Constitution, the erection of an administrative system, and the determination of certain primary rules of constitutional interpretation. The second period saw an effort to curtail the elaborateness and repair the excesses of Federalist administration, and to enthrone in the national field a new democratic spirit. Each period is burdened with intricate and vexatious controversies with foreign nations, and with dangerous revolts against the Government at home; each is marked by violent party struggles, all the more bitter because of the personal elements which entered into, and in a measure inspired, them; but while the Federalists, more and more disregarding of public opinion, eventually pulled down their party house upon their own heads, Jefferson contrived so to guide his political following as to give it long life and even essential permanence. Lastly, while Federalist "loose construction" evolved a theory of the Constitution under which almost anything may well have seemed possible, Jeffersonian literalness, persistently decrying the whole theory for which Federalism stood, calmly accepted an epoch-making expansion of national territory for which nobody pretended to find the slightest constitutional warrant.

The treatment of these two periods by Professor Bassett and Professor Channing is in most respects praiseworthy, and, at some points, superior. The ground has been gone over so often that particular novelty in arrangement is, of course, out of the question, though the story gains in clearness by the subdivision into short chapters which is characteristic of this series. Of the two volumes, that of Pro-

fessor Bassett presents the least that is new; indeed, while the narrative shows throughout a careful sifting of material, it does not often strike much below the surface. The chapters on English manœuvring in the Northwest, Spain in the Southwest, Genet's mission, the quarrel with France, and the social conditions of the time, are distinctly good. The grave defect of the book is its singular neglect of constitutional matters. The great battle over construction, in which Hamilton and Jefferson were the leaders, must ever remain one of the most profoundly significant facts in American history; but Professor Bassett barely alludes to it, and then only to dismiss it in the most summary fashion. When one considers that all the essential substance of Marshall's doctrine is elaborated, and for the first time, in Hamilton's opinion on the constitutionality of a national bank, the document is certainly worthy of more notice than the two or three lines (p. 39) here accorded to it. The same criticism, with some relaxation, must also be passed on the account of the financial organization of the Government.

The first decade of Republican control presents, in comparison with the Federalist period, few constitutional questions of importance; and Professor Channing's hands are left free for a task in which he has long since proved himself an adept—the clear and orderly presentation of complicated happenings, the unravelling of tangled skeins of purpose and motive, and the discrimination of personal agency. We are disposed to think that the "Jeffersonian System" is decidedly the best piece of condensed work the author has yet done; and even the elaborate history of Henry Adams, to which general indebtedness is freely acknowledged, has been corrected at a number of points by this brief volume. Particularly notable are the fresh and unconventional appreciation of Jefferson as President and man, the well-drawn contrast between his earlier and later policies, and the account of the battle of orders, decrees and embargoes. If Professor Channing's work does not make Jefferson appear more admirable, it at least makes his official conduct more intelligible; while the handling of John Randolph, though critical, is distinctly more sympathetic than that of Henry Adams's biography. On the whole, the book must be accounted one of the most successful contributions to this valuable series.

The apparatus and general make-up of the series continue to be well provided for. So far as the footnotes of the present volumes show, the main reliance has been printed material. The bibliographies are reasonably full, that to Professor Channing's volume being particularly valuable because of its more extended critical comments. Of the numerous maps, special mention may be made of those showing the Georgian claims and Spanish boundary, 1789-1802, and the progress of emancipation, 1777-1804, in the volume by Professor Bassett; and the Louisiana purchase, West Florida, and Indian cessions in the Northwest, in that by Professor Channing. The collection of all the maps of this series in a single volume would be a boon to students. We note two misprints in "The Federalist System": Vigal for Vigol (p. 112), and 1900 for 1800 in the title of chapter x.

The Struggle for Self-Government. With a Dedication to the Czar. By Lincoln Steffens. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co. \$1.20 net.

With the exception of the extended dedication, which is of course new, the present volume is a reprint of the author's magazine work of the past two years, with little alteration saving the addition of a footnote here and there. The title hardly represents the contents, which deal more with corrupt conditions than with efforts for improvement. Mr. Steffens objects to having his work classified with the "literature of exposure," since he maintains that he writes only what everybody knows. In the various chapters, dealing with six different States, there is constant insistence on a fundamental identity of origin for all the corruption encountered, and that origin is the use of the machinery of government by unscrupulous business interests for private ends. With the growth and amalgamation of business interests in general, this malign species of industry has also spread and consolidated until no merely local reform of administration can be of any permanent value. Local, State, and national reforms must go together, and the people must be so thoroughly and generally awakened to the situation as to take the reins of government effectively into their own hands and out of the hands of the special interests which have gained control, partly through popular indifference and partly through a fallacious idea, natural enough in a distinctively industrial era, that business interests really ought to be in control. Self-government, Mr. Steffens holds, and not "good government," should be the first demand. The worst buccaneers who ever got possession of a city or State may consent to give "good government," clean streets, effective police administration, etc., merely as a blind to cover immensely more profitable channels of corruption. Once establish a genuinely representative government of the people, and good government will be a comparatively simple problem.

If there is any serious fault to be found with this book it is a fault of style rather than of substance. A reader whose imagination is not already unduly heated on the subject, by the constant perusal of the more sensational dailies, can hardly fail to get an impression of exaggeration, and still a careful examination gives one no basis upon which to accuse Mr. Steffens of exaggerations of fact. His indictment of the Cox régime in Cincinnati has been more than justified by the panic-stricken admissions and restitutions of just a few of the guilty beneficiaries, startled out of their usual presence of mind by the possibility of an involuntary visit to the penitentiary as a result of the recent political revolution in Ohio. The trouble, apparently, lies in too continual effort for emphatic form of statement. One's ear grows tired of such persistent hammering, and a temptation to drop the book as the mere ranting of an insincere "yellow journalist" is the price which the author pays for conceding too much to the latter's habits of speech. We fear that the dedication runs more chance of passing as a bit of up-to-date journalism than as the effective political satire evidently intended. Mr. Steffens has qualifications for very useful work as a reform-

er if he will but avoid a pit or two upon the brink of which he seems inclined to play.

Figures Byzantines. By Charles Diehl. Paris: Armand Colin.

M. Charles Diehl, whose archæological studies have carried him far and wide along the shores of the Mediterranean, seems to possess a special fondness for the life of the Eastern Empire. Here he passes from the vestiges of art that still attest the power of New Rome, to the portraiture of notable individuals. So far as this work has a special purpose, it will be found in the desire to set forth the importance of the feminine element at the court of the Byzantine Cæsars. Eudoxia, Theodora, Irene, Theophano, and Zoë are perhaps the most celebrated women whose whims or convictions affected the course of politics at Constantinople; but, from the accession of Arcadius to the Fourth Crusade, the Augusta of New Rome held, by virtue of her rank, a position such as was never attained by the consort of Charlemagne or Otto. The Salic Law is popularly known from a single provision, but of that famous ordinance against the succession of women there is no counterpart among the edicts of the Byzantine state. The notion, however widely held, that the princesses of Constantinople were reared and lived in Oriental seclusion, is erroneous. The empress had her place in the palace system, and a place which came only just below that of the emperor. Not only could she work through intrigue, as queens of the West undoubtedly did when forced by masculine prejudice from the open field of politics, but she had very considerable prerogatives, could at times mount to the throne herself, and was a factor of the first importance, whether in the days of peaceful routine or on the eve of a *coup d'état*. Theodora guarded a dethroned patriarch of Constantinople for twelve years in her own apartments, and the fact that he was there seems not to have leaked out until after the death of the empress herself. Such was the seclusion of this precinct and the completeness of control possessed by the Augusta over her private arrangements.

Unlike the queens of the West, the Byzantine empress was seldom picked out for her wealth or for the greatness of her connections. At times, to be sure, an empress was chosen in the West as Judith was chosen by Louis the Pious, simply for her good looks. But at Constantinople beauty was the pearl of great price, the necessary dower of the Augusta. By dint of a systematic quest the comely damsels were found and brought before the eye of Cæsar that he might select a spouse whose appearance would comport with her position. Doubtless in Latin Christendom beauty was never disregarded, but at Constantinople it was the determining consideration. Where a man could rise to the throne from the humble beginnings of Basil the Macedonian, it is not strange that Theodora should become an empress. Never have the vagaries of human vicissitude been stranger, more incredible, than in New Rome. It is among these beautiful women of the Byzantine court that M. Diehl finds most of the figures whose careers and personalities are depicted in the present volume. His sketches are both

scholarly and entertaining. The only feature of his manner at which we are disposed to carp is a certain fondness for wide and sometimes contradictory generalization. For instance, on page 51 he says that Theodora is the only empress of Constantinople who is at all well known; on page 217 he states that Theophano almost vies in celebrity with Theodora. Also, on pages 31, 33, and 49, there are several statements regarding the attitude of Eudoxia, after her conversion, towards Christianity which it is difficult to reconcile with each other. Apart from this tendency to employ sweeping formulas, the volume calls for nothing but praise. Perhaps the most interesting single sketch is that which portrays the ambitions of Irene, although readers of Mr. Harrison's "Theophano" will be glad to see how M. Diehl has used the narrative of Leo the Deacon in making up his tale of a famous tragedy. Regarding Theodora there is always something more or less new to be said, but such novelties of judgment as M. Diehl offers are not very startling. He inclines to soften the scandals and to give the empress credit for sustained cleverness. But nothing can soften the implacability of her resentments, or leave her with a reputation for higher qualities than those which find employment in the strife of party politics.

Shinto: The Way of the Gods. By W. G. Aston. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$2.

Writers on Japan who have little or no perspective are apt to imagine that Shinto has been a great educator of the Japanese people. Many wonderful things are credited to what is tautologically called "Shintoism," while the supreme part played by the ethics of Confucianism in the training of the intellectual leaders of the nation and by Buddhism, the universal faith of the people, is apt to be ignored or its importance minimized. Those writings which profess to deal with Shinto, found in the old books by European authors, from which even philosophers like Herbert Spencer obtained their so-called facts and whence they drew their deductions, were grossly misleading. They dealt with what was really a form of Buddhism, which, for the sake of revenue and other considerations, chiefly those of priestcraft, had overlain the primitive cult. The revival by a few scholars of "Pure Shinto," beginning a century or more before 1868, was made manifest and enforced by Governmental edict in that epochal year. The only writings in a foreign tongue about Shinto which are trustworthy are those of that small but noble band of British civil-servants, Satow, Aston, and Chamberlain, who, after profound researches into the early documents and primitive language, translated the rituals, poetry, and sacred books of Shinto. After years of ripened thought, they have given us the philosophy in addition to the facts. Now, thanks to their labors, one can read the "Kojiki," and the "Nihongi" in English, with an elaborate apparatus for study in the form of notes and commentary.

The earlier book, the "Kojiki" (Notices of Ancient Records) gives us the primeval legends and mythology of the islanders in purely insular moulds of thought, while the other, the "Nihongi" (Chronicles of Japan)

presents substantially the same lore, but set in the elaborate framework and terminology of Chinese philosophical conceptions. Studying these basic documents, we find that there are several cycles of tradition, showing repeated migrations from some river-valley in continental Asia, and making it pretty clear that the very many, very mixed and independent tribes in the archipelago, whether Ainu, Malay, Negrito, or Yamato, knew very little of their ancestry. They had no family life, as that term is understood in English. They did not practise ancestor-worship, and adoption was unknown. The emergence, out of phallicism and primitive beast worship, of what was in later days called Shinto, at a time when it first appears in documentary form, shows that the Way of the Kami (superiors, or "gods") is the least developed of the religions which have an adequate literary record. On the other hand, Shinto is not a primitive cult as of people in absolute savagery, for it had already in the eighth century an organized priesthood and an elaborate ritual, and the primitive forms of life of hunters and fishermen had been left far behind, while the people who held to this faith were agricultural—a fact which profoundly reacted upon the religion itself. These Shintoists, without writing and most of the higher arts of civilization, had nevertheless a settled form of government. They brewed liquor from grain, made pottery, boats and bridges, and were metal workers. In a word, they were men with bronze and iron weapons surrounded by tribes living in the Stone Age, and these tribes, their fellow-islanders, the primitive Shintoists proceeded to conquer by means of their superior weapons and their superior theology, namely, Shinto. The area of the Japan of the "Kojiki," within the ken of its first writers, was that part which may be covered when one lays a ruler over the map containing Kiu-Shiu, Shikoku, and only the southern and western half of the main island. The northern half of Hondo and Yezo was unknown, and of China and Korea the inhabitants hear only in very late times.

Borrowing from China in the seventh century both civil government and military organization, these former emigrants from the mainland and probably from the Sungari River valley, began the conquest and pacification north and south of the tribes in the archipelago. After four hundred years of activity there was, in the eleventh century, for the first time a Japanese nation. The method of the conquest is clear in the "Kojiki" and the "Nihongi" narratives. Armed with the dogma that the Mikado-clan and tribesmen were from heaven, or descended from the celestial gods, while the people to be conquered were but earth-born, Shinto was made a coercive and converting engine of high power. Nevertheless, such political machinery was in its essence only the Japanese expression of the doctrine of divine right, and was but the local variation of ideas that have prevailed wherever an immigrant race has overcome an aboriginal people. Possibly, even, it was not so different from the behavior of the average American in the Philippine Islands to-day.

Mr. Aston, who has in his various writings dissected the doctrines of Mikadoism and exposed facts patent to the critic, sums

up his life-work in this volume. He does this with pitiless logic and unanswerable argument. He treats of personification and the deification of men (that is, of the general features of Shinto), and then analyzes the myths and mythical narrative. He makes us acquainted with the odd and curious characters of the Shinto pantheon, some of whom are barely mentioned, while others are pictured with lively episode, in the ancient books. While in childish credulity the profoundly learned Japanese scholars, like Motoori and Hirata (without any sense of humor), took the stories of the "Kojiki" as real history, this author shows the Chinese origin of many if not most of them. His pages are rich also in literal translations of the rituals and the narrative texts. He proves, too, that a large amount of things unknown in the "Kojiki" and "Nihongi" are now part of modern Shinto. Incidentally, it is shown how numerous are the miraculous births and pregnancies in Japanese myths. "Mankind have a rooted propensity for imagining that it is possible to improve on the means ordained for this purpose by Divine Providence." In Shinto the substitute for and variation of a virgin birth is seen when "Susa no wo" proposed to the Sun-goddess "that they should each produce children by biting off and crunching parts of the jewels and swords which they wore and blowing away the fragments. Eight children born in this way were worshipped in after times . . . who figure largely in the genealogies of Japanese noble families."

One exceedingly valuable feature of this book, for the serious student, is that Mr. Aston has not suppressed facts, statements, and quotations which, in other books on the religions of Japan, have been expurgated from the text, in order to suit a general public on whom publishers relied for revenue. One may therefore trust his work for its truth as well as its fullness. Without taking further space in either criticism or commendation, we can heartily refer the reader to the volume, which has a good index. It is the only complete monograph on Shinto. In his final chapter, on the decay of Shinto and its modern sects, the author declares that the official cult of the present day is substantially the result of the writings of two modern native scholars, and that it has very little vitality.

A rudimentary religion of this kind is quite inadequate for the spiritual sustenance of a nation which in these latter days has raised itself to so high a pitch of enlightenment and civilization. . . . The main stream of Japanese piety has cut out for itself new channels. As a national religion, Shinto is almost extinct. But it will long continue to survive in folklore and custom.

Aus dem Leben eines deutschen Bibliothekars: Erinnerungen und biographische Aufsätze. Von Otto Hartwig. Marburg: Elwert.

When Otto Hartwig, after retiring, in 1898, from the post of Director of the University Library in Halle, settled in Marburg in Hesse, near his old home, it was his intention to devote as much of his leisure as his impaired eyesight would admit to put on paper his recollections of his life, using his personal reminiscences chief-

ly as the connecting links for an account of the affairs of his time, accompanied by comments and reflections on German libraries and librarianship. He printed, in 1900, in a small edition for private distribution, a pamphlet entitled "Aus dem Leben eines alten deutschen Bibliothekars. I., Lehr- und Wanderjahre," which was to be followed by a second part, "Arbeits- und Ruhejahre." But when he died, on the 22d of December, 1903, only the beginning of this part was finished for publication, carrying the story of his life down to 1876, or just to the moment when his real work began.

Hartwig was born on the 16th of November, 1830, in Wichmannshausen in Hesse, where his father was pastor. In 1850 he entered the University of Marburg to study theology and philology. He did not study theology in order to become a minister, but partly because his father wanted him to do so, partly because of his interest in religious questions. He took, however, in 1855, the theological examination, after which he went in residence to Göttingen to write his doctor's dissertation, on the mediæval Hessian poet, Heinrich von Langenstein, which the following year was accepted by the philosophical faculty of Marburg. In 1857 he accepted a position as "Repetent" at the University, among his duties being two hours' daily service at the University Library. He remained here until 1860, studying and working, beginning a journalistic activity which was to be, in times to come, considerable, both in quantity and quality; but the outlook was not happy in Hesse at that time for a man of liberal mind, and he accepted, therefore, in that year an offer to go to Messina, in Sicily, as pastor for the German free congregation in that city. Here he remained five years, interrupted, however, by a journey to Germany in 1863 to be treated for an eye disease which was to follow him through life, and which prevented the realization of many literary plans.

His sojourn in Sicily—his real "Wanderjahre"—was of the greatest interest and importance to him. A new field for fruitful study opened up before him, and, even if his plan to write a modern history of Sicily came to naught, his studies gave him many opportunities for literary work. He edited the earliest known city code of Messina, published in 1867 and 1869 two volumes of historical studies, "Aus Sicilien," and wrote articles and book reviews on Sicilian subjects. The Baedeker volume on Sicily is based on a manuscript that he prepared, and contains many contributions entirely from his pen. Hartwig's interest in Sicily brought him to the study of general Italian history, especially Florentine; one of his few published books is a work in two volumes entitled "Quellen und Forschungen zur ältesten Geschichte der Stadt Florenz," printed in 1875 and 1880. In 1865, Hartwig returned to Germany; in 1866 he received a temporary appointment as instructor at the gymnasium in Rinteln; and in 1867 he entered the service of his old alma mater as secretary of the University. A separate chapter of his reminiscences is devoted to the ten years during which he was connected with this institution, first as secretary, and from 1874 as sub-librarian. He says little of his actual work, and all the more, in this as in the other chapters,

of the men who lived and worked at the University, and of the general conditions of the Hessian Electorate. His reminiscences end, as already remarked, with the year 1876, when he was appointed University librarian of Halle. Twenty-two years he remained here, refusing an offer to go to Breslau as Dziatzko's successor. These years include the reorganization, recataloguing, and reclassification of the University library and its installation in a modern building, the foundation of the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, and an extensive literary activity, not only for that journal, but as contributor to several literary and critical magazines, such as the *Deutsche Rundschau* and *Die Nation*. But the story of these years he did not live to relate.

The volume before us contains, besides Hartwig's reminiscences and a few articles on political subjects, three biographical sketches—of Karl Hillebrand, Louise von François, and Ludwig Bamberger. Hillebrand and Bamberger both belonged to the men of '48, of whom so many came to this country and cast in their lot with what is best in American politics and civilization. Bamberger was only by accident prevented from following Friedrich Kapp to New York; he entered instead the banking house founded by his uncle Bischoffsheim in London. As banker he worked for more than a decade in London, Holland, and Paris, and returned in the middle of the sixties to Germany, where he took that prominent part in the politics of the Empire which has made his name known far and wide. Hillebrand settled in France, and soon acquired fame and influence as a littérateur in four languages, contributions from his pen being found in French, Italian, German, and English periodicals, the *Nation* included. Hartwig's memoirs of these two brilliant men were written shortly after the death of each. They are excellent examples of his art as portrait-painter.

A Modern Slavery. By Henry W. Nevins. Illustrated. New York: Harper & Bros. \$2.

The motive which led Mr. Nevins to Western Africa was the desire to show that the negroes employed upon the plantations of the Portuguese islands of San Thomé and Principe are in all but name slaves. To secure the necessary evidence he went last year into the interior of the province of Angola, whence the "serviçaes" (servants), as they are now called, are brought to the coast. His book consists of letters written at different stages of his journey and originally published in *Harper's Magazine* and *Weekly*, describing his experiences and giving the results of his investigations.

The main facts, as gathered from his statements, are these: The mortality of the serviçaes is so great (practically one-fifth die annually) that several thousand have to be imported every year; 4,572 were taken to San Thomé alone in 1901, and 1,386 in the first four months of 1905. Traders, accordingly, make a business of going into the interior, where they buy men, women, and children who are sold for various causes, as, to wipe out an ancestral debt, on account of the poverty of the family, or for the alleged crime of witchcraft

on the death of a relative. Some are simply raided or exchanged for a gun. A woman with whom Mr. Nevins had an interview at a rest-house on the old slave-route, told him that "she had come from a very long way off. . . . She thought four moons had gone since they started. She had a husband and three children at home, but was seized by the men of another tribe and sold to a white man for twenty cartridges. . . . She did not know where she was going. She supposed it was to Okalunga—a name which the natives use equally for hell or the abyss of death, the abyss of the sea and for San Thomé." They are brought down in large gangs; one passed by Mr. Nevins numbered seventy-eight, nearly all boys under fourteen. At times they are chained together, their hands shackled, and their necks held fast in forked sticks. He never saw this, but he found numerous shackles hanging on low bushes beside the path, and was assured that each shackle represents the death of one who had been unable to keep up with the march and so was murdered or left to die. Parts of his route were strewn with skeletons.

When the poor creatures reach the coast they are brought before the official representative of the "Central Committee of Labor and Emigration for the Islands" to be "redeemed" from slavery. Each native is asked by an interpreter if it is his or her wish to go to San Thomé, or to undertake some other form of service to a new master. Of course the answer is "Yes." "When a man has been brought hundreds of miles from his home by an unknown road and through long tracts of 'hungry country'—when, also, he knows that if he did get back he would probably be sold again or killed—what else can he answer but 'yes'? Under similar circumstances the Archbishop of Canterbury would answer the same." In this way the native declares, so the document reads, that "he has come of his own free will to contract for his services" for five years at a certain monthly wage, the minimum for men being about \$2.50, for women \$1.80. Although the laborers on the plantations visited by Mr. Nevins did not appear to be ill-treated, few live more than three or four years after their landing. This is due partly to the intensely hot and humid climate, but mainly, according to the testimony of the doctor who was making his official visit, to anæmia caused by misery and homesickness. The Government apparently makes no attempt to stop the buying of the natives in the interior, but considers that it has discharged its obligations to them by their "redemption" at the coast. Its only excuse is the pressing needs of the island planters. "A manager in Principe, who employs one hundred and fifty slaves on his roça, told me that it is impossible for him fully to develop the land without two hundred more, but he simply cannot afford the £6,000 needed for the purchase of that number." There is, however, a growing feeling against the practice on the spot and in Portugal. A little newspaper (*A Defeza de Angola*) appears occasionally at Loanda, in which the shame of the whole system is exposed, and it is the chief subject of conversation and politics in the province, for the population is being decreased by the traffic and its prosperity is seriously endangered.

There can be no reasonable doubt that

the slave trade and slavery exist in their worst forms in Portuguese West Africa. The question what can be done to secure its abolition is not one for philanthropists merely. As a nation we are in a measure responsible for it. The representatives of the United States were the first to sign the Brussels "General Act" of 1890, by which they declared it to be our "firm intention of putting an end to the crimes and devastations engendered by the traffic in African slaves, of efficiently protecting the aboriginal population of Africa, and of securing for that vast continent the benefits of peace and civilization." Mr. Nevinson's appeal to us, therefore, to "stand as the bulwark of freedom against tyranny" is one to which we should give most earnest heed. If public sentiment against the evil should be thoroughly aroused, his sanguine words might hopefully prove true. "Let America declare that her will is set against slavery, and at her voice the abominable traffic in

human beings between Angola and the islands will collapse."

Though human bondage is the main subject treated, it should be added that the book contains many interesting and vivid pictures of life and travel in a country about which comparatively little has been written. We regret the chapter on missions, as it has no bearing on his subject; and though the author cordially praises the missionaries for their hospitable kindness to him, his utter lack of sympathy with them makes his account of their work a mere caricature. For the rest, we unreservedly commend Mr. Nevinson for the courage and devotion with which he gave himself to his noble task, facing undauntedly not only the perils of the climate, the swamp and the forest, but the graver danger of falling a victim to those whose nefarious work he was exposing. We trust that his efforts will not have been in vain.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alec-Tweedie, Mrs. The Maker of Mexico: Porfirio Diaz. John Lane Co.
Blanchard, G. Dictionario di Botanica Generale. Milan: Urico Hoepli.
Everett, Charles. Nana. Washington: World's Thought Publishing Co.
Fracassen's Gravelotte. Edited by Otto Heller. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Hutton, Edward. The Cities of Spain. Macmillan Co. \$2.
In the House of her Friends. Robert Grier Cooke. Joseph, H. W. B. An Introduction to Logic. Henry Frowde.
Kingsley's, Charles, Water-Babies. Edited by Janet Horace-Smith and Marion L. Milford. Henry Frowde.
Lang, Andrew. Portraits and Jewels of Mary Stuart. Macmillan Co. \$2.75.
Moore, Frederick. The Balkan Trail. Macmillan Co. \$3.50.
Nelson's Encyclopædia. Edited by Frank M. Colby and George Sanderman. Vol. I. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Okay, Thomas. The Story of Paris. Macmillan. \$2.
Plato's Euthyphro, Apology, and Crito. Translated by F. M. Stawell. Putnam's. \$1.
Students and the Modern Missionary Crusade. Nashville Convention, 1906. Student Volunteer Movement.
Vizetelly, Frank H. A Desk-Book of Errors in English. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 75 cents net.
Wack, Henry Wellington. In Thamesland. Putnam's. \$3 net.
War in South Africa. Translated by Col. Hubert Du Cane. Dutton. \$4 net.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1906.

The Week.

Fighting the Presidential campaign two years in advance is a sort of *Kriegspiel* much in vogue just now. Apparently, every newspaper writer, every man in the street, has, in this particular, at least, taken to heart Mr. Roosevelt's exhortation to be prepared for battle before battle comes. On paper, and in the mouths of the impressive wise men who request you to mark their words while they proceed to exercise the gift of prophecy, the election of 1908 is already over and its results declared. People of this kind, whose spirits, like Metternich's, ever wrestle with the morrow, will doubtless find an impulse to redoubled energy of political speculation in the fact that Mr. Bryan admits that he would take the Democratic nomination under certain conditions, and W. R. Hearst announces that he is not a candidate. Of course, everybody can see that the assaults of Hearst upon the Democratic party have made its flesh creep and have led many of Bryan's old enemies to think well of him. But that alone could not have led to the changes by which this fiery radical of other years is made to seem almost a sober-paced conservative. The transformation is unquestionably due to President Roosevelt's policies of railway rate regulation and action against the Trusts. As Secretary Taft put it in his speech at Greensboro, N. C., on Monday night, the Democratic leaders are indignant that the Republican party "is putting into practice the principles which they, with a superb self-complacency, claim are really covered by a Democratic patent." In this radical movement, some of the Republicans—like Senator La Follette—are sincere, while others have merely wanted to take the wind out of Bryan's sails. But whatever the motive, the result for Bryan has been a surprising recovery of prestige.

Secretary Taft's message to the North Carolina Republicans is in the main characteristic of the man. In frankness and straightforward dealing it is on a par with his Ohio speech of last fall, in which he resolutely attacked the Republican State boss, and thereby, in the opinion of many, made Democratic success possible. With charming *bonhomie*, he proceeded to tell the Republicans of the South just what pitiful political figures they cut. "I do not wish to seem ungracious, but I must be candid," he declared; and he truthfully portrayed those Republican organizations

below Mason and Dixon's line which come to life only when there is Federal patronage to be had. None the less, Secretary Taft struck a lower note than the country has been accustomed to expect from him. His appeal was more to pocket than to principle. "You have become miners and manufacturers," he said in effect, "hence you should benefit by the special tariff privileges we are dispensing; and don't forget that we are going to line your purses by building the Panama Canal." With Mr. Taft's main contention that the South needs nothing so much as to divide politically, every one will agree except the dwindling number of Southerners who like to be deluded by the cheap politician with his single issue of white supremacy. Democratic solidity is as baneful to the South as long years of Republican success have been noxious in Vermont and Pennsylvania. In our system of government, an effective Opposition, and even the rotation in office of parties, is so indispensable to pure administration that some Republican partisans are beginning to ask whether sixteen consecutive years in Washington would not be injurious to their party as well as to the nation.

Currency reform must still be preached, though it seems at present like crying in the desert. Frank A. Vanderlip's address before the State Bankers' Association last week was made, not in the expectation, we presume, of any immediate reform, but in the hope that repeated warnings may prepare the public mind for action when an acute crisis comes. Among bankers and economists it is the general conviction that something ought to be done for our limping currency system, but that Congress will do nothing till spurred on by sharp financial distress. In this view, Mr. Vanderlip's reiteration of sound doctrine may be useful in showing what remedy we shall have to try when we suddenly discover that we are ill. There is no lack of knowledge among those versed in the question; Chairman Fowler gets good bills reported out from the House Committee on Banking and Currency; but Congress will not budge. Republican bankers may as well grasp the fact that the politicians who stand pat on the tariff will also stand pat on the currency.

Washington dispatches represent the Navy Department as "greatly relieved" that there has been no necessity this year for compulsory retirements of officers, there having been enough voluntary applications from men anxious to leave active service to make the required

number of vacancies. The Roosevelt Personnel act of 1899 provided that, in the event of there not being within each year 13 promotions of commanders, 20 advancements of lieutenant-commanders, 29 of lieutenants, and 40 of lieutenants, junior grade, a board of rear-admirals should compulsorily retire enough officers to make that number of vacancies in each grade. Every officer retiring voluntarily or by compulsion receives the next highest rank and three-fourths the sea-pay of that grade. Thus a lieutenant may be promoted to the rank of lieutenant-commander and then be retired at once, on his own application, as a commander with an annual pension of \$2,625, or \$25 more than the sea-pay he was receiving as a lieutenant. With this assured income the officer, probably just in the prime of life, can either obtain employment on shore from the Navy Department, in which case he receives the full pay of lieutenant-commander (a small increase), or may seek a position in civil life. His knowledge of engineering, of ordnance, or of electricity, generally secures him a good berth. Well-informed officers now privately admit that the attractions of voluntary retirement are withdrawing from the service not merely the drones and the physically feeble, but many of the most competent. This contention is sustained by a detailed examination of the retirements in 1905 and 1906. This year, for example, four captains, one commander, and nine lieutenant-commanders have been retired, of whom no less than five are of special value. A movement to change the law would not be surprising, particularly as the retired list has grown from 475 in 1898 to 720 at present, not including the Marine Corps. Somehow or other, the best officers should be retained on the active list.

The International Policyholders' Committee has formed an organization which commands respect and must exert wide influence. The names of Richard Olney, Gov. N. B. Broward of Florida, Judge George Gray, James C. Hemphill, Alton E. Parker, Benjamin F. Tracy, and Thomas B. Wanamaker mean a serious effort to give the policyholders actual representation on the directorates of the New York Life and the Mutual. If the men nominated for directors by this committee are of equally high standing, the election cannot but have a wholesome effect upon both companies. The existing administrations are inevitably under suspicion. Many policyholders will, on general principles, refuse to vote for trustees who are picked out by those now in power and are presumably friendly to them. Policyholders justly

demand that directors and officers under whom abuses flourished or under whom thorough investigation has been checked, should step out. In order to stem this tide of disaffection, the present managements must make up tickets of men who will be more than mere dummies. Indeed, the New York Life has already offered a list of uncommonly strong candidates. In glancing at the names one's first wonder is, What has become of the grave contention, repeatedly advanced before the Armstrong Committee, that you simply could not get insurance trustees unless they were permitted to take their rake-offs in syndicate transactions? Here are merchants, lawyers, judges, publishers, and others, quite ready, apparently, to take the places of Wall Street operators. Thus by pressure on the administration, the opposition, even if not victorious in form, may be so in fact.

The colored farmers of Texas at a recent convention at Houston, took a noteworthy step, by organizing vigilance committees for different sections of the State. These bodies are to run down and prosecute negroes guilty of criminal assault. The farmers have been led to this step by 73 cases of this crime within fourteen months. It is needless to say that the leaders of the race look with especial abhorrence upon criminals of this kind who not only offend against the laws of society, but do incalculable injury to the prospects of the negro. From Booker T. Washington down, influential negroes have inveighed publicly against the perpetrators of these outrages, and occasionally parties of black men have joined in bringing offenders to book—even in lynching them. The Texas movement is to be welcomed as the first organized effort on the part of negroes. It would be better for the State in the long run, however, if the authorities would organize a negro constabulary as an adjunct to their State Rangers, to preserve order in the country districts. The example of Jamaica shows the beneficent results of such a force. Law and order would be better served than by vigilance committees. Incidentally, the South has just had an interesting example of the speed with which courts can move in cases of assault. A negro who committed the crime in Maryland six weeks ago was sentenced to death last week after a trial in which all his rights were preserved. The falsity of the old excuse for lynching—slowness and uncertainty of the courts—is thus once more exposed.

A serious accident in the Manchester Ship Canal on June 21 gives fresh and ominous point to the warnings which William Barclay Parsons and other engineers addressed to the Senate com-

mittee. They argued against the plan of placing three locks in flight at Gatun, as in the accepted project for the Panama Canal, pointing out the peril of thus putting all the eggs in one basket. They maintained that if, by accident, a ship should get out of control and crash through the gates of one lock, she would be certain to carry out all three; whereupon the canal would be drained, and it would be the work of two or three years to put Humpty Dumpty back again. Well, something very like that, in miniature, happened at the Irlam locks of the Manchester Canal. A steamer of only 700 tons, the *Cassia*, by some blunder made for the wrong lock. Though she had but little way on her, she destroyed one of the gates, the weight of water broke in the others, and the safety gates which were promptly set were also speedily swept away, and all the water higher up the canal poured out to sea. Traffic was entirely suspended for two days, till the spare steel gates could be got in place. It was, of course, a comparatively simple affair in such a canal; but imagine an accident of the kind at Gatun, 85 feet above the sea!

As the passage of the Education Bill in the Commons draws near, Liberals like Lloyd George and Secretary Churchill are beginning to attack the Lords. The reason is that the latter have threatened to emasculate the measure, if not to reject it outright. Hence the violent talk about "worn-out Parliamentary machinery," and "an irresponsible assembly." But it is extremely improbable that a sharp issue will be raised in this way in English politics. The lesson read to the House of Lords in 1832 has not been lost upon it. The peers know well that there are limits beyond which they cannot safely go. They ran some risk when they rejected the Home Rule bill of 1892, but the Cabinet was not ready to follow Gladstone in an appeal to the country to "end or mend" the House of Lords. That body's active membership is composed of men who know what is going on. They do not live "up in a balloon," as Gladstone rhetorically asserted. Many of them have served in the Commons, and know its temper; they read the newspapers; they converse with their fellow-beings. So they know that it would never do to provoke a trial of strength with the Commons deliberately. While, therefore, they may amend the Education Bill, it is unlikely that they will stand out too long or too stiffly on the essential clauses. When they really want to lock horns with the representatives of the people, they will choose firmer ground to stand on.

Fears for the supremacy of Marseilles as a Mediterranean port may seem groundless, yet they were expressed the

other day in Paris by M. Guillard, president of the Society for the Defence of the Commerce of Marseilles. Since the opening of the Suez Canal restored to that city her old prominence, and gave fresh title to Chavannes's fresco representing her as "Marseille, Port de l'Orient," her position as a shipping centre has been thought to be beyond challenge. But Genoa is pressing hard, while Barcelona is coming forward rapidly. Yet Marseilles perceives a still more formidable rival farther north. She is disquieted by the great diversion of Oriental trade to Hamburg. The rapid progress of that port is, indeed, used by Marseilles as a powerful argument for the improved communication which she wishes. Hamburg sits at the confluence of vast interior water routes. Rivers and canals, as well as railroads, bring and take the goods that pass through that harbor. But Marseilles is almost isolated. Her railroad connections are meagre, and nothing has been done to carry out the project, as old as Vauban, to connect her with the Rhône by a canal. The execution of this plan is now demanded as a means of making Marseilles, not merely what she now is, the first commercial port of France, but the leading point of trans-shipment in the Eastern trade.

Gen. André, former French Minister of War, is publishing in the *Paris Matin* some highly sensational recollections of official experiences. The first instalment contains an almost incredible story of an attempt to thwart his efforts to end the tyranny of the military bureaucracy by a thorough-going reform of his department. He soon decided that three lieutenant-colonels of the General Staff should be removed for the good of the service. The chief of the General Staff, Gen. Delanne, tried to resign, but, not being permitted to, insisted that he alone could make changes in the staff. While the situation was still critical, there appeared in Gen. André's office, Count Muravieff, the Russian military attaché, who not merely asked, but bluntly demanded, the reappointment of the three lieutenant-colonels on the ground that he, the representative of an allied Power, wished it. Naturally, Gen. André refused this extraordinary request, whereupon Muravieff exclaimed: "I am bound to tell you that you have not kept to the Russian alliance." This "bluff" nearly succeeded, for Gen. André had never seen the secret treaty. He speedily learned, of course, that nothing in that document bore in any way upon the French General Staff, and that Muravieff was merely the tool of the General Staff clique which had hitherto run the army as it pleased, and actually believed that Gen. André would permit a foreign officer to dictate his policy. The incident recalls the revela-

tions of the Dreyfus retrial, and proves again that the French General Staff was corrupt and demoralized—a national danger instead of a safeguard.

The German colonial scandals show no signs of abating; and the official Cologne *Gazette* has found it necessary to come once more to the defence of the Colonial Bureau, now attacked on all sides. It demands a cure-all for present troubles the creation of the independent Colonial Department which the Reichstag refused to allow. Meanwhile the police have searched the office of the Berlin *Freisinnige Zeitung* in a vain effort to ascertain names of the officials who recently supplied the paper with a confidential report to Prince von Bülow. This document has naturally made a sensation. It was the result of an investigation into the allegations against Herr von Puttkamer, governor of the Cameroons, by a permanent official of the bureau, Privy Councillor Rose. That gentleman recommended retiring Von Puttkamer on a pension, and dropping the whole matter. As this report was confidential, and of recent date, there is obviously a serious leak in the Colonial Bureau. Fortunately for the public, the incident has compelled Herr von Puttkamer to change his mind and ask for an investigation of his administration by a disciplinary court. Meanwhile, Berlin is full of rumors and allegations of misdoing, not only in the Cameroons, but among troops and officials in German Southwest Africa. Germany is reaping the crop of her colonial sowing.

The visit of the German editors to London has started a controversy as to whether the modern journalist is or is not the chief cause of war. Dr. Theodor Barth, the distinguished Berlin editor, maintained that the "press of every civilized country" was "always in arms," and called upon the Hague Conference to begin its work by "disarming the journalists." Lord Avebury was of the same opinion, and asserted that newspapers can make peace or declare war. This the *Spectator*, whose editor was a speaker on the same occasion, denounces as "pure clap-trap." Disagreements among nations, it says, arise only out of the policies of rulers and governments. Of course, there is truth on both sides, as may be illustrated by the part played by our sensational journalists in bringing on the war with Spain, and also by the hostilities engendered by our monstrous tariff. The dispute did not detract from the success of the visit of the German editors. Like that of the burgomasters in May, it has done much to bring about a better understanding between the two countries. Their peace is menaced only by the now rare indiscretions of the German ruler and by the

venom of those newspapers, German and English, which harp on a jealousy that has but slight ground for existence.

Gen. Trepoff's assertion that the Jews are responsible for the Russian massacres by provoking the Christians and "skilfully posing as martyrs," may reflect the policy of the reactionaries, but it is none the less preposterous. Who ever heard of men willing to incite massacres in which they are certain to be killed, their women dishonored, and their children butchered? Moreover, the Munich *Jugend* has just reprinted from a Russian Government organ an item which shows that Trepoff's theory is not original with him. It is entitled "A Conversation Overheard at Bialystok," and runs as follows:

First Jew—"I must say I am no longer happy in Russia; for three weeks there has been no massacre of Jews, and where is there such happiness to be found as being massacred?"

Second Jew—"How would it answer if we should kill the priest?"

First Jew—"That would not do. We must infuriate the Christians to the point of losing their senses. Think of the disappointment if after killing him we should not be massacred!"

Third Jew—"What if we should set fire to the church?"

Second Jew—"Even that would not be certain to cause our death."

First Jew—"But if we should throw a bomb into a procession?"

The Others—"God bless you for this thought! What joy! I already feel my eyes being torn from my head. I see a bloodshed never before equalled. Heaven be praised that we can at least induce these miserable Christians to slaughter us."

The Russian newspaper, always hitherto a supporter of the Government, adds: "And so it came about. Our report of this conversation is the most reliable, since it was written by the agent of the Government who himself threw the bomb into the procession."

The report that Lyman J. Gage, formerly Secretary of the Treasury, is dallying with theosophy as expounded by Mrs. Tingley at Point Loma, Cal., raises the question as to the attraction of this religion—if such it may be called—for certain minds. Many years ago a callow youth in a Western city was reading that stupendous work of Madame Blavatsky's, "Isis Unveiled," which was the foundation of theosophy. He had got through the first volume and was begging the young woman at the Public Library to save the second for him, when it came in; for the book was in constant demand. "How did you like the first volume?" said she. "Very much," replied the lad, "only I didn't understand it all." "Ah," cried she, ecstatically, "but you are not expected to understand." She understood hu-

man nature so well that she is now at the head of one of the largest libraries in the country. The young man was only in his first childhood, and so recovered; but the incident shows the fascination which theosophy has exercised over the unstable. Here is mystery flung at you with both hands, here is a system of ethics which professes to date from the beginning of civilization; and here, too often, is an alluring, half-expressed idea that the restraints of common morality are for the uninitiated alone, and that in the higher regions the acts of the body have no effect on the life of the soul. It need not be said that theosophy as commonly taught is about as near as Christian Science to the genuine religion of ancient India. The only strange thing is that theosophy, with all its glamour of pseudo-Orientalism, has not, like Christian Science, drawn multitudes in its wake. The explanation, no doubt, is that it has never advertised its attractions by offering health without drugs.

"American Advertising" is the title under which the London *Athenæum* exposes a scheme for swindling. The vicar of a country parish, it seems, was shocked to receive the following post-card:

REV. SIR: I feel it my duty to bring before your notice an extraordinary attack made upon you in chapter ii., page 15, of a recently published book entitled "Parsons and Pagans." The book is published by Henry J. Drane, and the author's name is Vivian Hope. The matter may possibly have been brought to your notice, otherwise it seems to demand attention. Could not the law of libel be invoked?

Yrs. truly,
(signed) E. FITZHERBERT.

The quiet clergyman knew the card had been seen by the postman and by his own servants who must have inferred that he had done something disgraceful; but when he got the book he found it contained no reference to himself, direct or indirect. Later he discovered that other persons had also been victimized. The publisher, Mr. Drane, when called to account, explained that it was "an American form of advertising," for which the author, not he, was responsible. Mr. Drane may be well informed. Certainly, this method of pushing a book has a diabolical ingenuity worthy of American enterprise at its worst. Moreover, because of scandals in life insurance, beef-packing, and railway and Trust management, the commercial reputation of America is so blackened, that the world is ready to lay at our door any unfathered villainy. Yet we hesitate to admit that the United States has a monopoly of depraved intelligence. Europe was well stocked with rascals before ever the caravels of Columbus set sail; and it was not our Government which issued a patent to the inventor of the seven deadly sins.

THE JUDICIARY NOMINATORS.

After the Jerome Nominators of 1905, the Judiciary Nominators of 1906. The second movement is clearly modelled upon the first, and is of almost equal political significance. We have had much vague talk about "taking the judiciary out of politics," but this is the real thing. What we have had in the past has been an occasional upheaval over a scandalous judicial nomination, like Judge Maynard's, or a scandalous refusal to renominate, like that in the case of Judge Daly; but the general idea about taking the judiciary out of politics has been to let two bosses, or two machines, get together and divide the judicial spoils. From all that the Judiciary Nominators of New York have cut loose, and have given us a ticket named without consulting a single boss or currying favor with a single politician. A similar movement has already taken form in Erie County, and judges are to be nominated by the same method in Brooklyn. If the plan is successfully carried out, it will echo through the country as did Mr. Jerome's success, and, like it, will be a fresh demonstration of the fertility of Americans in political resource. Thus it is that the details of this contest are of interest, not merely in New York city and State, but wherever men are working to heighten political independence and purity.

Nothing but praise is heard of the candidates for the bench whose names are now announced. They were sifted from among the more than two hundred lawyers whose fitness for the judicial office was scrutinized by the committee. Political affiliations were entirely ignored; and legal attainments, age, and capacity for hard work made the sole tests. Notable is the omission of certain names that had been supposed "sure of a place." They were of men like Senator Nathaniel A. Elsberg and Corporation Counsel John J. Delany. Their legal qualifications may be conceded, but their claims were political. They had fairly "earned" judgeships, it was said, by faithful service to party. But they were wisely passed over by a committee bent on showing that the way to advancement lies in ability and character, rather than in subservience to party organization or boss. Hence the names that do not appear on the ticket are as significant as those that do. It is safe to say that a judicial ticket selected with such care and intelligence, and so free from stratagems and spoils, has never before been offered to the electors of this city.

One objection clings which is likely to be urged wherever the example of New York is followed: this is a "professional" ticket. Lawyers are nominating themselves. They are standing apart from the rest of the community. They

would set up as a close corporation, representing the narrowness and jealousy of a profession. Well, we think the lawyers may rightly make their own the reply of Lord Lyndhurst, when he and the other law lords were accused of "jealousy" in opposing Palmerston's proposal to create new law lords with only life peerages. The old Chancellor turned the objection against into an argument for. He and his fellow-lawyers were "jealous." They were jealous for their profession, "and, my lords," he added, "do not forget that jealousy is of the very essence of our Constitution." That is to say, any one great interest or power in the state must be on its guard against encroachments by another. In that sense, the lawyers of this city, and of other cities also, do well to exhibit a proper jealousy. They have seen their profession raided and debauched by politicians. They have seen unfit men put on the bench by politicians. They have seen judicial honors practically bought, or given to grovellers. They have seen the courts congested and justice denied, partly on account of incompetent judges. It was high time, then, that they bestirred themselves to remove the reproach from their profession and the evil from the public service. If in a narrow sense their movement is in behalf of their own calling, in the truest sense it is for the public good. It comes down to this: lawyers must be chosen as judges; who is better fitted to select proper candidates, their fellow-lawyers, or dickered politicians? Grant that the lawyers are acting *pro domo sua*; they are at the same time working for the common weal.

The ticket is up. It will be legally put in nomination by petition. It will stick till election. What the party managers will do about it does not yet appear. They are at present sniffing at it like puzzled dogs, just as they did at Mr. Jerome's nomination last year. If they are wiser now than they were then, they will endorse the work of the Judiciary Nominators, instead of attacking it with disaster to themselves. But in any case there should be instant response to the appeal for volunteers in this judicial campaign. Work will be needed and organization and money, in order that this promising movement for the further enfranchisement of the people from the tyranny of boss government, and for the dignity and independence of the judiciary, may not fail.

A UNITED STATES COURT IN CHINA.

Another of the improvements which Secretary Root's legal acumen and good head for business have brought about since his going to the State Department is the creation of a United States Court in China. At the urging of Mr. Root, Congress passed a bill to establish it, and now comes the appointment of the

first judge. The present Attorney-General of the Philippine Islands, Lebbeus R. Wilfley, has been selected. His training and experience promise success in this novel jurisdiction. It has been set up in order to supersede, in part, the extraterritorial jurisdiction of our consuls in China, and to correct judicial abuses which have grown up under that system. Consuls are still to have jurisdiction in civil cases where the sum involved does not exceed \$500, or in criminal cases where the punishment is not greater than \$100 fine or 60 days' imprisonment; but appeal shall lie to the United States Court.

This news falls significantly with a recent dispatch from Dr. George Ernest Morrison, the Pekin correspondent of the London *Times*, setting forth the unsatisfactory administration of justice in Shanghai. Under the system of mixed courts, in which a Chinese magistrate sits with a foreign assessor in all cases affecting foreigners, unhappy practices have been introduced. Naturally, the native judge seizes every opportunity to assert a purely native jurisdiction, with the result, affirms Dr. Morrison, that "in civil cases both plaintiff and defendant can be squeezed unmercifully, while in criminal cases the poor are punished brutally and the rich can buy immunity." Foreign governments have long been seriously dissatisfied with the working of this system. After years of discussion, without result, they last March submitted to the Chinese Foreign Office, through the Diplomatic Body, a set of redrafted regulations to govern the mixed courts; yet an agreement has thus far been blocked by the Chinese. Now we have our new court.

It is, of course, a part of that extraterritorial jurisdiction which we, in common with several other nations, have by treaty the right to exercise in China. The time seems distant when the Western world will be content to waive this in China, as we did in Japan in 1894. Chinese conditions of government, and of the administration of justice, being what they are, resident foreigners would not feel that they were safe in submitting to native courts. And the amount of legal business concerning American merchants and missionaries resident in China is large, and constantly increasing. The last "Statesman's Year-Book" puts the total number of foreigners living in the open ports of China at 27,227, about one-half of whom are resident at Shanghai. There the United States Court is to be erected, though its jurisdiction is to extend over several provinces. According to figures published by the customs authorities, there were, at the end of 1904, more than 3,000 Americans residing in the open ports. In connection with their mercantile contracts and transfers of property, both before and after death, there must be frequent need of getting judicial deci-

sions, and it is axiomatic that they ought to be rendered with as great authority and integrity as possible.

Consular jurisdiction has been, for obvious reasons, unsatisfactory. Those scalawag appointees of McKinley's who have recently had to be removed from the consular service in China, were under grave charges of malfeasance in precisely their character as judges. If we may believe what was publicly alleged of them, a Chinese *taotai* could not have been more oppressive or venal. But leaving out corruption, and supposing that all our consuls were honest, few of them know law enough to make them fit judges. Nice questions of nationality, of domicile, of marriage, of inheritance, of taxation, of property rights, to say nothing of crimes, are all the while coming up for adjudication, and what consul is sufficient for these things? He should have a fair knowledge of the common law, with some acquaintance with the *lex loci* and a good understanding of the principles of international law. That the actual consul in China as we know him has been deficient in these respects, no one will deny; hence the importance of the court which is new to hear and dispose of cases involving Americans in the Chinese Empire will be generally conceded.

In addition to the general exercise of extraterritorial jurisdiction in China, there are special privileges attaching to the concessions, with their foreign communities, at the treaty ports. The greatest of these is at Shanghai. Here the various nationalities have their concessions, within which land may be rented in perpetuity; and though China still asserts sovereign rights over the whole, they are practically never enforced, and are little more than an empty form. There is even a sort of foreign municipality at Shanghai, under the land regulations of 1866, which has power to levy taxes and enforce municipal ordinances. The legality of the latter was upheld by Secretary Bayard in 1887. We refer to these complexities of government because they reinforce the argument for having a learned judge, instead of a haphazard consul, in charge of the legal interests of American business men and missionaries resident in China.

BRIGADING THE ARMY.

Secretary Taft's announcement that the army is hereafter to be concentrated in large posts or barracks will be heartily welcomed by the troops and by those interested in economical administration of the service. For the present, seven posts have been selected for enlargement: Forts Riley and Leavenworth in Kansas, Sam Houston in Texas, Robinson in Nebraska, D. A. Russell in Wyoming, Sill in Oklahoma, and Oglethorpe on the battlefield of Chicka-

mauga. To these will soon be added a post in the East, perhaps in Pennsylvania, and one on the Pacific Coast. When these changes have been carried out, the break with the army of 1870 to 1898 will be complete. In uniforms, equipment, training, spirit, in everything save in tradition and in the continued influence of politics, the army of to-day is an improvement upon that of the quarter of a century succeeding its reorganization in 1870.

In those years the thirty-five cavalry and infantry regiments were scattered over the frontier in small one or two-company posts. Sometimes there were battalion posts and less frequently regiments came together for brief periods. Manœuvres there were none, save in 1886 and 1893. Generals never took actual command except in the emergency of serious Indian uprisings, most of which were settled by captains and colonels. Company officers might spend years in the service and never see a battalion drill. But as the West was opened up by the railroads and the Indian wars died out with the Pine Ridge campaign of 1890-1891, the Washington authorities came to a realization that a rearrangement was advisable, particularly as many an old post was tumbling to pieces. Unfortunately, the War Department decided upon the regimental-post policy, which easily fell in with the schemes of politicians. Thanks to their influence, the new posts were often located with far less regard to strategical value than to benefits to be derived by land speculators or trades-people. Hideous brick barracks, devoid of architectural beauty, began to appear near centres like Chicago, Little Rock, Spokane, Burlington (Vt.), Des Moines, etc. At Omaha a beautiful old post was abandoned, and a new one built to please the city; and at dwindling Helena the ugly post of Fort Harrison was constructed to reward certain politicians.

The new policy goes a step further. It looks to the creation of posts garrisoned by between 2,000 and 3,000 men, so that officers may be trained not merely in battalion and regimental evolutions, but in brigade exercises as well. Instead of separate posts for infantry and cavalry, there will be garrisons comprising not only horse and foot, but also light artillery. Thus the three combatant branches will drill together, and each learn about their mutual dependence and their respective functions. More than that, small posts are uneconomical from the military point of view, because many men must be deducted from the active strength for guard duty, punishment, illness, and for performing police and other duties executed in England by the general service corps. In two-company posts, where the strength was, say, 120 men in all, it was rarely possible to parade more than 35 men to a company, with the result that exten-

sive drills were impossible. Practically as many men are needed for fatigue duty in a small post as in a large one. At least, the concentration of 3,000 men in a post enables a far larger proportion to turn out for drill than where there are 120 or 200.

From the point of view of the quartermaster or commissary, the large post is also much more economical. Food and supplies for 3,000 men can more easily be delivered at one place than at five, particularly if some of those five are not on any railroad. Hence the taxpayer should doubly welcome Secretary Taft's plan. He should get a more efficient army at relatively lower cost. Fort Leavenworth, our American Aldershot, years ago proved the desirability of large posts from the strictly business point of view, as well as the military. And if, as is to be hoped, the United States, by withdrawing from the Philippines, shall be able to reduce its army as it did in 1870, the establishment of brigade posts would not interfere with the mustering-out process. Such as are not then needed may be used by the militia, or kept up for national emergencies.

Finally, the brigade posts will be of great value to our generals. Until lately these men have been merely officers of the roll-top desk, sometimes never wearing a uniform or mounting a horse in a year's time, and wholly disassociated from the troops. Their commands in many cases are still merely geographical divisions, arbitrarily laid out, and their function the signing of official papers before forwarding them to Washington. In brief, the American general prior to 1898 was, except for clerical routine, as idle an official as could be found in the pay of the Government. As a result, when war broke out in 1898, only three of our generals—Miles, Merritt, and Brooke—had ever manœuvred brigades, and their experience was almost wholly due to the civil war. Under the new plan, a general will have opportunity to learn his duties, and will be compelled to show his ability to handle large bodies of men. The abolition at least of some of the geographical commands should soon follow.

ENGLAND IN EGYPT.

Sir Edward Grey's fears of a Mohammedan uprising in Africa, and especially in Egypt, are not to be lightly passed over. The Liberal Foreign Secretary does not belong to the school of diplomatic sensationalists; and trouble of this kind is the last thing his administration is hunting for. Memories of the humanitarian Gladstone bombarding Alexandria to check what Lord Randolph Churchill called the "legitimate uprising of an oppressed people" and waging against them "a wicked war, an unjust war, a bondholders' war," ought

to make Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman wary lest history repeat itself. There are, as it is, quite enough parallels with Gladstone's Government of 1880 and its unwieldy majority, without courting a repetition of his bungling Egyptian campaign. England, moreover, has fought enough for this generation. Hence a vision of Egypt and the new-won Soudan blazing afresh with fanatical warfare is enough to make any Ministry uncomfortable.

True, no Kandolph Churchill is now at hand to badger the Prime Minister about his Egyptian policy; but lesser critics are ready to heckle at every opportunity. For instance, John Dillon's protest against the barbarity displayed in publicly flogging and executing the natives who recently murdered a British officer was proper and manly. For this performance Sir Edward Grey has assumed full responsibility, but he should realize that a Mohammedan outbreak, if one be impending, can no more be checked by this means than the progress of liberty in Russia by official orders for bloodletting. Such repressive measures are only fuel for the flames of discontent. The fellaheen who witnessed the executions may have been impressed by the severity of their English rulers; who can believe that their liking for their self-appointed masters has been increased by this ferocious reprisal? Indeed, the most depressing part of the whole affair to Englishmen ought to be the demonstration that, for all her reforms, England controls in Egypt only by her rifles.

Some realization of this sad state of affairs may have lurked in William J. Bryan's mind when he said in his Fourth of July speech that "wars have been waged for the alleged improvement of those attacked, and still more frequently philanthropy has been adulterated with selfish interests." Undoubtedly, it was a pecuniary motive which, first of all, led England into Egypt; but since Lord Cromer began to bring order out of the chaos of 1882, it is only fair to say that his Administration has been primarily for the Egyptian himself, instead of for the foreign bondholder. How remarkable his achievements have been, is set forth in detail in Sir Auckland Colvin's new volume, "The Making of Modern Egypt." The winning back of the Soudan, the complete reconstruction of the Governmental machinery, the improvement in the courts, the success of vast irrigation projects, and the laying by of great surpluses where formerly there were large deficits—all these triumphs Sir Auckland describes. Egypt is probably the best illustration of the government of an "inferior race" by foreigners; yet nowhere to-day is the failure of the conqueror to win the affections of the conquered more evident. Sir Edward Grey and Lord Cromer may, if they please, think

the Egyptians ungrateful; but the fact remains: England is battering down a fire in the land of the Pharaohs, and after striving earnestly for two decades for its regeneration, finds herself compelled, on the twenty-fourth anniversary of the bombardment of Alexandria, to increase largely her garrison of European troops. Boast of Anglo-Saxon prowess as you may, it has never yet fought or governed its way into the affections of a subject people.

Religious differences naturally are one main cause of this failure. But they cannot explain everything. The fellaheen are richer and freer; they enjoy a justice unknown under Ismail and Tewfik, and forced labor is practically abolished. Yet somehow they are still dissatisfied. Even if translations of Sir Auckland Colvin's excellent book were to be freely distributed, disaffection would not cease. The natives might be pleased to recall that before Cromer's coming there were no telephones and no electric cars in Cairo. Boatmen no longer pay heavy tolls for passing under the bridges of the Nile. The whole system of fisheries has been reorganized and bettered; and a great educational structure has been reared. Yet, as Sir Malcolm McIlwraith, the judicial adviser to the Khedive, has admitted, every step in the introduction of European officials and European methods is still systematically denounced in the native press.

Mr. Bryan perceived another truth when, speaking of the effect of self-government in the United States upon the world's ideals, he said that such a conception "will sometimes revolutionize an individual, a community, a State, a nation, or even a world, and the idea that man possesses inalienable rights which the State did not give and which the State, though it can deny, cannot take away, has made millions of human beings stand erect and claim their God-given inheritance." There is still behind the Egyptian situation that national feeling which Mr. Gladstone crushed when he defeated Arabi in 1882. The fellaheen would gladly be poorer if they could but get rid of the haughty white man. Nor is this fact denied in Sir Malcolm McIlwraith's observation that the upper native classes feel a profound distrust, and even alarm, when wider power and responsibility are put upon native officials. Similarly in the Philippines some Filipinos dread what might happen if the Americans should withdraw. But whatever the sentiments of the upper classes, the rank and file of the people are angry and sore. Indeed, the whole Egyptian experiment is full of warnings for those who believe that Americans, too, are called on to govern another people against their will.

HUMOR IN HIGH PLACES.

The dying hours of Congress were enlivened by several humorous speeches. Two Representatives, in particular, Mr. Boutell of Illinois and Mr. Cushman of Washington, got and held the ear of the House, and enraptured the galleries. Neither of these gentlemen would confess to being a humorist. That would be almost suicidal for a Congressman. Proctor Knott's fate is still a powerful deterrent to aspiring statesmen, who perceive what solemnity has done to make some men great. Yet it is true that Messrs. Boutell and Cushman are among those most gladly heard, and that their humorous sallies may be said to be typical in our Congressional oratory.

In general, they aim at broad effects. Exaggeration, distortion, the extreme of caricature, are frequent in their mouths. Mr. Boutell, for example, in his controversy with Representative Rainey, accused him of advocating "Government by Advertisement," and proceeded to read a lot of imaginary advertisements. They were all of the "shriekingly funny" kind. The point of one of them is, we suppose, due to the fact that Mr. Rainey is rather hirsute. It runs:

Ganderine for the Head, the Most Amazing and Stupendous Discovery of this Age of Marvels. What is Ganderine? It is an occult distillation of the secret alembic of an unknown chemist who has lost the prescription and forgotten the formula.

[Laughter.]

Ganderine is duplex in its action and works while you sleep.

[Laughter.]

Shake it with the right hand and Ganderine removes hair from the scalp and wheels from the brain; shake it with the left hand and Ganderine puts wheels in the brain and hair on the scalp, etc.

To sample Mr. Cushman's humor, observe him in a duel of wit with Bourke Cockran. It was ended by the Washington Representative saying:

I want to pay the gentleman a tribute. My admiration of him was so great that a few days ago I went to a near and dear friend of his to make some inquiries regarding the gentleman. And I said to that friend of his: "Is it possible, sir, that in all of those equally masterful and misleading addresses which the gentleman 'pulls off' upon this floor he speaks entirely without preparation—absolutely extempore? Has the gentleman no thought of what he is going to say when he rises to speak?"

And his friend said to me: "Mr. Cushman, I not only assure you that he has no idea of what he is going to say when he rises to his feet, but what is more wonderful than that, he speaks with such unusual fluency and enthusiasm that he does not even know what he has said when he sits down." [Great laughter.]

These specimens would, we presume, be called types of "American humor." They are at least types of Congressional humor. But we are not sure that the

physical conditions under which it is produced do not determine its character. Imagine a vast and noisy hall like the House of Representatives, with tired and indifferent members all about and drowsy people filling the galleries, and then ask how delicate sword-play of wit would fare in such a place. The cleaver or bludgeon becomes almost the enforced weapon. Jokes must be bellowed, or they will not be heard. The funny man must speak through a megaphone. He must make his caricatures as big as a barn and as red as a country school-house. The Speaker knows that everything of the nature of subtle innuendo, quiet asides, and suggestive allusion would be lost, and so he goes in for the big bow-wow of humor.

House of Commons humorists have a great advantage over our Congressional. They speak in a room so small that a low-pitched voice may easily be heard. Often, they lean across the table to stick pins into their adversary on the opposite bench, instead of having to shout long-distance defiance at him, as our Representatives do. The nicer play of wit is possible under such circumstances. You then get "Lulu" Harcourt planting his *banderillas* in Chamberlain's neck; you get Herbert Paul and his Oxford rival, Mr. Smith, delivering their rattling fire of epigrams and sub-acid retorts and classical reminiscences at each other's head. The audience, the tradition, count for much, but the contracted space also for much. House of Commons wit is more like dinner-table wit, partly because the House is not much larger than a dining room.

The sparkle of *esprit* in the French Chamber may likewise be attributed in a measure to physics and acoustics. There is, of course, a differing standard of wit, as of oratory; but when the tribune is close to the desks, it is easier to have such a flashing give-and-take as occurred the other day between Clemenceau and Jaurès. That the distinction between the humor of Deputies and that of Congressmen is one of form rather than substance, may be gathered from the final exchange of retorts:

Jaurès. "Vous n'êtes pas le bon dieu."

Clemenceau. "Et vous, vous n'êtes pas même le diable."

THE KING'S ENGLISH.

"The King's English," recently issued from the Clarendon Press, has excited more comment in England than any work of the kind since Dean Henry Alford's "The Queen's English" (1863) and George Washington Moon's tart rejoinder, "The Dean's English." The book has attracted this attention partly because many of its horrible examples are culled from the respectable columns of the *Times*, *Spectator*, and *Westminster Gazette*, and partly because it is, for a treatise on rhetoric, uncommonly sane.

The *Spectator* takes the drubbing with good humor, generously praises the book as "delightful reading, if only for its wit and urbanity of style"; with sorrow confesses its sins, but asks whether, after all, "the tests are not too hard."

From one point of view they are too hard. Writing for daily or weekly publication can seldom strike a high level. Modern journalists too often follow Shakspeare's example in never blotting a single line—not that they regard their product as impeccable, but that they have scant time for revision. The event of the week, an earthquake in San Francisco or the adjournment of Congress, presses for notice; the clock ticks, "Now or never." All things considered, the wonder is not that journalistic writing is generally bad, but that it is ever good. To censure its fugitive sheets as less carefully finished than Gibbon's "Decline and Fall" is like condemning a shelter tent because it is not St. Peter's at Rome. And yet if editors were content with the average output from their shops, the English of all dailies and periodicals would melt and swim in a deliquium of inanity. The ambitious journalist must keep his eyes on the classics. As a critic of books he is far inferior to Sainte-Beuve; as a political philosopher, he is not to be thought of with Burke; but unless he is familiar with his Sainte-Beuve and his Burke, unless he aims to come as near them as his powers and his subject permit, he fails. However indulgent his readers, he must always be intolerant of his own slipshod performances—hitch his wagon to a star.

He may well take to heart, then, the warnings of "The King's English." He may not assent to all the rules and suggestions, but he cannot deny that he should prefer the familiar word to the far-fetched, the concrete to the abstract, and the single word to the circumlocution. He knows, when he stops to think, that "bad as the weather has been" is far more effective than "despite the unfavorable climatic conditions"; and that to press "proposition" into service at every emergency, and to confuse "sewage" and "sewerage," "transpire" and "happen," "visualize" and "see," "shall" and "will," tends to destroy the usefulness of all these words.

Yet "The King's English," excellent as it is, has the defects of books of the kind: it is concerned chiefly with details of phrasing; it inculcates the negative virtue of avoiding gross errors, but offers little on the constructive side; it does not show—perhaps no book can—how to shape and proportion the whole, and impart interest and life. Of course, no man can be interesting unless he has something to say; but he must also be able to disentangle the significant from the insignificant, and to distribute his emphasis justly. The complete master of the precepts in "The King's English"

might produce articles inflexibly precise and at the same time so slow in movement as to be unreadable. The fault of much manuscript submitted to this journal, for example, is not erratic punctuation, grammatical blunders, or improprieties. These are superficial vices. The articles are clogged with words, all of them correct, a fourth of them superfluous. In preparing manuscript for press more editorial labor is spent on trimming out the undergrowth of words than on any other one thing. Learned gentlemen imagine that we are eager for papers which begin thus:

Among the many interesting questions—and they are various and important—which are being discussed at the beginning of the twentieth century by educators in all parts of this country, none demands more, if as much, serious consideration from parents, teachers, and pupils, from college trustees and school superintendents—in a word, from all those who are devoted to the development of humane studies—than the instruction of our boys and girls in the fine, and we may even say indispensable, art of writing English.

All this recalls an incident in Boswell's "Life of Johnson." "I took down Thomson," said Johnson, "and read aloud a large portion of him, and then asked, 'Is not this fine?' Shiels having expressed the highest admiration, 'Well, sir,' said I, 'I have omitted every other line.'" Every other line is not enough in the passage printed above. Apply the blue pencil unsparingly, and we get something like this:

Teaching English composition is one of the most important questions now before educators.

Pruning is not everything, but it often makes an apparently dull article almost vivacious. The only safe rule, for amateurs and professionals alike, is to challenge every sentence and paragraph, and to hold every adjective, adverb, and qualifying clause under suspicion. The presumption should be that each, until proved innocent, deserves capital punishment.

Public Library
PROFESSOR LANGDELL AND THE
STUDY OF LAW.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., July 9.

The death last Friday of Prof. Christopher Columbus Langdell, at the age of eighty, terminates a career which is singularly complete and triumphant, and which must receive careful attention in any history of law or of education. Born in 1826, in the little New Hampshire village of New Boston, he was educated, largely by means of money he himself earned, at Phillips Exeter Academy, Harvard College, and the Harvard Law School. Thereafter for nearly twenty years he practised law in New York, known to few besides the lawyers by whom he was largely employed. It was not until 1870, when he had reached the age of forty-four, that he found his great opportunity. In that year

he became Dane Professor of Law and Dean of the Law Faculty of Harvard University; and from that time until now there has been a Langdell system of study, and to describe or attack or defend that system has been one of the most frequent undertakings of law students and of law teachers. For a generation, no professor's name has been more widely known. Lately the discussions have been less heated, and perhaps less numerous, than formerly; but even now the question most often and most pressingly asked as to any law school is whether it uses the Langdell system. Professor Langdell himself spent no time in disputation. He simply devised the system, used it, and was content to let results test the correctness of his theory.

To introduce a new system of study at the Harvard Law School in 1870 was an act of great bravery. The school had been in existence for half a century. It was in great repute. Its professors had produced treatises which held, and still hold, a high place in the esteem of the profession. Even laymen have heard of the works of Story, Greenleaf, Parsons, and Washburn. Their productions had been largely the fruit of class-room lectures. By the method of instruction then current the student listened to lectures and read treatises; and, in order that the task might not be merely the memorizing of generalizations made by the lecturer or the text writer, some instructors devoted much time to discussing concrete problems. Many men are still living who know that the work of those old days must not be treated disrespectfully; but Professor Langdell, though trained in the method then current, was of opinion that he knew a method more scientific, more thorough, and better fitted to produce successful lawyers. He knew—as, indeed, every law student learns in the first week of his studies—that the existence and limits of a rule of law must be proved finally, not by a text-book, but by the reported decisions of courts. He knew that when a lawyer has occasion to test a rule of law he searches for those decisions. Professor Langdell determined that the student should be trained to use those original authorities, and to derive from judicial decisions, by criticism and comparison, the general propositions which text-writers, if they do their work conscientiously, find in the same manner; that, in other words, the student should not be fed with predigested food. The plan, as worked out, was that the instructor should reprint from the reports the cases adapted to show the growth of legal doctrine; that the student should master five or six cases in preparation for each class-room exercise; and that the exercise should consist of stating and discussing these cases and solving related hypothetical problems. However easy it may be to-day to see that this plan is reasonable, in 1870 it appeared to many persons, and indeed to most, impracticable and unscientific. The fact seems to be that this was an extremely early attempt to apply the inductive method of the laboratory to matters foreign to the natural sciences. To Professor Langdell it seemed the most natural plan possible. He had devised part of it in his own student days. He understood himself to be simply applying to the student stage of the lawyer's life the method established from time im-

memorial as to the work of the practitioner and the judge. On the title page of his first collection of cases, he tied himself to the past by quoting words written by Coke two centuries earlier: "It is ever good to rely upon the book at large, for many times *compendia sunt dispensia*, and *melius est petere fontes quam sectari rivulos*."

After Professor Langdell began the new plan, to persevere with it required further courage; for the majority of students, teachers, and practitioners showed only too clearly that they considered it foolish and almost sacrilegious to lay aside old methods and the time-honored treatises. Many years passed before the new system was adopted unanimously by Professor Langdell's colleagues. Meanwhile the Harvard Law School was bitterly attacked upon the supposition that this was the only method used; and in consequence, the attendance remained nearly stationary, being saved from serious diminution by nothing but the increase in the attendance upon Harvard College, and in the resort of Harvard graduates to the law school. About 1890 there came a great change. Almost simultaneously the Harvard Law School began to grow and the Langdell system began to spread to other universities. Today, Professor Langdell's triumph is complete. Time has demonstrated that persons trained under his system are sound and successful lawyers. That system is now the only one employed at Harvard. Most of the other law schools use it, wholly or partly, or some modification of it; and those which cling to old methods find it advisable to insert in their announcements argumentative matter to the effect that they combine with the old methods some features of the method discovered by Professor Langdell. The law schools employing the new system, wholly or partly, in its unmodified form, are distributed widely; and leaving out of the account States in which there are no law schools at all; one might have traced for Professor Langdell a triumphal progress from the Atlantic to the Pacific, passing exclusively through States in which at least one law school professedly uses his system.

To present, even inadequately, the chief facts as to Professor Langdell's greatest achievement has rendered it impracticable to enumerate his other services. Yet it must not be forgotten that for twenty-five years he was the Dean of the Harvard Law School, administering numerous duties with justice and with painstaking attention to detail; that he did much to promote the vast growth of the Harvard Law Library; that he produced four selections of cases, pioneer volumes made with great labor; and that he wrote three treatises, unsurpassed for accuracy, originality, and clearness. It should be added that his system of study has required teachers of law to do work of greater thoroughness and has thus aided to create, as a sort of by-product, the dignified career, now pursued by ten times as many persons as in 1870, of the professional teacher of law.

This remarkable record has been recognized at Harvard in ways that are obviously not perfunctory. In 1895, when Professor Langdell resigned the deanship, there was a great assembly of Harvard Law School graduates in his honor. In 1900, when he resigned the Dane professorship, the

Harvard corporation appointed him Dane Professor of Law, *Emeritus*. In 1903, the corporation named in his honor a Langdell professorship—an unprecedented compliment for Harvard to pay to a man still living. In 1906, the corporation assigned to the additional building for the law school the name of Langdell Hall; and when this building is completed it will be the only university building bearing the name of a professor.

And the man himself? Guileless, and shrewd; grave, and cheerful; modest, and fearless; not given to speech; persistent in the search for truth—on the last day of his life, though oppressed by infirmities, doing a full day's work; in short, the man's whole nature harmonized with his rank as a great master. To do justice to the rare genius just now gone, it is not necessary to speak slightly of others. Has some other American, in any branch of knowledge, overthrown an established system of study and replaced it, in his own university and elsewhere, with a new and useful system so thoroughly identified with him that men call it by his name? If so, let the name of the man who has performed that brave and laborious service be placed beside Professor Langdell's at the head of the list of American scholars.

EUGENE WAMBAUGH.

A GREAT MUSEUM BUILDER.

Henry Augustus Ward, A.M., Sc.D., LL.D., to whom the scientific museums of America owe more than to any other man, was killed by an automobile at Buffalo, July 4. The world has its professors of zoology, its doctors of science and its curators, but it has had only one maker of museums in the class of this remarkable man. He was a unique personage, and, viewed to-day in the perspective which a third of a century can give, his genius and his works bulk large.

In the ordinary sense, Professor Ward was neither a scientific investigator, nor a college professor. In these lines he did not aspire to distinction; but his formal title he acquired properly during the five-year period when he was a member of the faculty of Rochester University, and there taught the natural sciences. His life was devoted to culling scientifically and accumulating the choicest objects for illustration of the processes of nature, to converting them into museum specimens, and finally to building museums. With him the idea of educating the masses in the natural sciences by means of object-lessons became an absorbing passion. He cared for money only to spend it in wider travel and more collections; and while he found purchasers for great collections as no other man ever did, the huge checks which he received he always joyously scattered to the ends of the earth in the purchase of more "museum material." The Field Columbian Museum was born in the Chicago Exposition, when Marshall Field handed to Professor Ward a check for \$100,000 in payment for the Ward collection of zoology, geology, mineralogy, and paleontology there exhibited. At the University of Virginia the Lewis Brooks Hall of Science was designed by Professor Ward, erected under his direction, and filled in one grand *coup* from the splendid

cabinets of mounted specimens in Ward's Natural Science Establishment. For the collections alone, Mr. Brooks, a Rochester philanthropist, paid Mr. Ward about \$75,000.

Professor Ward was born in 1834. While a student at the School of Mines, in Paris, he became specially interested in fossils. From a knowledge of scientific value to an understanding of the money value of museum varieties was an easy step. As a good newspaper-man has a nose for news, so had he a nose for fossils; and he was born to travel. European naturalists went about comparatively little in those days, and the English Channel was as wide as the Atlantic now. Finding that certain fossils of the Continent were salable in England at good prices, he thought to pay the expenses of a visit to the London museums with a satchelful of specimens. The venture proved highly fortunate, and in a short time the young naturalist was astounded by his own success in bringing rarities to those who were ready to pay for them, even while he wondered at the dulness of his patrons, as collectors. Certain excavations then being made for wine cellars in the champagne belt of France, on the estate of Madame Clicquot, yielded to the hustling student a rich harvest of fossils which found ready sale all over Europe. And so he went on, adding to his collections and his reputation.

Professor Ward's most notable achievement as a scientist and educator was, in my estimation, the colossal task which culminated in the Ward Collection of Casts of Celebrated Fossils. While yet in his twenties, he was deeply impressed by observing the manner in which the vertebrate fossils of greatest scientific value were widely scattered through museums of Europe. He saw that for American students to visit all those places was impossible. How could fossils be made available to investigators and the general public in America? Thus he conceived the idea of painted plaster casts, made in America from moulds owned by him, and available to all the world. Then began the long-continued effort to secure the moulds desired. In this undertaking he encountered endless difficulties, the most serious of which was the strong disinclination of many museum officers to permit the copying of their most cherished zoological treasures. To meet obstacles of this character he displayed the utmost diplomacy, and made the strongest appeals in the sacred name of science. In the end the enthusiast won, and his victory has been of priceless value to American students. Poor indeed is the college or university museum which does not contain a series of "Ward Casts." About two hundred sets of them have, I think, found lodgment in the museums and higher institutions of learning in this country. The most noteworthy objects are the great megatherium, the dinothereum, the glyptodon, colosochelys, mastodon, and elephas ganesa.

For at least twenty-five years the enormous extent of Professor Ward's museum-making industry at Rochester has been to every new visitor a source of wonder. Every department (it occupies fourteen buildings) is on a scientific basis. Fortunately, Professor Ward's enterprises always had the financial support of his family,

notably his late uncle, Levi A. Ward, and his cousin, Frank A. Ward. Although the establishment has never produced noteworthy profits, in the last period of stringency several wealthy citizens of Rochester decided that an institution which had shed such lustre upon the city should not be permitted to perish from lack of capital; and the money for its permanent foundation was paid in to a stock company organization.

Henry A. Ward was the first American to take up the making of museums in a systematic and scientific manner. The collection which he finished about 1870, and placed for the citizens of Rochester in the museum of Rochester University, may justly be regarded as having set the pace. Even after a lapse of a third of a century, it is a good object lesson to aspiring museum-builders, a collection to study and admire. Another service of inestimable importance, which Professor Ward rendered to science in America, was his study of the finest museums of Europe, the method of their development, and the possible improvements. As early as 1873, when the best of our scientific museums were only in their swaddling clothes, and skilled museum preparators were a negligible quantity, Professor Ward assembled at Rochester a corps of the best French, German, and American taxidermists, osteologists, moulders, and modellers, that high wages could procure. In 1876 I was astonished at finding that Rochester afforded better facilities for the study of museum-making than Paris, London, or Berlin.

Through his coöperation, Professor Agassiz was enabled to fill the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard, before any other American museum had more than begun to take notice. To-day the "men from Ward's" are much in evidence in the large museums of this country; and the severe training which Professor Ward bestowed upon his young naturalists is producing its proper results in scientific object-lessons of high character for Washington, New York, Brooklyn, Chicago, Pittsburgh, and Milwaukee. In New York the directors of the Brooklyn Institute Museum, the New York Aquarium, and the Zoological Park are men who graduated at "Ward's" in the early days.

About eight years ago, Professor Ward married Mrs. Lydia Avery Coonley of Chicago, and relinquished the detailed management of the Rochester establishment. After that, he devoted much time to completing his collection of meteorites, which for nearly twenty years has been a favorite interest. He brought it to a remarkable state of perfection, in comparison with the world's best meteorite collections, and about two years ago installed it for temporary exhibition in the American Museum of Natural History, where it is to-day. His last literary work was the publication of an elaborate annotated catalogue of the collection, a model of its kind.

At the age of seventy, Professor Ward went to Canada, and selected a particularly fine rock "specimen" to mark his last resting place. A massive and shapely boulder of porphyry was brought to Rochester, erected on a prominent knoll in Mount Hope Cemetery, and his name was sculptured upon its face. Except for the chiseled inscription, the rock is as it came

from nature's workshop. This last task of the always-forehanded man of science was not completed a day too soon. Thus passes from life a man whose services to science and also the unscientific millions were great, but understood and appreciated by those only who knew him best and longest. In one sense, the Lewis Brooks Hall of Science at the University of Virginia is his best material monument, for the reason that he made it all, and it stands alone. From 1870 to 1895 he was the man for the hour, the birth hour of many new museums, the renaissance of old ones. He wrought with high purpose; he lived to see the fruits of his genius and his labors; and in his peculiar field he leaves no understudy.

W. T. HORNADAY.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

The annual meeting of the Bibliographical Society of America was held at Narragansett Pier July 2, President William C. Lane, librarian of Harvard University, in the chair. The secretary, C. Alex. Nelson, announced that after long delay caused by the printers' strike, vol. i., part i., of Proceedings and papers of the society for 1904-5 had been published and distributed to members. The secretary also announced the publication of the Minutes of the Common Council of the City of New York down to 1776, in eight octavo volumes, with a full index. John Thomson reported that the list of incunabula in American libraries compiled by the committee contained about 5,000 different titles, and would make a volume of more than 500 pages. This list the society proposes to publish in two parts, and to issue to members as its publication for the years 1906-7. Messrs. Lane, Kates, and Nelson were appointed a committee to secure a guarantee fund for the publication.

W. D. Johnston, of the Library of Congress, read a paper on the bibliographical work of the late Henry Carrington Bolton, his bibliographies of special subjects in chemistry, the two editions of his Catalogue of Scientific and Technical Periodicals, published by the Smithsonian Institution, his versatility in the treatment of such varied subjects as the counting-out rhymes of children and the study of musical sands. Dr. E. C. Richardson followed with some personal reminiscences of Dr. Bolton.

C. W. Andrews of the John Crerar Library, Chicago, took up the question of Union Lists of Periodicals. The secretary then read a brief paper on exactness and completeness in bibliographical work, written by Victor H. Paltsits of the Lenox Branch of the New York Public Library. J. C. M. Hanson of Washington discussed the cataloguing of early Americana prior to 1800, suggesting improvement and uniformity in this class of work. The subject was referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. Hanson, Legler, Bain, Winship, and G. W. Cole.

The secretary read a paper by Dr. Robert Fletcher on the "Index Catalogue of the Surgeon-General's Office," giving its history and a sketch of the method pursued in carding and indexing books and periodicals for that catalogue. A paper by Dr. P. R. Uhler on the "Origin and Development of the Peabody Institute Catalogue" was read by title. The president called attention to

sample pages of the A. L. A. Portrait Index, now all in type, and explained the methods of arrangement adopted. The new form of publishing the list of copyright entries at the Library of Congress was also noted as a valuable piece of systematic bibliography.

In response to a call for suggestions as to the next piece of work to be published by the society the following were offered: A Bibliography of Codices, and a Coöperative List of the Periodicals at six or more great centres, by Dr. E. C. Richardson; a Bibliography of Early American Periodicals, by W. J. James. R. G. Thwaites reported that Prof. W. B. Cairns of the University of Wisconsin has such a list in preparation; he also announced the completion of a manuscript index of historical material in the libraries of Wisconsin, which would be put into print. James Bain of Toronto spoke of the work undertaken by the Champlain Society of Canada, which proposes to publish this year the first volume of the English translation of Les-carbot, and a catalogue of documents connected with seigniorial tenure in the Province of Quebec. He had been invited to collate and edit a bibliography of Canada based on the manuscripts in the larger libraries of Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa, and Toronto. It was proposed to cover the period from 1700 to 1900. He spoke also of a new Bibliography of F. Mesplets, the first printer in Montreal, which is being prepared by Mr. McLachlan of that city. At a meeting of the Council, W. D. Johnston was requested to survey the field and report on the possibility of preparing a record of current bibliography.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, W. C. Lane; vice-presidents, R. G. Thwaites, E. C. Richardson; secretary, W. D. Johnston; treasurer, Carl B. Roden; librarian, Wilberforce Eames; councillor for four years, C. Alex. Nelson. The next meeting of the society will be held at Providence in December, in connection with the annual meeting of the American Historical Association.

JUNE PUBLICATIONS IN PARIS.

PARIS, June 29.

The Paris custom has it that new books published in June, the season's end, are either light and may be bought up for vacation reading, or they are heavy and must rely on a slow and steady sale rather than immediate success.

Of original works on history, there is a continuous flow, ever since students have had the chance of poring over contemporary documents. M. Ernest Lavisse of the French Academy has taken for himself the reign of Louis the Fourteenth, in the many-volumed "History of France," which he is editing for the house of Hachette. His first volume ("tome vii., fascicule 4," of the entire History) comprises the years 1643 to 1685—the Fronde, the King, Oclbert. It is worth noting that M. Lavisse's "Youth of Frederick the Great"—the work which made his name and began his influence over the serious university men of the last generation but one—also appears in a fourth edition, which may be little for a popular novel, but is something for sober foreign history.

M. A. Luchaire, who had the years 987 to

1226 in M. Lavisse's History, brings out the third volume of his own "History of Innocent the Third"; it deals with the Papacy and the Empire, the previous volumes taking Rome and Italy and the Albigense Crusade. M. Luchaire is more than a trained investigator of original sources; he has a broad-minded interest in the events which he takes so much pains to narrate from contemporary documents—a view of history reminding the English reader of the late Lord Acton. In spite of their tried Liberalism, which would have been thought beyond dispute in the eighties of the last century, the critics of this new age find both M. Lavisse and M. Luchaire "reactionary"!

M. Emile Roca, from the anecdotic gleanings now so much in favor, and so much disliked by Herbert Spencer, goes on in his *Grand Siècle Intime* to the "Reign of Richelieu (1617-1642)." The Vicomte de Noailles gives us episodes in the Thirty Years' War in a volume from contemporary sources on the Lieutenant-General of the King's armies—no less a personage than Cardinal de La Valette, the militant archbishop of Toulouse, whom his own father nicknamed Richelieu's "cardinal-valet"; he seems to have been a poor general. The fifth descendant of Louis the Fourteenth's "surgeon and confidant," Georges Marschal, writes the documentary history of his ancestor with savory details of the Grand Monarque's bedroom.

A limited public may be found for the Critical History of the Preaching of Lord Brougham's favorite orator—the Jesuit Bourdaloue—from the notes of his hearers and contemporary testimony; E. Griselle, Docteur-ès-Lettres, publishes the third volume of 500 pages. In Hachette's series of Great French Writers, M. Bossert takes up Calvin, whom we are scarcely accustomed to consider from the literary point of view.

It is hard to follow the deluge of publications concerning the French Revolution, few of which are valueless. Of original documents, we have at last the Private Correspondence of that duke and peer of France who put himself at the service of the Revolution, not without being called the secret agent of Philippe Égalité—the Duc de Lauzun, whom the revolutionists knew as Gen. Biron. After a youth of Louis Quinze dissipation, he fought in our War of Independence; but neither this nor his revolutionary exploits in France kept the tribunal of the Terror from cutting off his head. These letters are from the years 1791-1792; the Duke's Memoirs, published in 1822, with doubtful editorship, ended with the American war.

M. G. Lenôtre in the third series of his "Old Houses, Old Papers," gathers together the entertaining chapters of Revolutionary personal history, which he has been publishing in periodicals. The story of Santerre, the executioner of Louis the Sixteenth, in his later years, and the death of Roland (the husband of madame) are among the interesting pieces, but by no means the most adventurous and thrilling. The new, and this time authentic and complete, publication of all that concerns Madame Roland will shortly render a true life of that heroine possible, but not easy, considering the thousands of letters from her tireless hand. She comes up again with M. Lenôtre in his stirring picture of

the end of her friends, the tracked Glron-dists.

The immense "Histoire Socialiste," from the years 1789 to 1900, directed by that limitless word-outpourer, M. Jean Jaurès, is not perhaps receiving the attention it really merits. It is clearly impossible that the writers of the various volumes should be considered authorities at first hand; in fact, most of them are members of Parliament. But they are the controversialists of the new Church; and this implies, not only deep familiarity with all objections to their views of events, but also a strong corps of faithful students to supply them with the documentary knowledge required. They may be said to give out to the general public the results of laborious studies made by such esteemed scholars and co-religionists as Professor Aulard. Two more large volumes appear this month—the seventh of the series on the Restoration (1814-1830), by M. Viviani, the able and combative Independent Socialist, whom the late elections have brought back to the Chamber of Deputies; and the eighth on the Reign of Louis Philippe (1830-1848), by M. Eugène Four-nière, also a Socialist deputy, whom the Government some time since appointed historical lecturer at one of the great military schools. M. Jaurès himself fathered the four first volumes, from the beginning of the Revolution to the Terror, inclusive; M. G. Deville, Independent Socialist deputy, took the volume on Thermidor and the Directory; and M. Paul Brousse, one-time Communist and disciple of Bakunin, father of anarchy, later president of the Paris Municipal Council, and now Socialist deputy, had Consulate and Empire, with M. H. Turot, a Socialist editor. These qualifications of the authors may have averted the eyes of solid students from the work, but it contains the sound form of words and views which the children of the French Revolution now accept in regard to their fathers. The series is neither the least interesting nor the least profitable of the histories of the epoch-making Revolution, which have been attempted since the opening up to research of all the documents in the case.

M. Ernest Denis, who is favorably known for his books on what is contemporary history for the elders among us, has an important work, if only from general readability and its presentment of the French point of view, "Foundation of the German Empire" (1652-1871), 540 pages. M. André Siegfried, son of the member of Parliament, has a careful study made on the spot, also from the enlightened French point of view, on "Canada, the Two Races"; it helps to give general views about history in the making near home.

Of lighter books which may be read out of France, Henri Gavedan, the Academician, has a new novel, "Le Bon Temps"; and Jean Ajcard, who has so long been waiting just outside the Academy doors, publishes "Benjamin." The delightful narrator of the Simple Life in French provinces, M. Emile Guillaumin, announces a new book, "Albert Marceau, Adjudant," and Albert Bolssière, in a novel "Jolie," continues his smiling mystifications. S. D.

Correspondence.

THE FRESCOES AT ANAGNI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should like to obtain what information is possible concerning the frescoes in the crypt of the Duomo at Anagni. I cannot succeed in finding any literature upon this highly interesting work; and I understand by personal inquiry at Florence and Rome that there have been made no photographs obtainable by the public of these early examples of religious painting. An examination of them which lasted several hours last year inclines me to the belief that if they have not been carefully studied, some one properly qualified ought to make a detailed study of them. The fact that they seem to be quite untouched, and yet are strikingly fresh in preservation, increases their interest. The historical importance of Anagni and its central situation make it seem almost impossible that these frescoes have not been worked over by some specialist who has published his researches in some particularly inaccessible place.

T. D. B.

Cambridge, Mass., July 6.

ANOTHER TEST OF GENIUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Werner A. Stille's plan for testing the reasoning powers of candidates for "schools for geniuses" by proverbs or parables, is not a bad one, and has at least the merit of definiteness. Certain psychologists nowadays lay such stress on the relation between genius and madness that a teacher on the lookout for extraordinary mental manifestations in his pupils must sometimes be puzzled by the vagaries of precocity. And while you can never be sure that your musically, rhetorically, mathematically, or artistically gifted boy really harbors genius, neither, on the other hand, is it safe to predicate dullness of your shy and non-studious scribbler of immature verse, who hates the sciences or is deaf to music and blind to art. Make it thus possible for the perplexed teacher, if not to detect genius with absolute certainty, at least to keep out patent mediocrity. For this purpose a judgment test of some kind may be useful.

It may interest Mr. Stille to learn that more than forty years ago a newly installed teacher of German, at one of the schools of Vienna, with the evident intention of gauging as rapidly as possible the intellectual equipment of his new pupils, gave them a list of synonyms to define. It may safely be said that any boy, whether candidate for a school for geniuses or not, who can emerge from such a test creditably, has at least reasoning powers that are worth cultivating. I cannot imagine an essay on any subject that will so clearly give promise of future ability and usefulness in certain directions, as a successful definition of, let us say, these three simple synonyms, "affluence," "prosperity," "wealth."

But, it will be asked, is the teacher in search of genius materially helped by a process which merely draws a hard-and-fast line between the dull and the bright? Unhappily the experiment of the Vienna

pedagogue proves nothing decisive. The best definitions in the synonym test were furnished by a boy considered up to that time one of the most backward of his class, slow of comprehension, morose, and altogether unpromising. He subsequently showed some literary aspirations, but failed to make a mark either in literature or in anything else. The genius of the class, a boy of remarkable artistic gifts, acquitted himself wretchedly, as always in his grammar lessons. He became not an artist, but a blacksmith. Of the class as a whole, not a few attained distinction in after life. Two of the pupils became well known literary men, one of them is the author of a play which in an English adaptation is frequently seen on the American stage; but neither of the two, as far as memory serves, gave the slightest indication of literary ability either at the test-examination mentioned or on any subsequent similar occasion. Perhaps the discerning teacher will wisely limit himself to the fostering of talent and let genius find its own way. In the language of Grillparzer:

Denn das Genie, es läuft in allen Gassen,
Doch seltener als je ist das Talent.

New York, July 5.

G. P.

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish immediately "A Child's Recollections of Tennyson," by Edith Nicholl Ellison; "Court Life in the Dutch Republic, 1638-1689," by the Baroness Suzette Van Zalen Van Nyvelt; "Sigismonde Malatesta," by Edward Hutton; "The Memoirs of the Lord of Joinville," a new English version by Ethel Wedgwood; "Garden Graith, or Talks Among My Flowers" (a tenth edition), by Sarah F. Smiley; "A Benedick in Arcady," by Halliwell Sutcliffe; "Dearlove: The History of Her Summer's Make-Believe," by Francis Campbell; "Truth and Falsehood in Religion," by William Ralph Inge, M.A., D.D.; "Saint Bernardine of Sienna," by Paul Thureau-Dangin; "Joseph Priestly," by T. E. Thorpe, F.R.S., in English Men of Science Series; and "Trinity College, Cambridge," by W. W. Rouse Ball, in the College Monograph Series; "The Shores of the Adriatic, the Italian Side; Architectural and Archaeological," by F. Hamilton Jackson, R.B.A.

The second volume of the *Harvard Psychological Studies*, edited by Prof. Hugo Münsterberg, appears with the imprint of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., who will henceforth be the regular publishers of it. The subscription price is \$4 net.

The Oxford University Press has ready a history of "The Great Revolt of 1381" by Professor Oman. The late André Reville had projected a work on this movement, and had got together a vast collection of records of trials, inquests, petitions, and escheators' rolls for this purpose. Professor Oman has enjoyed the use of all these documents, and also includes some new and unpublished material regarding the poll-tax. He thinks he has discovered why that impost met with such universal detestation, how the poorer classes in England conspired to defeat its operation, and how the counterstroke made by the Government provoked the rebellion.

T. Fisher Unwin has published a volume of "Economic and Statistical Studies" by the late John Towne Danson, edited by Mrs. Norman Hill, Danson's daughter, who contributes a memoir of the author. Perhaps the most notable feature of the book is Danson's graphic illustrations of the variations in the prices of twenty-two of the principal commodities during the years from 1851 to 1890.

H. G. Wells, that rather extraordinary cross between Jules Verne and Herbert Spencer, has just finished a book based on observations made during his recent visit to this country. *Harper's Weekly* will begin its publication serially, July 14, under the title of "The Future in America."

The five separate books of Bliss Carman's "Pipes of Pan" are now bound together in a single volume and issued by L. C. Page & Co.

Henry Holt & Co. announce a fifth edition printing of Prof. Henry A. Beers's "English Romanticism in the Eighteenth Century." The book undoubtedly holds its popularity rather from the bits of excellent individual criticism scattered through its pages than from any philosophical grasp of the romantic movement as a whole.

From Armand Colin, Paris, we receive "Elaine," by Gabriel Franay, the delightful author of "Mon Chevalier," which was crowned by the French Academy and received a Montyon prize. "Elaine" is the sequel of "Axel," being the second part of "Comme dans un Conte." If not exactly the kind of book which French people are supposed to put into the hands of young girls, it is at least as innocent and considerably more refined than stories often given to the girls of Sunday schools. Hans Christian Andersen is one of the prominent characters; and his well-known poetical and light fancies will delight the reader. The heroine is a courageous yet delicate type of a certain class of young Frenchwomen, and is a sympathetic figure. The plot of the romance is original, and the touching story ends in a thunderbolt of tragedy. *Per contra*, in many chapters, such as that in which the children meet for a sleigh-ride to a Christmas-tree, the author's genius shines gayly, with lively wit.

We have already spoken of the English version of Sabatier's "Séparation des Églises et de l'État." Those who prefer to read this author in his own tongue should resort to the third, revised and enlarged edition which just comes to us from Fischbacher in Paris.

"Bibliotheca Romanica" is the name of a new undertaking in bookmaking by the press of J. H. Ed. Heitz, in Strassburg (Germany), which deserves attention in America, where similar series, like the Bibliotheca Teubneriana of Greek and Latin authors, the Tauchnitz Collection of British and American authors, or the collections in German by Reclam, Meyer, Hendel, and Hesse, are well appreciated. It is somewhat supplementary to these series, in that it purposes "to make accessible to scholars, students, teachers, and persons of culture of the world at large, in reliable editions in the original languages, and based on first-hand editions, those works of the French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese literatures of all ages, which are of

accepted classical or international importance, as well as such other works from these literatures as are of interest for their literary value or for the history of civilization." The twenty-two numbers so far issued include works by Molière, Corneille, Racine, Descartes, Dante, Boccaccio, Petrarca, Calderon, Camoëns. We are glad to find among these representative writers two of less renown, Restif de la Bretonne and Claude Tillier. The former, who is an important and interesting forerunner of Balzac and Zola, and whose life and writings have just been treated in a monograph by Eugen Dühren (Berlin, 1906), is represented by a drama, "L'an 2000," reprinted after a rare edition of Neufchâteau in 1790. The reimpression, from the original edition of 1843, of Tillier's "Mon oncle Benjamin" is especially meritorious. The subtle humor of this book has brought about its great popularity in Germany and Scandinavia (there are three German translations), although in France it appears to be in no special favor. It has, like all the other works so far edited, an introduction by Gustav Gröber, professor of Romance Philology at the University of Strassburg, well known as the editor of the "Grundriss der romanischen Philologie." The textual supervision and the short but comprehensive introductions (always in the vernacular of the work commented on) as well as the carefully selected variants given below the text (cf. Dante's "Inferno," "Rime de Petrarca," Molière's "Misanthrope"), coming from such an authority, make those handy, well-printed little volumes a delight to both the scholar and the general reader. The size of the book is about that of Hoepli's manuals. They are unbound, so as to enable the buyer to have numbers bound together in such combinations as may suit his taste. The price of each number is 40 pfennigs, or 10 cents.

The first instalment of an encyclopedia of a character and scope as unique as it is vast in its conception, is brought out by the firm of B. G. Teubner, Leipzig. Its title, "Die Kultur der Gegenwart, ihre Entwicklung und ihre Ziele," shows that it is intended to be not only a dictionary of culture, but also to emphasize the problematic sides of our civilization and its vital tendencies. Four great divisions will embrace what the Germans call *Geisteswissenschaften*, *Naturwissenschaften* and *Technik*, the two latter forming the third and fourth divisions; while the *Geisteswissenschaften* form the first and second, subdivided into General Foundations of present civilization (*Kultur*), Religion, Philosophy, Literature, Music, Art, and into State, Society, Law, Economics. Two volumes have been completed so far, the one on the Greek and Latin Languages and Literatures, the other on Christian Religion, including the Israelitish-Jewish Religion.

In "The Biology of the Frog" (The Macmillan Company, \$1.60), Prof. S. J. Holmes of the University of Wisconsin has brought together from reliable sources a large amount of useful information as to structure, development, functions, and behavior of the inoffensive, common, and convenient amphibian which, as Jeffries Wyman used to say, seems to have been created for teachers and students of physiology, his-

tology, and certain sides of anatomy. In this, however, as in most works of the kind, there is too little recognition of the fact that, in many respects, the frog, like man, is a morphologic monstrosity; our author, indeed, does not even comment upon the secondary fusion of the olfactory lobes, a misleading condition fortunately rare among vertebrates. The first chapter includes a somewhat too condensed account of the entire class, and the initial paragraph furnishes numerous illustrations of the difficulty of formulating characters that are at once constant throughout a large group and peculiar to it. There is little evidence of original work, but the writer has probably verified most of the statements. The illustrations are clear and mostly from standard works. Fig. 4 is credited to "Wilder"; it should be Harris H. Wilder (of Smith College), and the name should be in the "Index of Authors"; there should likewise be some reference to his observations on the "lungless salamanders." Certain points might easily be criticised, e. g., the representation of the European *Proteus* rather than the American *Necturus*, and the detailed account of a European salamander rather than of a native form. Typographic errors are commendably few, the most notable being the uniform injection of a c into *Wiedersheim*.

A book of five hundred and thirty-six pages, entitled "Consumption: Its Relation to Man and his Civilization, its Prevention and Cure," by John Bessner Huber, M.D. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), well fulfils the aim that the writer sets for it, of placing before the public, in not too technical a form, the facts with regard to tuberculosis and the efforts which are being made for its prevention and eradication. Every third or fourth adult, the writer says, dies of consumption, and the problem of how to make headway against such an enemy is one which not physicians alone, but all thoughtful men, are called upon to meet. The book is written with spirit and should be widely read. The style is a little diffuse, but as a whole this is a good and timely piece of work.

The *Museums Journal* for May contains the discussion on the papers read at the Museums Association's conference at Worcester, last year, dealing with the "Relation of Provincial Museums to National Institutions." The papers themselves have been printed in earlier numbers. John Minto, in the opening address, offered an able presentation of the whole problem, which is, he said, "how our museums, both provincial and national, may best be utilized as factors in our national system of education." A national museum unavoidably contains a large number of duplicates which could well be utilized in a loan department for the benefit of provincial and local museums; and the speaker suggested that the British Museum institute such a department to work in cooperation with the circulating department at South Kensington. A local museum should store and exhibit specimens of local flora, fauna, geology, ethnology, antiquities, industry, and, in addition to these, typically characteristic specimens. Mr. Minto found that comparatively large space is given to the articles shown, compared with that taken to explain what is shown. He also raised

the questions of increased Government aid to museums and of the desirability of their closer coördination with other educational forces, perhaps under one local educational authority. The discussion turned chiefly on the question of extended Government aid and consequent inspection. Attention was called to the development of museums in the United States as the result of individual energy, but most of the speakers agreed that the Government could indeed give a great impetus to the development of local institutions by aid in many ways, especially by employing, in connection with the central museums, a number of experts in various lines who could go out, as a sort of peripatetic curators, and assist the curators of smaller museums. W. W. Watts of the Victoria and Albert Museum remarked that it did not seem to be generally known by museum curators what that institution was really doing to aid smaller museums, one of its fundamental features being to offer loan collections, grauts of money, and expert advice. "Any information gained at South Kensington by specialists was at the disposal of any properly constituted municipal authority."

A more cosmopolitan boys' high school than Victoria College at Alexandria, Egypt, it would be difficult to find. Out of a total of 186 pupils, said Lord Cromer at the laying of the foundation stone of a new building, 30 are Christians, 67 are Israelites, 39 are Moslems, while of different nationalities there are Egyptian, Turkish, Syrian, Armenian, Maltese, Greek, English, French, Italian, Spanish, Dutch, Swiss, and Belgian pupils. The object of the institution is to provide for the upper classes in Egypt of all nationalities and creeds a school for the education of their sons, which will, as far as possible, follow the lines of an English public school. After commending its value as an educational institution he closed his address with the expression of the hope that the college would help towards the political and social fusion of the various races who inhabited the valley of the Nile, an end to which the efforts of all true Egyptian reformers should be directed. Religious instruction is given at the request of the parents who desire it, by teachers whom they have themselves chosen.

Dr. M. A. Stein, whose archæological researches in Eastern Turkestan in 1900-1 were so successful, is on his way to the same region at the head of a mission sent out under the auspices of the Indian Government and the British Museum. It includes a trained native surveyor for geographical work, and is equipped for a period of two years. He hopes that by further excavations in the desert ruins he will be able materially to add to our knowledge of the ancient inhabitants and their history. His previous investigations showed for the first time the full extent to which Indian influence had penetrated here, not merely through the propagation of the Buddhist religion, but as regards language, material culture, and art. They also demonstrated that the influence of the Classical West had reached this part of Central Asia during the first centuries of the Christian era. In Chinese Turkestan Russian and German scientific men are at work, and a French archæological ex-

pedition is about to start to pursue investigations from Kashgar to Peking.

A scientific expedition to the Melanesian Islands is strongly advocated by Dr. A. C. Haddon, F.R.S., having for its main object the investigation of their anthropological problems. Among these are the causes which led to the transition from mother-right to father-right and the different stages of its progress, the evolution of the family, and the distribution and inheritance of property. Melanesia is also a favorable area for tracing the emergence of government. It is only by the careful regional study of restricted areas—and there are many districts in the islands never yet visited by a white man—that the real meaning of the institutions and their metamorphoses, as well as of the many religious beliefs, can be understood. This work of studying the psychology of backward peoples has been greatly neglected, and there should be no delay in sending out this expedition, as changes are rapidly taking place among the natives which tend to modify or destroy the old customs. Much has already disappeared in many places, but we are yet in time in many others. As a part of the equipment he proposes a cinematograph for recording the dances and ceremonies of the natives. He closes his appeal, made before the Royal Geographical Society, with an expression of his hope that American investigators may be led to join in these researches.

At the annual meeting of the London Library, June 14, the president, Arthur Balfour, said that its main object was still the same as that which led Dean Milman, Sir G. C. Lewis, Gladstone, Carlyle, Henry Hallam, and other eminent men to found it sixty-five years ago. It was to provide a place, not for spending an idle hour agreeably, but for the purpose of historic, scientific, and philosophical research. In some respects, as in the department of foreign literature, it excelled all other English libraries, even that of the British Museum. To aid in this research work a catalogue of subjects was being prepared for its quarter of a million volumes. The value of this catalogue in giving the sources of all available information on any subject was, he believed, quite incalculable. Lord Curzon said that he had been so impressed with the advantages of the library that he had succeeded in creating in Calcutta an institution which endeavored to combine the features of the library with the reading room of the British Museum. The circulation of books for the past twelve months was 129,748.

Walter Jerrold sends to the *Athenæum* two brief poems by Charles Lamb which have hitherto escaped the collectors of Eliana. One is a stanza signed C. L.—b, which appeared in the *Mirror of Literature, Amusement, and Instruction* for June 1, 1833. As it is indexed "Lamb, C., lines by," there can be no doubt of the authorship. It is as follows:

FROM THE LATIN.

As swallows shrink before the wintry blast,
And gladly seek a more congenial soil,
So flatterers halt when fortune's lure is past,
And basely court some richer lordling's smile.

In the same periodical for May 7, 1836, Mr. Jerrold has found the following:

C. LAMB.—The following lines were written by the late C. Lamb upon the cover of a book of blotting paper.—F. W. L.

Blank tho' I be, within you'll find
Relics of th' enraptured mind:
Where truth and fable, mirth and wit,
Are safely here deposited.
The placid, furious, envious, wise,
Impart to me their secrecies;
Here hidden thoughts in biotted line,
Nor sybil [sic] can the sense divine,
Lethe and I twin sisters he—
Then, stranger, open me and see.

Another correspondent of the *Athenæum* has settled the facts regarding Fielding's first marriage, which have hitherto eluded the search of his biographers. In the registers of St. Mary's Church, Charlcombe, this entry has been found: "November ye 28, 1734. Henry Fielding, of the parish of St. James in Bath, Esq., and Charlotte Craddock of ye same parish, spinster, were married by virtue of a licence from ye Court at Wells." Charlcombe is about two miles from Bath.

The fact that H. B. Irving has decided to make his first appeal to an American audience in the "Paolo and Francesca" of Stephen Phillips is interesting as an indication of the young man's desire to associate himself at the first, in the American mind, with the higher, literary drama, in behalf of which his father worked so successfully. The elder Irving, it is true, made his first appearance here in "The Bells," but his extraordinary performance of Mathias raised the piece to an intellectual plane far above that of the commonplace melodrama in which it was originally conceived. The son, very wisely, does not yet venture to attack that part, but he is to be seen in "Charles I." and "Louis XI.," two sufficiently bold experiments, and also in "The Lyons Mail," "Mauricette," and in two Shaksperian characters, Hamlet and Iago. The more trustworthy London critics are agreed that H. B. Irving is an actor of marked and independent ability, by no means unworthy to follow in his father's footsteps, if not quite able thus far to fill his shoes.

Robert Mantell will produce, next season, W. S. Gilbert's delightful parody of "Hamlet," "Rosencrantz and Guildenstern." He himself will appear as King Claudius. The piece has frequently been played in London and always with success. It is full of Mr. Gilbert's most characteristic humor.

The managers of the young Japanese actress Fuji-ko announce that she will soon appear in London in a one-act dream play, called "The Love of a Geisha," and the natural presumption is that the entertainment will be seen later on in this city. It is said to be the embodied idea of the doctrine of Nirvana, reduced to popular form. Illusions representative of Eastern dream visions are the work of "a renowned Japanese artist," and an Occidental version of the original Japanese music will be given.

Justin Huntly McCarthy is putting the finishing touches to a new play entitled "Cæsar Borgia." The character of the soldier-cardinal, with its varied aspects, is of a kind to appeal strongly to the melodramatist. Now that he has about completed his play, Mr. McCarthy, after his custom, is turning it into a novel. Which will appear first, play or novel, is as yet unsettled.

Ellen Terry is to receive a public welcome in her native city, for the mayor and

corporation of Coventry have decided to present her with an address on the occasion of her coming visit, to lay a memorial tablet in a new theatre. The luncheon will be held in St. Mary's Hall. This hall is used for the trial scene in "Adam Bede." The description of it is just as good to-day as when George Eliot attended lectures and concerts in it in the forties: "Grim, dirty armor hung in high relief from the dark oaken gallery at the further end; and under the broad arch of the great mullioned window opposite was spread a curtain of old tapestry, covered with dim, melancholy figures, like a dozing dream of the past." The noble piece of tapestry was executed to commemorate the close connection of Henry VI. and Margaret of Anjou with Coventry. It was mutilated badly during the Parliament wars.

Although "Col. Newcome" is reported as a great popular success at His Majesty's Theatre, in London, it may be noted that the piece is to be withdrawn at the end of the present season, and that on Mr. Tree's forthcoming provincial tour it will be played alternately with "Business is Business" and "The Man Who Was." Nor will it be reproduced in London on the first of September, when His Majesty's will reopen, as that date is set aside for a revival of "The Winter's Tale," with Ellen Terry, Viola Tree, Basil Gill, Charles Warner, and others in the cast. Mr. Tree is to be seen in "Macbeth" in October.

William Archer comes to the defence of Mrs. Alfred Lyttelton's "The Macleans of Bairness," which he describes as a veritable and powerful problem play, although he admits that the effect is badly marred by clumsy workmanship. The piece, it will be remembered, revolves around a situation in which a female victim of the young Pretender—having been forced into marriage with a man who is supposed to be dying, but who recovers—is about to confess her lapse to her husband when the Pretender is again thrown upon her hospitality, and she is compelled to shelter him at the expense of her husband's reasonable but unfounded suspicion. Mr. Archer writes:

On the whole, it must be said that Mrs. Lyttelton has spoilt a finely imagined and, up to a certain point, an ably-developed theme by overlaying its truly dramatic possibilities with incidents of merely external picturesqueness—disguises, surprises, alarms, excursions, and all the conventional frippery of romantic melodrama. As a rule, I am no believer in revised and corrected editions of dramatic works. If your statue does not come out perfect from the first casting, it is seldom any use to tinker at it—better scrap it and start afresh. But there are exceptions to every rule, and I am not sure that it might not be worth Mrs. Lyttelton's while to remodel her last three acts and give so strong a theme another chance of success.

There is not much hope for a play of which three out of four acts need to be remodelled.

"Superb gesture absolute and right always." This single phrase, which occurs more than once in Mr. Macfall's little volume on "Sir Henry Irving" (John W. Luce & Co. \$1 net), may be quoted as a fair example of the spirit and judgment manifested throughout the whole work. That the gesture of this remarkable actor was, in many of his parts, singularly elaborate, subtle, eloquent or appropriate, is a truism; that

it was ever superb or always absolute and right, few even among his most ardent admirers would be bold enough to assert. Of these few Mr. Macfall is one. Nor is he less courageous or dogmatic in his estimate of Sir Henry's other histrionic qualifications. He does admit, indeed, by implication, that his idol had mannerisms which certain fatuous detractors loved to dwell upon; but practically, his sketch, for it is little more, is one outburst of rhapsodic eulogy, untempered by knowledge, insight, or discretion. It might be supposed that his chief object was to furnish picturesque letter-press—in which he is fairly successful, for he writes with vigor and facility—to correspond with the designs of Gordon Craig, which are highly impressionistic, sometimes very effective, but only remotely suggestive of the original. In itself the little book, with its excellent paper, admirable typography, and abundant margins, is attractive and artistic, but as a tribute to Irving it is in almost all respects insufficient. A man such as he, notable for his virtues, his defects, and his achievements, is worthy of a biographer with some sense of proportion. A monument may more easily be built upon a quicksand than fame can be established upon flattery.

The engagement of Camille Saint-Saëns for an American tour next season is announced in the *Musical Courier*. Such a tour would be a notable event, for Saint-Saëns is not only the greatest composer France has ever produced, he is also a first-class pianist, organist, and conductor. His advanced age—seventy-one—would not militate against such a trip, for he is an indefatigable traveller.

By the death of Prof. Heinrich Reimann, Germany loses one of her great organists. He was the first to reveal the full beauty and grandeur of the organ music of Liszt. Luckily, there is another specialist now in the field—Karl Straube of Leizig, who has undertaken to edit all of Liszt's organ works.

Many German cities now have their Richard Wagner streets, but Greater Berlin is going to name a whole quarter after him. In the Friedenau district there is to be a Wagner Place, from which there will radiate eight streets named after the heroines in Wagner's operas: Elsa, Eva, Sieglinde, Senta, Isolde, Ortrud, Guttrune, and Kundry.

Although Mr. Conried sold over \$200,000 worth of "Parsifal" tickets the first year he gave that opera in New York, Bayreuth still flourishes; very much so, indeed. Every seat for the twenty performances of the festival which begins this month was sold several weeks ago. That means receipts of about \$150,000; and, as the expenses are small, few costly singers being engaged, Cosima and Siegfried Wagner will again pocket about \$100,000 clear profits.

Of the \$6,000 necessary for the purchase of Bach's house at Eisenach, about \$2,000 remains to be collected.

The report that the San Carlo Opera Company is to visit America the coming season is emphatically denied by the secretary of the San Carlo Theatre. He would have to be a very foolish or a very courageous manager who would undertake to try a third grand opera company next winter in New York—for New York is the only

American city (now that San Francisco is out of the question) that cares enough for opera to make it profitable.

Ernest Newman of London contributes an interesting article on Brahms to the July number of the *New Music Review*, in which he tries to explain why that composer is so antipathetic to many people. He finds the reason largely in "the prevailing ashen grayness of his music," and his inability to exult at any time. On the other hand, while some of his music is pity-moving, "there is no pathos in it, in the real sense of the word." His writing is that of a profoundly depressed, disappointed man. This was the quality in it that alienated Nietzsche. Brahms's melancholy, he said, was the "melancholy of impotence." "A thousand hearers," adds Mr. Newman, "have had much the same impression." Again: "There is something elderly in this music. . . . It does not feel the joy of life." Mr. Newman then proceeds to trace these traits, this weariness and fretfulness, to his heredity and his upbringing. His mother was forty-four, and a sickly woman, when he was born. Her first child suffered all her life from bad headaches. Brahms's brother Fritz died at an early age of a disease of the brain, and he himself as a boy was subject to nervous headaches. Nor as a child did he have the advantages of good air, abundant food, and happiness to counteract these drawbacks. To sum up: he began life "with something lacking in the innermost springs of his soul—the poor, little, peevish, ailing, badly nourished mother, who bore him in the decline of her days, the scanty food, the sunless rooms, the childhood that was dark and joyless within and without. Add to this the disease of the liver of which both Brahms and his father died, and we get data enough to account for the jarred and jangled nervous system that put him out of tune with life."

Some of Richard Strauss's remarks at a rehearsal of his sensational opera "Salome" at Prague have been put on record by a member of the orchestra and printed in the *Leipziger Nachrichten*. At one place he stopped the orchestra and said to the players: "Gentlemen, that must sound very sweet—must smack, as it were. Imagine yourselves eating a luscious pear which actually melts on the tongue." Such moments, however, were rare. On the whole, he showed that he regarded the orchestra as the prime factor. "No consideration for the singers! In this opera there is no consideration," he exclaimed at one place. The passage was repeated more vigorously. Then came a place where the trombone and trumpets added to the din. Again Strauss interrupted them. "Children," he said, "that is too gentle. We want wild beasts here. This is no civilized music; it is music which must crash. Go to the zoo and listen to the wild beasts there. That's the way it must sound."

NOTES ON RELIGIOUS BOOKS.

Prof. Henry Melvill Gwatkin of Cambridge University, author of several essays on the Arian Controversy, sends out a volume of some twenty-eight sermons under the title "The Eye for Spiritual Things." (Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, \$1.50 net.) It is a pleasure to take up an honest book of sermons, one which does not pre-

tend to be anything other than a collection of occasional discourses on spiritual themes. English sermons of the best type—and Dr. Gwatkin's are of this sort—afford a peculiar delight and satisfaction. They are chaste and dignified, orderly and quiet, without screaming for oratorical effect, conveying a happy sensation of established faith and power held in reserve. An English preacher is not afraid to introduce a discussion of the meaning of a Greek word, nor to assume some small knowledge of important matters in Church history. The present volume ranges over a wide class of subjects, though no theme is handled which is not of importance in the religious life. The point of view is indicated in the following sentence: "The knowledge of God is not to be earned by sacrificing reason to feeling, or feeling to reason, by ascetic observance or by orthodox belief; it is given freely to all that purify themselves with all the force of heart, and soul, and mind."

Now that the Episcopal Church is casting out Dr. Crapsey, perhaps the Baptists may lay claim to being the "roomiest church in America," an honor Phillips Brooks asserted for the Episcopalians. Professors Schmidt and Foster, who are both Baptists, maintain the doctrines for which Dr. Crapsey was condemned, and the best-known Baptist teacher of systematic theology, Dr. William Newton Clarke, has said that the dogmatics of the future would need no doctrine of inspiration. That the newer views have not penetrated to the denominational headquarters is shown by Dr. Eaches's "Commentary on Hebrews, James, I. and II. Peter" (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society). This official commentary is altogether in the bonds of traditional orthodoxy. It is announced as a "popular commentary upon a critical basis," but the criticism on which it is based is certainly of a very dogmatic and unenlightened sort. If one thing in New Testament criticism is established it is that II. Peter is not authentic, but Dr. Eaches conveys the impression that recent scholarship favors the Petrine authorship. The weighty arguments against the authenticity of I. Peter and James are scarcely mentioned. The difficulty over the eloquence of Balaam's ass is met by the explanation that the whole affair was a vision. Works of this sort tend to bring denominational publication houses into disrepute.

Professor Charles Foster Kent, Woolsey Professor of Biblical Literature at Yale, is well known as author and editor of several volumes and series of volumes which aim to popularize the results of Old Testament criticism. His latest undertaking of this sort, "The Origin and Permanent Value of the Old Testament" (Charles Scribner's Sons, \$1.00 net), is designed for clergymen and Sunday-school teachers who have little technical knowledge of Biblical criticism, but who may wish to learn without too much trouble what the critics are teaching about the Biblical documents. This end is well attained. The style is clear, confusion of detail and argument is avoided, and salient features are kept well to the fore. The positions advanced are those generally accepted, disputed points being avoided. The author is optimistic of a revival of interest in the Old Testament through the spread of knowledge of

the results of criticism. He suggests methods to be employed in using the Old Testament in Sunday-schools and day-schools, and sketches a rough outline of a course of study extending over several years. A detailed plan, suitable for actual school use, carrying out the suggestions of this outline, would be heartily welcomed.

The hold of conservative views in regard to the New Testament upon many English students of undoubted scholarship is illustrated by Dr. Dawson Walker's "The Gift of Tongues and Other Essays" (imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, \$1.75 net). The purpose here is confessedly apologetic, and that in the narrow sense of defending the historical validity of the Acts and the early date of both the Acts and the Gospel of Luke. Competent critics hold that the account of the speaking with tongues in the second chapter of the Acts is a misinterpretation of that phenomenon common in early Christianity which Paul describes so graphically in the first Corinthian letter, and the inference would seem to be justified that the narrative of Pentecost was written at a later date, when the matter was no longer understood. The argument of Dr. Walker that the *glossolalia* at Pentecost was actually a speaking in foreign languages, induced by the medley of tongues heard in Jerusalem on the occasion of the great feast, is ingenious, but will hardly carry conviction. Even Professor Ramsay, the doughty champion of the Acts, admits that in Acts ii. "another popular tale seems to obtrude itself," and that the narrative is due to the "disorting influence of popular fancy." In another essay, Dr. Walker struggles manfully, but hardly successfully, to reconcile the accounts in Acts of Paul's visits to Jerusalem with the Apostle's own testimony in Galatians. The larger and more important question as to what the gift of tongues really was, both in primitive Christianity and in other ages in which it has occurred, and how the phenomenon should be interpreted psychologically, Dr. Walker does not consider. His interest is exclusively in establishing the harmony and trustworthiness of the writings attributed to Luke and Paul. It must be said that his effort is of little account against the difficulties brought out in the writings of Weizsäcker, McGiffert, and Bacon.

The Rev. Dr. David W. Forrest, an Edinburgh theologian of conservative tendency but tolerant spirit, is the author of a discussion of "The Authority of Christ" (imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, \$2 net). The work occupies the same mediating position as this writer's "Christ of History and of Experience," issued a few years ago. The thesis is that Jesus is not to be regarded as authority in matters of literary criticism, to determine the authorship of a Psalm or to decide whether the stories about Abraham are legendary or historical, but that his authority consists purely in his "final revelation of religious truth and practice, of what man is to believe concerning God, and what duties God requires of man." Dr. Forrest has much to say to his orthodox confrères about the "illegitimate extension of Christ's authority," but just where he would draw the line between "illegitimate extension" and proper continency in this matter he does not make clear, nor does he establish plain-

ly his right to draw any line at all. The discussion leaves much to be desired in point of clarity and logic. The term authority itself is not defined. The presuppositions, both dogmatic and historical, are somewhat large for those not used to the ways of Scotch theology. Yet doubtless some who cannot go the length of Sabatier in his rejection of all "Religions of Authority" may here find standing-ground whereon they can admit the more pressing contentions of critical students, while holding to the principle of authority as tenaciously as before.

Students of the New Testament who noted the exhaustive work of James Hardy Ropes on the Agrapha, or sayings of Jesus outside the canonical Gospels, issued in German some years ago, will be prepared to give a cordial welcome to his more popular lectures on "The Apostolic Age in the Light of Modern Criticism" (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50 net). Examination of the work reveals not only a thorough and painstaking scholar, but also a writer of no little skill in holding material well in hand, in suppressing overplus of detail and bringing salient points into the clear, and also in presenting critical results with a minimum of offence to traditionalists. In the present state of popular information it is difficult to write on the history of the period without attracting more attention to critical questions than to the history one desires to narrate. Professor Ropes has met this difficulty admirably, and the stirrings of great days occupy one's mind as one reads these lectures. The portrayal of the personality of Paul is especially vivid. The poetical element in the character of the great missionary has scarcely found better description than in this essay. Professor Ropes is more conservative in critical opinion than one might expect. Of the Acts he writes, "It approves itself not as infallible nor as equally trustworthy in all its parts, but yet as so good history that a discriminating use of it yields a solid body of critically sifted knowledge." He holds that Luke was the author, and also that I. Peter is authentic. There are occasional blunders in proofreading; the subject has been omitted from the third sentence in Chapter I., and the verb from a sentence on page 75. A strange slip occurs on page 194f., "Paul not only found in the word of Proverbs about muzzling the ox a warrant for the support of the Christian missionary by those for whom he labored," etc. The work about muzzling the ox is not from Proverbs, but is found in Deuteronomy xxv. 4.

JOHNSON WITHOUT BOSWELL.

Lives of the English Poets. By Samuel Johnson, LL.D., edited by George Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L. With brief memoir of Dr. Birkbeck Hill by his nephew, Harold Spencer Scott, M.A. Three vols. New York: Oxford University Press. \$10.50.

The Dr. Johnson whom all of us know is Boswell's Johnson and nothing else. Not one man in a thousand who has read Boswell's book retains any other impression of the great lexicographer than that to which Macaulay has given full expression. "In the foreground," he writes, "is that strange figure which is as familiar to us as the

figures of those among whom we have been brought up, the gigantic body, the huge massy face, seamed with the scars of disease; the brown coat, the black worsted stockings, the gray wig with the scorched foretop, the dirty hands, the nails bitten and pared to the quick. We see the eyes and mouth moving with convulsive twitches; we see the heavy form rolling; we hear it puffing; and then comes the 'Why, sir!' and the 'What then, sir?' and the 'No, sir!' and the 'You don't see your way through the question, sir!' . . . The reputation of those writings, which he probably expected to be immortal, is every day fading; while those peculiarities of manner and that careless table-talk, the memory of which he probably thought would die with him, are likely to be remembered as long as the English language is spoken in any quarter of the globe." Johnson's fame as an author is indubitably obscured by the portrait drawn of him as a person by the genius of Boswell. If his books are, or ought to be, on the shelves of every gentleman's library, they are allowed to remain undisturbed. Only two still live—the "Vanity of Human Wishes" and the "Lives of the English Poets." They alone have earned that sort of immortality which is given by the vote of that much despised general public whose verdict is the final judge of merit.

It was a happy idea of Dr. Birkbeck Hill to publish the "Lives" in what will probably be their final edition; and by singular good fortune the labors of editorship, in so far as they were left uncompleted at Hill's death, have fallen into the hands of a nephew who has fully carried out his uncle's conception of thorough work. With these volumes in hand it is worth while to try to form some estimate of Johnson as an author, and to consider how we should now have looked upon his work if he had never met Boswell.

The fanaticism of hero-worshippers naturally excites even calm critics to under-rate Johnson's claim to high place among England's men of letters. We grant that in the "Lives of the Poets" Johnson's genius was subject to marked limitations. Neither as a biographer nor as an author did he strike out a single new idea. He had not a spark of the originality of Burke, Hume, or Adam Smith. Characteristically again, in common with the ordinary educated Englishmen of his day, he took no interest, except by way of opposition, in the intellectual movement of the age. He died in full possession of his faculties in 1784, six years after the death of Voltaire, and five years before the meeting of the French States General, but there is little or nothing, either in the "Lives" or in Johnson's conversations as recorded by Boswell, which shows keen appreciation of the ideas which day by day were gaining greater influence, or any prescience of the coming revolution, which was destined to transform not only the political institutions, but also the thought of Europe. Moreover, Johnson's criticism lacked two qualities which, for the last seventy years, have been held of supreme importance. The first is capacity for sympathetic appreciation; the other is a conception of the historic method. Whether these qualities are really essential to sound criticism, may be questioned. Whatever their worth, they were certainly

not possessed by the author of the "Lives of the Poets."

Let every concession be made, however, which can fairly be demanded by the sternest censor; let it be admitted that Johnson, as a critic, occasionally made grotesque blunders, and that it is hard to understand how a writer capable of expressing fervent admiration for Milton's poetry, could yet write of "Lycidas" the following condemnation:

In this poem there is no nature, for there is no truth; there is no art, for there is nothing new; its form is that of a pastoral, easy, vulgar, and therefore disgusting; whatever images it can supply are long ago exhausted; and its inherent improbability always forces dissatisfaction on the mind.

Johnson also declares of "Samson Agonistes" that "it is only by a blind confidence in the reputation of Milton that a drama can be praised in which the intermediate parts have neither cause nor consequence, neither hasten nor retard the catastrophe." Let it further be noted that every page of this last edition of the "Lives" betrays through the very care of its editors the carelessness of Johnson. Let all this be admitted, and there still remains the one question worth answering: What, judging from the "Lives of the Poets," are the qualities which place Johnson in high rank among English men of letters?

Of these qualities the most obvious and important is that every page is pervaded by Johnson's personality. His good sense, his strength, his very prejudices, and a certain rough carelessness as to petty details, all give vividness to the biographies of men, many of whom, but for Johnson, might at the beginning of the twentieth century be entirely forgotten. Throughout the "Lives" the reader feels in contact not so much with a book as with a living man. This power of throwing an author's own character into his writing has nothing to do with egotism or self-consciousness. It is one of the rarest of gifts. All of us have known writers of wit and wisdom who in private life were the delight of friends and who as authors were the teachers of their generation; yet by some curious fatality they could not, or would not, put themselves into their books. In print they kept indeed their wisdom and their subtlety, but they did not reveal the pungency or the pleasantry which gave to their talk its exquisite flavor. Compare Johnson's "Lives" with the series of lives of English Men of Letters edited by John Morley. The comparison is a fair one. Each of the biographers selected by Morley is an author of eminence; each is well acquainted with his subject; some of them, as for instance Leslie Stephen, John Morley himself, Mark Pattison, or Cottoer Morrison, may be counted among the most distinguished critics of their time; yet though several of the biographers whose names we have mentioned have left upon their work traces of their own individuality, the series is as a whole colorless. Each life is superior in research to any written by Johnson, but "English Men of Letters," excellent though it be, will never stand side by side with the "Lives of the Poets." The contributors to the modern series have written valuable books, which may be read with instruction; but Johnson has enabled us to enjoy not so much a book as the con-

versation of a man of genius who, himself a devotee to literature, talks to us about the works and doings of authors with whom he has formed intimate acquaintance. The work that comes nearest to and may well last as long as Johnson's "Lives" is Leslie Stephen's "Hours in a Library." Here again we can hold interesting communion with a man of letters. But then the "Hours in a Library" is, like Johnson's work, the product of one man's labor. At a time when it is vainly imagined that even in literature the combination of many men can equal the good work of one, it is well to be reminded that in the world of letters a body of a hundred men can never in reality achieve the triumphs which are the monopoly of individual genius.

Another peculiarity of Johnson's book is the attraction of its style. Each of the fifty-two lives is good reading; you have in them Johnson's vigor and humor with relatively little of the stilted pomposity which deforms his more serious writings. The readable quality of the book is traceable as much in the slightest as in the longer lives. The verses of Shenstone, known to most Englishmen only through Johnson, just entitle him, we suppose, to the name of poet; but the pettiness of the man who devoted his life to satisfying the "ambition of rural elegance" and ruined himself in keeping up gardens of which the artificial prettiness excited more amusement than admiration, is hit off with an ease and brevity rarely found in writings professedly humorous. "The pleasure of Shenstone," we are told, "was all in his eye; he valued what he valued merely for its looks; nothing raised his indignation more than to ask if there were any fishes in his water. His house was mean, and he did not improve it; his care was of his grounds. When he came home from his walks he might find his floors flooded by a shower through the broken roof; but could spare no money for its reparation. In time, his expenses brought clamors about him that overpowered the lamb's bleat and the linnet's song; and his groves were haunted by beings very different from fauns and fairies. He spent his estate in adorning it, and his death was probably hastened by his anxieties. He was a lamp that spent its oil in blazing."

Here we touch upon a third quality which has kept alive not only Boswell's Johnson, but Johnson's own "Lives." To Englishmen Johnson was and will remain till English society is fundamentally changed, the ideal of a "moral philosopher." This term in England has in truth a somewhat peculiar sense. The moral philosophers whom Englishmen agree to admire have not been men of subtle intellect; they have not been thinkers who have struck out new and profound ethical distinctions, or have succeeded, if indeed such success be ever possible, in forming a coherent and demonstrably true theory of morals. They have always been men who, though differing in many ways, have accepted the moral doctrines which to ninety-nine Englishmen out of a hundred appear to be axioms so firmly established that it is not worth while to spend time in trying to discover theoretical vindication of their authority. The moral teachers in whom Englishmen delight, while ac-

cepting the established morality of their time and country, have shown their genius, not in tracing it to its source, but in applying it with skill to the constantly recurring problems of everyday existence. Among such men he is the greatest who can best apply morality to the conduct of life. The Socrates of Plato, much as we are all supposed to admire him, might not have been persecuted, but assuredly would have failed to obtain any great influence in the England of the eighteenth, or for that matter of the twentieth century. The Socrates of Xenophon might have done better, but he would never have gained the position of Johnson. From an English point of view the great lexicographer and the author of the "Lives" was the incomparable moralist; he brought force of character, skill in logical argument, and that sort of blunt discrimination which characterizes a critic whose vigor is greater than his subtlety, to the solution of all the problems, great and small, of actual life.

He had, moreover, the advantage which always attends a teacher who, while seeming to oppose, really falls in with the feeling of his time. There is scarcely one of Johnson's biographies which does not contain some discussion of a moral problem. Take, for example, the question raised in the Life of Pope, whether, as commonly believed, "the true characters of men may be found in their letters, and he who writes to his friend lays his heart open before him." To the inquiry Johnson replies with a decided negative; for his reasons our readers must be referred to the Life of Pope. What we insist upon is, that here, and throughout Johnson's writings, the problems of life are treated in the manner which will always interest English readers. In this particular case he treats, as often, a comparatively small question. He can rise to a much higher level; but his morality, when highest, is still concerned with conduct:

Pour forth thy fervours for a healthful mind,
Obedient passions, and a will resign'd;
For love, which scarce collective man can fill;
For patience, sov'reign o'er transmuted ill;
For faith, that, panting for a happier seat,
Counts death kind Nature's signal of retreat:
These goods for man the laws of Heav'n ordain,
These goods he grants, who grants the pow'r to gain;

With these celestial Wisdom calms the mind,
And makes the happiness she does not find.

TWO NOVELS.

Coniston. By Winston Churchill. New York: The Macmillan Co.

The District Attorney. By William Sage. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Mr. Churchill has a passion for beginning at the beginning. Fortunately, his taste and feeling lead him to write about America, not about countries of longer lineage, Egypt, for instance. What a thankless toil to work up from the Pharaohs and Moses to a story of the doings of Cook's tourists on the Nile! In a country that broke so abruptly and thoroughly with its past as did the United States, it is easy for an historian to get at the first symptoms of conditions now very general and important. Mr. Churchill, who always assumes the seriousness of an historian, and spells "era," his "era," with a capital letter, in his latest novel puts his finger on

the very moment when the "boss" appeared in American politics—on the Moment and the Man. "Coniston," a New England village, is the name of the place where one Jethro Bass, a tanner (who, winter and summer, wore a coon cap and tucked his trousers in his boots), invented a new vice, the vice of being a political boss. Mr. Churchill's great achievement is finding the first boss, the man who first thought of buying other men on a large scale to betray public trusts and laugh at their own dishonor. The mystery of the boss's core (he has not, properly speaking, heart or soul) has been made clearer to common apprehension in at least two novels, one of which describes a New York potentate and the other a Western one. Jethro Bass is laconic and inscrutable. Perhaps by saying nothing and rolling a dangerous eye in critical moments, a man may rise to great eminence in his country's affairs, but it is difficult to believe that the process is so simple, and such bare statement does not satisfy the curious, who, seeing wonderful results, demand some approximately remarkable cause.

As a mere man Jethro Bass is better explained than as a boss. Against his assumed passion for power is set his realized passion for a woman, Cynthia Ware, a woman loved and lost in youth and never forgotten. When the tides of time beat her daughter, Cynthia Wetherell, to Bass's door, his passion for the mother merges into love for her child, and an interesting and dramatic situation develops from their close relationship. After the introduction of Cynthia as a factor in the boss's campaigns, the tale moves. Influenced by Cynthia's horror of his profession, Bass retires from public life, returning only to take revenge for an insult offered to her. At the end of a great fight with victory in his hands, he accepts humiliating defeat in order to ensure her happiness, and thus becomes a fitting hero of romance.

Cynthia is the lovely New England girl with a conscience, so common in American fiction. There is, of course, even at this late day, a great deal of conscience distributed among the women of New England, but as a matter of fact it is not so often associated with physical beauty as novelists would have us believe. Still the proper note of idealism is here struck—supreme beauty united with perfect goodness. Cynthia's lover is worthy of his luck, and the complications which threaten their happiness, but fall short of frustrating it, are well imagined and combined. "Coniston" would have been a good novel if it had begun in the middle.

A novel is a social as well as an æsthetic symptom. Viewed as such, and as largely typical of its class, Mr. Sage's new book can hardly fail to have a depressing effect on the intelligent reader. It is cleverly planned and written—so are many of the novels that appear in shoals—it is timely in more senses than one: for it is the story of a Trust magnate's son who scorns and rejects both his father's wealth and the method of collecting it, and who, as the chance-elected district attorney, applies the brain and will power inherited from his parent to an ultra-modern anti-"graft" campaign against his father's closest business associates. Thus the plot is full of legitimate chances for effects of

a highly dramatic quality. And barring a touch of "preciousness," a proneness to euphuistic smartness not quite foreign to more sincere artists, the style of Mr. Sage would lend itself well enough to huddling up a story that might touch the reader as a page out of life. But instead of this, it has been employed to provide verisimilitude for a conventionally sensational tale about conventionally unreal people. The author has nothing to tell his reader. Not even artistic appreciation of the quaint aspect of some unexplored nook of the world, or of man's heart, has tempted him into literary venture. Every line of his book makes it evident that he has set out, with cold-blooded recognition of all the factors involved, to produce a certain commodity thought to be wanted by the public. Such a judgment may be deemed unnecessarily harsh and arbitrary. Its excuse is that it constitutes an arraignment not of a single book, but of the spirit in which novels are written and published in this country to-day. Mr. Sage, to judge at least from results, has simply seized the opportunity offered by the public's present interest in "graft" and the fight against it. And yet his principal fault does not lie here so much as in his offering us puppets instead of real men and women for the illustration of an important and impressive social phenomenon.

The Silver Age of the Greek World. By John Pentland Mahaffy. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press; London: T. Fisher Unwin. \$3 net.

When, in 1890, Professor Mahaffy published "The Greek World under Roman Sway," it would have been hard to point to another book in which the English reader might find a popular survey of the Græco-Roman period, its life and literature. Of Rome and how the Greeks affected Rome he could read in the pages of Gibbon or elsewhere. How the Romans, for instance, governed Bithynia, he might have been taught to observe in the Letters of the younger Pliny. But how the Bithynians felt towards Rome was a secret that lay buried in the unread pages of Dion of Prusa, whose name is never heard by the ordinary student unless he choose to write a doctor's dissertation in the post-classical literature. Mr. Mahaffy's book remains the only work of its kind. Most people are indeed perfectly willing to ignore the very considerable remains of Greek letters that have reached us from the first few Christian centuries. They read Plutarch (but only the "Lives") and Marcus Aurelius in good translations, and are right in thinking that here are two authors who are just as improving in English as in Greek. They even have a vague notion that Lucian was the Greek Voltaire, and they can now go further and read him complete in Mr. Fowler's excellent four-volume translation. But the theatrical declamations of the Sophists, even if we had many of them to read, leave one cold enough. They are all the productions of hungry Greeklings who had nothing to say. So it is that the phrase "the New Sophistic" carries a definite meaning only to a few specialists who, however, take a private and singular pleasure, which is almost æsthetic or sporting, in their knowledge of the correct points of a

"birthday speech" or a paradoxical panegyric of baldness, or a gnat, or a parrot; the commonplaces, the rhythms, the gestures, the exquisite toilette that were *de rigueur* in that all-absorbing game of declamation. Under the phil-Hellenic emperors of the second and fourth centuries it was, indeed, like nothing so much as a sport, and one trained for an appearance as for an athletic event. It was the day of professors. Never since then have they been the cynosure of all eyes, their movements chronicled like the comings and goings of a favorite actor. They toured like theatrical stars, and the regular drama was nowhere. The Greeks no longer wrote poetry; but the glittering Sophist taught the youth and held the public stage at once.

This is one side of Greek life under the heel of Rome that Mr. Mahaffy made clearer to his readers, yet even he did not attempt to make a comprehensive survey of the literary activity of these times. He was more interested in the men who broke away from the glamour of the professional life and called themselves philosophers, which in those days meant lay preachers. Such was Dion of Prusa, and Mr. Mahaffy exhumed and translated from the dead mass of his eighty extant speeches and essays certain passages which reveal unsuspected charms in this revivalist, who went from town to town rebuking the citizens (in elaborate harangues crammed with literary allusions) for their besetting sins, which were chiefly bad taste and a lack of seriousness. These were the days before Arnim's well-printed edition, and there must be many who would never have turned to the Greek of Dion (unless driven there by "graduate" work) save for Mr. Mahaffy's lively chapters. There are, however, few things more charming, even in Theocritus, than the idyl of life in Eubœa, called "The Hunter," which he in great part translated. Even more illuminating for the understanding of what life was in the corners of Trajan's empire is the narrative of that little northern town on the coast of the Black Sea where Dion found Greeks devoted to Homer, ready, in fact, to avenge as a personal insult any criticism of their idol, for this happy town knew nothing of literary criticism, and admired the best by instinct. They spoke rather bad Greek, as men surrounded by barbarians, holding their small outpost against the Scythians. But they fell at the feet of this educated stranger, and were by no means bored when Dion, true to his colors, discoursed to them like any Sophist on the charms of monarchy as an institution.

"The Greek World under Roman Sway" is out of print, and the new volume, in spite of its changed title, is intended to take its place. On the whole it would have been less confusing to retain the old title when one retained so much of the old book. The implication of the new name is literary, whereas the chief interest is still history and social life. The work before us is, in fact, simply a revised edition. The number of pages is hardly increased. Here and there a sentence is recast, a word inserted or omitted, or a modern parallel such as used to flow so freely from the wide-ranging author has been suppressed; some footnotes are ad-

ded. It is not till we reach Chapter III, "Hellenism in Upper Egypt," that we find a whole new though very brief chapter on the settlements of the Greeks in Upper Egypt, on which so much light has been thrown in the last fifteen years by the finds of papyrus at Oxyrhynchus or in the Fayyum. Mr. Mahaffy has here incorporated the results drawn from the Petrie papyrus published by himself in the Cunningham Memoirs in the early nineties, and from the memorable collections of Grenfell and Hunt. He gives a brief résumé of what was actually found at Gurob and the story of the settlements of Macedonians and Greeks in Egypt under the Ptolemies, which will be welcome to many who have not access to the official publications of the Ptolemaic papyrus. This is the main addition to the book. He still has nothing to say of Græco-Roman literature later than the time of Dion, skips Lucian altogether, and gives us perhaps a little too much of the amiable Plutarch. His book is, however, the only one of its kind in English, and will always be read, under the old name or the new, with entertainment. We wish he would not, following perhaps the bad example of some Germans, write, as he does throughout, *Oxyrhynchus* for the more correct *Oxyrhynchus*. The index has been enlarged and much improved.

The Rise of American Nationality, 1811-1819. By Kendrick C. Babcock. [The American Nation, vol. xiii.] New York: Harper & Bros. \$2 net.

So much of Dr. Babcock's volume as relates to the War of 1812 has received elaborate and, in some respects at least, definitive treatment at the hands of Henry Adams and Capt. Mahan. Professor Hart, in his editorial introduction, suggests that to follow in the footsteps of these well-known writers is "a daring task." There can be little occasion, however, for criticising adversely a writer who is called upon, by the scheme of his work, to present with studied brevity what others have presented *in extenso*; provided always, of course, that the authorities have been well used, the salient facts properly brought out, and the events narrated in orderly and effective fashion. Dr. Babcock meets this test well, and the reviewer need do little more than commend what he has written. There is, to be sure, a pervading frankness and downrightness of personal judgment, especially in regard to the conduct of political and military leaders during the War of 1812; but the judgments are sound, and praise and blame are placed where they belong.

For the rest, the narrative, though necessarily brief, presents matter of much interest. The political conditions in the United States, for example, during the three years immediately preceding the declaration of war, are clearly brought out, especially those of the "reign of faction" from 1809 to 1811. The same may be said of the discussion of affairs in the Southwest and Northwest during the same period. The foreign relations of the United States, too, are especially well handled, as they have been in general in the preceding volumes of this series. The attitude of New England during the war has long been a stumbling-block to historians, inspiring apology or

denunciation oftener than judicial examination. Dr. Babcock does not, we think, go deeply enough into the causes of the New England disaffection to make those causes wholly clear—there is, for instance, a subtle social temperament whose significance he seems hardly to have grasped; but he certainly succeeds in showing how grave the danger of secession really was, and how serious the weakness of the Federal Government which it revealed. The episode must always remain a striking illustration of the truth that New England, like other sections of the country, has not invariably exhibited a high order of political morality in times of political and social stress.

With the close of the war, Dr. Babcock's narrative enters upon less familiar ground, and ground, too, which cannot readily be marked off into definite chronological divisions. Political questions become larger as well as of different character; economic issues more and more modify party creeds and party action; sectionalism and slavery show themselves in new and unexpected shapes, and foreign complications for a time recede. The war ushered in nationality, though there remained to be seen what form the new national spirit would take. Certain important questions, accordingly, receive here only preliminary treatment. Such are the financial reorganization after the war, the establishment of the second Bank of the United States, the development of protection, and the emergence of the Supreme Court as the representative of a coördinate department of Government. The demand for internal improvements at Federal expense, following the pronounced westward migration, was shortly to become an element in the great democratic revolution. Into this period falls also the second expansion of Federal territory with the acquisition of the Floridas—a dubious transaction, whose devious course is followed with especial clearness and grasp.

This summary account of the chief matters touched upon in Dr. Babcock's book should not fail to make mention also of the admirable literary form in which the narrative is cast. The writing is always good, not seldom strikingly so; indeed, no volume of this series thus far exhibits more commendable literary qualities. The bibliography, as usual, lists the principal authorities, though Sumner's "Jackson" and the important "Calhoun Correspondence" seem to be omitted. The reference to the Supreme Court reports is vague, the authoritative edition being nowhere clearly referred to.

French Pottery and Porcelain. By Henri Frantz. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. \$2.50 net.

We have already printed in these columns notices of three of the valuable books belonging to the Newnes Library of Applied Arts. The latest is of less originality of conception than, for instance, that on Dutch pottery or English table glass, but this merely because there are valuable works already devoted to French ceramic ware, and because the subject is really too vast to be treated in one small volume of large print. The chief objection to the book taken by itself, without comparison with others of the series, is that no at-

tempt is made to carry out the promise of the title. "French Pottery and Porcelain" without a word of any ware produced in the nineteenth century! Not a syllable on the work of potters like Massier, with his really wonderful glazes and the brilliant designs of his earlier time; not one of the stone-ware with colored enamels made at Sèvres during quite recent years! The title should be modified in some way, and also it should be made clear in some preface or editorial note what the pretensions of the work really are.

There are some indications which point to the cutting down of a fuller original in another language to the present English text. There are signs that the work has been written by some one not familiar with English, or else translated by some one not wholly competent, or not very careful. There are curious errors, like the non-sequitur on pages two and three, in which it is asserted that there was once a factory at Rouen of whose products only two enamelled tiles are known, and André Pottier has proved that there was a potter there named Abaquesne, it was Abaquesne, *therefore*, who executed not only these tile pictures, but also other existing works. On page 39, dishes 20 inches in diameter are accounted for by the necessity of passing them from one guest to another, so that "each held meat for 18 to 20 persons"; and this, again, is explained by allusion to "an ordinance of Louis XIII., forbidding the possession of more than one complete service and one row of dishes." Now it is not impossible to arrive at the author's meaning in general, but what is meant by "one row of dishes" or by other expressions in this paragraph; and why is the author astonished at dishes large enough to contain a good deal of "meat" to be passed from guest to guest, as so frequently in modern service? He seems to refer to the big round platters which are certainly characteristic of Nevers pottery, Moustiers pottery and the like, even though the very largest seem to be of Rouen; but Chinese porcelain dishes and those of the Imari ware of Japan are easy to procure larger than the largest dish of French faïence, except a few magnificent pieces of Rouen ware, charged with armorial bearings and intended for display and for decoration. Indeed, it is probably not the size which troubles Herr Frantz, but rather the circular form. There are oval dishes, too, of these wares, and long fish platters, big enough, one is inclined to say, to hold the largest fish that ever was served on a table. In Solon's excellent book, reviewed in these columns a few months ago, there is given a rectangular Rouen dish 28 inches long; but it is painted with an armorial achievement, and was meant to frame into the wainscoting over a chimney-piece. But the circular platters painted in green or in orange-yellow or in dull blue or sometimes (though less often) in polychromy are the characteristic feature, no doubt. The plates, also, were very large at the same time. Those things are matters of fashion. There are many people who like them as large, today.

It is hard to find any important statement or set of statements in this book which does not exist elsewhere, and in accessible books, too. There are some state-

ments which one would like to have remarked upon by a careful student. Thus (p. 105), the statement is made that the sales of the Sèvres manufactory do not now exceed 100,000 francs a year, and it is implied that in former years they were much larger. Curious reasons are offered for this. Perhaps "the public does not care to see the State acting as merchant," or perhaps "the porcelains of Sèvres are less perfect than formerly." But, indeed, it has never been considered an important part of the work of the Sèvres factory to make objects for sale. The chief purpose has been to produce furnishings for royal residences and presents—honorary gifts to people of importance. It is even with reluctance and in the slowest and most awkward way that important sales are made. You may, indeed, get small pieces—vases and ink-stands and little *raviers*—for a most exorbitant price, cash down, twenty-five to sixty francs for very unimportant pieces. But if you want anything worth having, a set of plates specially painted, even a reproduction of a piece already made, you have to make the purchase with the clear understanding that no guaranty as to time of delivery is made to you, that some time or other you will be notified that the piece is ready, and that you must take it then, "without recourse." Perhaps, under the circumstances, 100,000 francs a year is a fairly large sale, considering that almost everything really worth having is taken out of the list of things thus sold.

There is a two-page list of useful books of reference, and ten pages or more of marks of this and that factory, epoch, or maker, but not at all complete; even the Sèvres show of marks leaves many unmentioned, and there is no adequate explanation of those marks which need it the most, such as the stamp defaced by a file-cut, which is said here to indicate "rejected pieces"—a quite insufficient explanation. There is, also (pp. 132-152), a select list of sales, with the prices given for important pieces. It is interesting to learn of that candlestick of what we used to call Henri Deux ware, which was sold for 91,875 francs in the Fountain collection, dispersed by auction in London in 1884, but there is no adequate opportunity for comparison of price with price or piece with piece.

On the whole, the most important part of the book is its illustrations. These have been made and the examples selected with considerable good taste and thoroughness. There are fifty-eight such plates in half-tone and seven in color, and some of the plates represent several pieces each. It is awkward, however, to find in a plate announced, both in the list of illustrations and in the "caption" under the plate, as devoted to one ware, such as Moustiers faience, a piece which is not of that factory, and this misleading error is of frequent occurrence.

Plant Response as a Means of Physiological Investigation. By Jagadis Chunder Bose, M.A., D.Sc. Professor, Presidency College, Calcutta. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$7.

Except to those who are acquainted with the previous work of this author, the present treatise may come as a surprise. It is a substantial octavo volume of more than 700 pages, devoted to the elucidation and

illustration of a single thesis. Although this thesis is here given in many forms and stated in connection with numerous associated topics, it is essentially simple in its outline. It is this: the plant is a machine; its movements in response to external stimuli, though apparently various, are ultimately reducible to a fundamental unity of reaction. But the movements here referred to are not alone the obvious movements which the eye readily sees, as in the case of the sensitive plant and in that of the twiners. Everybody knows to-day that all young parts of plants possess a limited power of movement in response to certain external stimuli, but to this interesting chapter in the life-history of plants Professor Bose adds others which are of even greater interest. In general, it may be said that, by means of ingenious delicate instruments which exaggerate the slightest motions at any spot, he has been able to demonstrate that even the oldest tissues of a plant, so long as they are living, are capable of responding in a marked degree to certain external stimuli. By the employment of a beam of light reflected from a mirror attached to a multiplying lever, and falling on a recording drum covered with photographic paper or film, he records the amplitude of the very minutest movements of these responses. Now it so happens that many of these responses are exceedingly complex and exhibit confused effects, due to internal energy and external stimulus respectively. Professor Bose believes that he has been able to disentangle these complex phenomena of combined action. After this disentangling and exact discrimination have been effected, he arrives at the conclusion that "there is no physiological response given by the most highly organized animal tissue that is not also to be met with in the plant."

A special feature distinguishing this treatise from many of its class is the presentation, at the end of every chapter, of a summary which gives in a few short sentences the substance of the chapter. Such synopses are often found in French treatises and are most acceptable, not only to the student, but to the casual reader.

The treatise considers, first, simple response, and deals with the universality of sensitiveness in plants. This is naturally followed by a consideration of the modification of response under various conditions. Here are studied such matters as fatigue in plants, the effect of anæsthetics, and the death-spasm in plants. Next comes a part devoted to excitability and conductivity, to reversal of normal polar effects in living tissues, to electrotonus, and the latent and "refractory" period. Under multiple and autonomous response the author gathers together the results of his studies on temperature and rhythmic responses in plants, introductory to the larger subject of the different *tropisms*. But, before taking these up, he intercalates two chapters of profound interest, namely, (1) the Ascent of Sap, and (2) Growth. His discussion of the former topic is not wholly satisfactory, but it is extremely suggestive. After the *tropisms* are examined in most of their relations, he ventures on a general survey of the whole matter, in the course of which he has something to say about variation as induced by external forces that throws light on his views of Darwinism.

From the foregoing, it will be seen that

no summary of the work can be given which does not take up all of the author's own summaries and his concluding part (IX.) as well. The whole work must be studied as a unit, and with strict reference to the thesis on which it is based. Nevertheless, there are many incidental results which possess interest for all readers, such, for instance, as the effect of alcohol upon plants in causing temporary exaltation of response, followed by depression and protracted period of recovery. The style of *Datura Alba* was used in these experiments. If the alcohol vapor was blown away and fresh air substituted, the tissues slowly recovered their normal excitability. But if, instead of alcohol vapor, dilute alcohol solution was applied, the depressing effect was immediate and very great.

There is nothing in the treatise to suggest that the work is not the outcome of a physiological laboratory in Europe and from the hands of a physiologist in Germany or England. But the author is an East Indian, much of whose experimental work has been carried on under tropical conditions. The greater part of his material has been found in India, where, as in all tropical countries, vegetation does not have the long periods of hibernation characteristic of the temperate zones. There must have been at his command a wealth of plant-material unavailable to the Northern laboratories, even where these laboratories are supplemented by hot-houses. That the treatise should be free from dreamy conceptions which might be born in India was to be expected by those who are familiar with the work accomplished by Professor Bose in England; in short it is a contribution to physiology possessing high importance in this time of reconstruction of the science. The new conceptions of chemical physics and physical chemistry necessitate a reconsideration of the whole field of the relations of organisms to their surroundings; the present volume is distinctly helpful to this end.

It is proper to call attention to a singular system of nomenclature which the author has made use of in naming his novel apparatus. We have all been cautioned not to combine elements taken from two languages in the formation of technical terms. Such combinations have sometimes been classed with barbarisms. Frequently Latin and Greek are thus combined with grotesque effect, especially in the names of plants. To some of his instruments, Professor Bose has given names which have a novel, not to say grotesque, look. Thus, the apparatus which records the contractile response of the plant just as the myograph records that of the animal, is termed *kunchangraph*, from the Sanskrit *kunchan*, contraction; and the appliance by which the suctional response is measured is called the *shoshungraph*, from the Sanskrit, *shosum*, suction. All the instruments employed in these researches appear to be of great delicacy, and most of them are constructed on new lines. Almost all of them can be fairly well understood from the descriptions; but those who know how difficult it is to build machines from descriptions and sketches merely, will suspend judgment until the work has been repeated in all details. Meanwhile, it may be said that the treatise is stimulating and is likely to be fruitful in controversy. It has

an interest not only for all biologists, but for chemists, physicists, and, we may add, progressive psychologists.

The Nature of Truth: An Essay by Harold H. Joachim. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.

Mr. Joachim's work comes before the philosophic public with the highest credentials. As fellow of Merton College, Oxford, its author has for years been associated with, and enjoyed the stimulating company of, those distinguished philosophers, Prof. A. E. Taylor and F. H. Bradley. He acknowledges how greatly he has been influenced by the latter (though he somewhat sharply criticizes his conception of the relations of logic and metaphysics and of the "symbolic" nature of the "idea") and by Professor Bosanquet. His preface assures us, further, that the greater part of his work "draws its inspiration from Hegel," and that he has received "valuable suggestions" from a fellow of Balliol and a lecturer at Edinburgh. His book has also received the imprimatur of Dr. E. Caird, who encouraged him to persevere in publishing it, while not even Bertrand Russell's criticisms have induced him to make "substantial alterations" in his second chapter. With this array of sponsors we may fairly take Mr. Joachim's book as representative of the profoundest insight into the nature of truth which has yet been attained in the most esoteric circles of Oxonian Hegelism.

And up to a point Mr. Joachim's work fulfils our expectations. It travels, of course, throughout on the high *a-priori* road of a metaphysical assumption as to the nature of truth, which has not the slightest practical bearing on any scientific problem, and never brings it within sight of any question the ordinary man is concerned to raise. Human knowledge it hardly condescends to notice at all; and where it does, it speedily turns away from the disgusting spectacle to "the ideal." For example, we are told (p. 167-8) that "my and your thinking, my and your self" are mere "bubbles on the stream of knowledge," "accidental imperfections, superficial irregularities, in the medium through which truth is reflected," "incidents somehow connected with the known truth, but they themselves and the manner of their connexion are excluded from the theory of knowledge." Moreover, as befits a Hegelian of the "left," Mr. Joachim professes the utmost contempt for the postulation of a God and a future life (p. 166, 176), and other human weaknesses. But his book is a serious and sustained piece of dialectical reasoning, nevertheless, relieved only by a single jest (to the effect that in judgment "the judicial separation expresses a real divorce"), difficult indeed to follow, and needing the reader's closest attention, but working out the consequences of its initial assumptions with the greatest perseverance, and commendably free from the wishy-washy unctious and ambiguous phrase-mongering into which the writings of his school are so apt to lapse.

The trouble is that, at the end of it all, Mr. Joachim has to confess himself beaten. His notion of truth will not work out, and leaves him with only negative results, hoping against hope to escape from skepticism.

But as he is quite honest about this, his failure is very instructive, especially to those who were not free from doubts about his method and are willing to learn a lesson from his conclusion. Even the Hegelian ideal has its "coherence" shattered by the existence of error, and by "the self-diremption of the one significant whole" into a system of discursive judgments other than the truth "about" which it is. Still, Mr. Joachim is reluctant to apply to it the adage, "A miss is as good as a mile." He argues that "it has carried us further into the heart of the problem than either of the two other notions": that truth is "an ideal representation of fact"; and that it is "a quality, or immediate characteristic flavor, of independent entities which are what they are in and for themselves and without relation to mind." Mr. Joachim also argues that the Hegelian idea has maintained itself against difficulties to which these two notions "succumbed" (p. 178). It "suffers shipwreck at the very entrance of the harbor. It has carried us safely over the dangers and difficulties to which the other two notions succumbed, but the voyage ends in disaster, a disaster which is inevitable." For it "involves the recognition that certain demands both *must be* and *cannot be fulfilled*" (p. 171).

All this seems modelled upon, or at all events reads strangely like, J. S. Mill's account of the breakdown of his famous theory of the self, which, he said, "can effectively withstand the most invidious of the arguments directed against it. But groundless as are the extrinsic objections, the theory has intrinsic difficulties which it seems to me beyond the power of metaphysical analysis to remove." It also reminds us of Mr. McTaggart's confession that, in order to account for the course of things in Time, the Hegelian "Dialectic" was still in need of an unknown synthesis. And as the Hegelian refusal to distinguish between them involves metaphysics in the breakdown along with logic, it really looks as though the whole Hegelian line of thought had at last committed the happy dispatch pretty completely.

What, then, is to be done? Shall we acquiesce in skepticism with Mr. Joachim, or turn to a neglected notion of truth to which he had deliberately closed his eyes? His preface had contemptuously dismissed "the theory known alternatively as Pragmatism or Humanism," as having been refuted for all time by Plato's "Theætetus." But in the light of the subsequent proceedings we can well imagine the pragmatists chuckling over Mr. Joachim's results, and congratulating themselves that their theory was left out of his book, and so escaped from the general *débâcle* of truth. Such expert controversialists will be more than human, and less than "humanists," if they do not take an early opportunity of vigorously reminding Mr. Joachim that Plato's "Theætetus," like his own essay, ends in negation and failure, and of pointing out that the refutation of Protagoras is of a somewhat dubious character, and lastly that the collapse of the theories he has examined leaves the logical field most enticingly open to the one which he has declined to go into. In short, the true moral seems to be that the intellectualist notion of truth has once more led to a fiasco. In Mr. Bradley's

"Logic" the fiasco was disguised under an appeal to metaphysics; in Mr. Joachim's essay it is openly avowed; but it is hardly likely that further champions will court a like disaster. However, it is something—more, perhaps, than Mr. Joachim recognizes—to have cleared the ground for a constructive view of truth which keeps in touch with common sense and practical life.

L'Esprit Libéral du Koran. Par César Benattar, El Hadi Sebai, Abdelaziz Et-téalbi. Paris: Ernest Leroux.

The same tendency which phrases itself with us in the cry, "Back to Christ," is appearing in Islam in a recoil from traditionalism to what is taken to be a more literal and historical interpretation of the Koran. Eight hundred years ago al-Ghazzali led a similar revolt, but fatally entangled his movement in ascetic mysticism. A century and a half ago the Wahhabites attempted the same, and produced a mixture of puritanism in conduct, simplicity in faith, and active hostility in attitude towards all non-Muslims and their ideas. Now, the signs are of an attempt to liberalize Islam by showing that the Koran in itself and the traditions from Muhammad are liberal in tone and give no foundation to the proud exclusiveness which has characterized historical Islam—that Muhammad, in fact, was an odd combination of prophet and child of the French Revolution. To bring this home to their coreligionists is the purpose of the present authors. Their thesis is to show, by a rational and literal interpretation of the Koran and the traditions, that Islam does not involve a separation between Muslims and non-Muslims, but, rather, is so liberal in its spirit that it may even afford to all a common platform. Anti-Christian polemics are carefully avoided, but the idea is evident that a rationalized Islam is more universal than any form of Christianity can be. That, however, is a result by the way. The book is addressed rather to Muslims, and is an exhortation to set their house in order by throwing off all the accumulations of superstition and fanaticism which have been heaped up, and by going back to the primal simplicity of their faith. Thus they will be saved from their present intellectual decrepitude and social backwardness, and enabled to take a place in the ranks of progress.

Among the views and practices thus countenanced by the Koran, but annulled by later commentators, are reckoned such as the following: education of all, men and women; recognition and respect for all other monotheistic religions, with full liberty of faith, and belief that there will be salvation and rewards hereafter for all the good; freedom for women, and their equal place beside men, with doing away of the veil; forbidding of the numerous superstitions which have grown up and turned Islam into a polytheism, such as the institution of fraternities and the worship of saints.

That development in religion must always present itself under the guise of a return to the original form seems certain. Whatever the change, it must appear as a reformation. And there is much in Islam which renders this practicable. Muham-

mad, it is true, along with his eternally valid religious ideas, had in him the germs of all kinds of superstitions, but assuredly he would never recognize the present saint-ridden, formalized, lawyer-driven Islam as any creation of his. If he were to appear, the canonists, the commentators, the mystics and the darwishes would be scourged out of the Ka'ba in quick time. To have put their finger on the present nuisance and the menace to all social organization in the darwish fraternities, and on the extent to which thoroughly alien superstitions have completely obscured the original Islam, is a long score to the credit of the present authors. But it is to be feared that the picture of a gentle, tolerant Muhammad which is further drawn, is not in accordance with the facts. Muhammad was of the Old Testament, and would have hewed the priests of Baal in pieces before the Lord; this picture comes from the Gospels. Nor will other of their historical conceptions stand: the early Muslims did not live in the idyllic conditions here suggested, nor was it only with the crusades that the fanaticism of Islam blazed out. The early leaders were possessed by corruption and jealousy like their successors, and Islam was a fighting faith from the capture of Mecca on. Another rock for this thesis lies in the nature of the traditions from Muhammad: in that enormous mass, mostly forged as it is, any one can find support for any dogma, and his opponent can find equally good ground for its rejection. A well-read member of the 'Ulama would have little difficulty in tearing to pieces all that side of this hook. He need only choose what traditions he will quote. Finally, it will be long before the above interpretations of the Koran, though undoubtedly often correct, will make headway against the united authority of the commentators. Belief in the doctrine of the annulment of kindly verses by later ones of the sword will be far too strong. In Christendom rather than Islam will these results be first accepted. But, whether Koranic or not, our hearty good wishes must go with such views and purposes as these.

Robert Browning and Alfred Domett. Edited by F. G. Kenyon. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50 net.

This volume contains some thirty letters from Browning and Joseph Arnould, afterwards judge of the Supreme Court of Bombay, to Alfred Domett-Waring, who notoriously, in 1842, "rather than pace up and down Any longer London Town," went as a colonist to New Zealand. There he remained for thirty years and held several important administrative offices, being premier of the colony in 1862-63. The letters are letters of friends, and are chiefly occupied with the personal doings of the writers and expressions of anxiety and sympathy for the emigrant, whose first years of sojourn in the colony were anything but easy. The Browning student will find some interesting bits, such as Arnould's account (an eyewitness's) of the episode of Macready's production of "A Blot in the 'Scutcheon,'" and one highly significant letter from Browning, of July 13, 1846. Domett had sent the poet some

cautious words about his obscurity and imperfect expression, which Browning admits. "As for the necessity," he writes, "of such endeavor [to rid himself of those defects], I agree with you altogether; from the beginning, I have been used to take a high ground, and say, all endeavor elsewhere is thrown away. Endeavor to think (the real thought), to imagine, to create, or whatever they call it—as well endeavor to add the cubit to your stature! *Nascitur poeta*—and, that conceded to happen, the one object of labor is naturally what you recommend to me, and I to myself—nobody knows better with what indifferent success. But here is, without affectation, the reason why I have gone on so far, although succeeding so indifferently: I felt so instinctively from the beginning that unless I tumbled out the dozen more or less of conceptions, I should bear them about forever, and year by year get straiter and stiffer in those horrible cross-bones with a long name, and at last parturition would be the curse indeed. Mine was the better way, I do calmly believe, for at this moment I feel as everybody does who has worked—in vain? No matter, if the work was real." A sound and encouraging philosophy, not for poets alone!

Browning's own letters are supplemented by those of Joseph Arnould, which, indeed, seem to have been preserved quite as much for what they tell of Browning as for anything else; in some cases the album in which the letters were kept contained copies of only such portions as dealt particularly with Browning. But his letters have still their own interest in telling of his own early career as a barrister, and giving many glimpses of life among the small circle of friends in Camberwell: Browning, Arnould and his wife, Joseph Dowson and his wife, the last-named being Domett's sister. No great doings, indeed, nor much high thinking, but little traits, little incidents, such as life is made of. Two characters stand out more or less clearly: the absent Domett, whom they all hold in cherished memory, talk about, drink a health to, and hope will return; and Browning, the young Browning, frank, warm-hearted, affectionate, "a glorious fellow," as Arnould once calls him. In the last letters in the volume we find the old Browning, the man of the world, the literary personage, much preoccupied, but still the same warm-hearted, affectionate friend.

The Life and Experiences of Sir Henry Enfield Roscoe. Written by Himself. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$4.

This makes the third autobiography of an English pupil of Bunsen, though one of the three never actually worked in that master's laboratory, and the reminiscences of another, a really great chemist, have only been privately printed. Roscoe, if not great, has been unquestionably eminent in inorganic chemistry. His memoir on vanadium is perhaps the most complete and admirable study of an element that has ever been made; for although it was made forty years ago, nothing additional of serious consequence has since been contributed to our knowledge of the chemistry of that metal, excepting the existence of certain compounds belonging to that class of complex inorganic acids which were first ex-

plained and as a class discovered by Dr. Wolcott Gibbs. We must not, however, forget the recent application of vanadium carbide to the production of steel having desirable properties. The photochemical researches of Bunsen and Roscoe are likewise deservedly famous, forming as they do one of the foundation stones of modern chemical dynamics. The interest of the present book, however, lies chiefly in the account it gives of the development in England of scientific education; for it has been in this and other public services that Sir Henry's life has been most valuable.

He joined the faculty of Owens College in its darkest hour in 1857, and labored for it through twenty-eight years, until largely—we may say, chiefly—by his effort, it had blossomed out into the University of Manchester. Subsequently, when the London University needed to be remodelled, he was called to its vice-chancellorship, and under him it took on new and better life. He it was who carried its home from Burlington Gardens to South Kensington. He has done a vast amount of truly patriotic work on several royal commissions on technical education, on secondary education, and on matters of hygiene. He sat in Parliament as an adherent of Gladstone for some ten years, and gives an interesting account of the great man's ascendancy and of its causes. In short, though Roscoe is a very different man from Playfair, and quite opposite to him in several characteristics (among which, we must warn his intending reader, is that of his anecdotes), yet the interest of his volume, beyond the picture it affords of a certain scientific circle, is mainly its carrying on further the narrative of English progress in scientific ideas that is contained in the Memoirs of Lord Playfair.

Mr. Galton has more than once noticed the strongly marked resemblances among the descendants of William Roscoe, author of the Lives of Lorenzo de' Medici and of Leo X., as well as of a monograph upon the Ginger-Arrowroot (-Banana?) family of plants. He was Sir Henry's grandfather. Stanley Jevons was his cousin and intimate friend. He himself has decidedly the traits traditionally attributed to Englishmen (*minus* insularity, however), and, more specifically, of the Lancashire man, who is rather a downright, outspoken, uncompromising person, apt to air his peculiarities, yet easily taking the color of his environment. But even more than other Lancashire men, Sir Henry has always been a sympathetic and highly popular personality.

The dress of the book, like all Roscoe's publications, is pleasing. It contains over seventy reproductions of photographic portraits and views, which are exceptionally perfect as reproductions, as photographs, and as likenesses. The index, on the other hand, is so meagre as to be almost worthless.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Alexander, Louis A. *The Drama of Blood.* Published by the author.
- Bernard, Fernand. *The First Year of Roman Law.* Henry Frowde.
- Boyce, Robert. *Yellow Fever Prophylaxis in New Orleans, 1905.* London: Williams & Norgate.
- Briggs, Emily Edson. *The Olivia Letters.* Neale Publishing Co. \$2.
- Buchanan, H. B. M. *A Country Reader.* 1. Macmillan, 40 cents.
- Case, Carl Delos. *The Masculine in Religion.* Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
- Dawson, William Harbutt. *The German Workman.* Imported by Scribners. \$1.50 net.

Days and Deeds. Compiled by Burton E. and Elizabeth B. Stephenson. Baker & Taylor Co. \$1 net.

Deussen, Paul. The Philosophy of the Upanishads. Translated by A. S. Geden. Imported by Scribners. \$3.50 net.

Dickinson, G. Lowes. The Meaning of Good: A Dialogue. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Elizabeth and her German Garden. Macmillan Co. \$1.75.

Emerson, Oliver Farrar. The History of the English Language. Macmillan. 80 cents.

Fairlie, John A. Local Government in Counties, Towns, and Villages. Century. \$1.25 net.

Folsom, Justus Watson. Entomology with Special Reference to Its Biological and Economic Aspects. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.

Foreman, John. The Philippine Islands. Imported by Scribners. \$6 net.

Gilbert, James Stanley. Panama Patchwork: Poems. Robert Grier Cooke.

Gwatkin, Henry Melville. The Knowledge of God. 2 vols. Imported by Scribners. \$3.75 net.

Hartzog, William B. Ancient Masters and Jesus. Cleveland: German Baptist Publication Society.

Harvard Psychological Studies. Edited by Hugo Münsterberg. Vol. 11. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Haworth, Paul Leland. The Hayes-Tilden Disputed Presidential Election of 1876. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co. \$1.50 net.

Holland, Thomas Erskine. Elements of Jurisprudence. Henry Frowde.

Investment Directory. Insurance Companies, 1906. Compiled by S. H. Wolfe. The Insurance Press.

Leigh, Oliver. Edgar Allan Poe. Chicago: The Frank M. Morris Co.

Lemmi, Francesco. Le Origini del Risorgimento Italiano. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.

Lodge, Sir Oliver. School Teaching and School Reform. London: Williams and Norgate.

Maxcy, Edwin. Triumphs of American Diplomacy. Brentano's.

Michel, André. Histoire de L'Art. Fascicules 5-24. New York: Stechert & Co.

More, Alec O. Radia. London: Elliot Stock.

Petrie, W. M. Flinders. Researches in Sinai. Dutton. \$6 net.

Romanes of Chivalry in Italian Verse. Edited by J. D. M. and Mary A. Ford. Holt & Co.

Sakolski, A. M. The Finances of American Trade Unions. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.

Selections from Plutarch's Life of Cæsar. Edited by R. L. A. Du Pontet. Henry Frowde.

Shakespeare's Twelfth Night. Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Sherard, Robert Harborough. The Life of Oscar Wilde. London: T. Werner Laurie. 12s. 6d.

Skeat, W. W. The Problem of Spelling Reform. Henry Frowde.

Slosson, Margaret. How Ferns Grow. Holt & Co.

Twentieth Annual Report of the State Board of Health of Pennsylvania.

Walker, W. L. Christian Theism and a Spiritual Monism. Imported by Scribners. \$3 net.

Wedmore, Frederick. Whistler and Others. Imported by Scribners. \$1.50 net.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 19, 1906.

The Week.

In addition to his general humane impulse to act as peacemaker in Central America, President Roosevelt may well be moved by the desire to prevent the approaching Pan-American Conference at Rio de Janeiro from appearing a failure. With three or four of the constituent nations at war, the impressiveness of the gathering as a peace spectacle would be much cut into. On this and every other ground, it is to be hoped that the good offices of this country may be availed of to avert further bloodshed. The causes of the tri-lateral quarrel are more than usually obscure, even for Central American republics. Apparently, it is one of the wretched contests between military oligarchs over again. With the United States intervening in a friendly way, actively seconded by Mexico, the trouble ought to be composed speedily. Yet the bad conditions will continue; and nominal peace can hardly blind the Rio Congress to the constant liability to war. The general arbitration treaty may be, in consequence, revived. The South American countries are believed to be ready for it. Unhappily, it is the United States that has been backward. The first Pan-American Congress recommended such a common treaty of arbitration, and it won for Mr. Blaine the tremulous thanks of the aged Whittier. But the Senate declined to ratify it. And if Mr. Root were to bring forward the project again at Rio, he would be much embarrassed, not only by that historic fact, but also by President Roosevelt's steady refusal to arbitrate our differences with Colombia, growing out of his ill-considered course when Panama set up for herself.

To clean and progressive Republicans of New York, the present posture of their party affairs must seem ominous. Across the face of the returns of the last election, plain amid the confusion attending other issues, the voters wrote, "We have done with our bosses." But now, within less than a year, there is a stirring in that cave of darkness whither the fugitive bosses fled after last year's storm. Senator Platt once more summons his creatures. Odell, whose share of popular scorn has been more ample than that of any man in public life for a generation, again erects his standard. Lemuel Ely Quigg, banished from public life by a general indignation which even the bosses who employed him could not withstand, sails across the horizon in his yacht. Those

who in the various communities of the State have endeavored to bring a little decency into politics are left by the wayside. When the election is over, bosses may quarrel over the spoils; may scream and denounce some more fortunate plunderer who carries off the lion's share of the booty. But to quarrel when a new election is at hand, to risk the loss of all the plunder—this is not the way of the boss. Each party is waiting for the other—waiting for it to do its worst. Odell and Platt in unison ought to sink any ticket; but, then, the Republican bosses are hoping that Hearst will frighten enough decent people into their arms to save the day.

The Hearst plan of campaign for the Governorship of New York is now pretty clearly disclosed—a matter of serious consideration far beyond the boundaries of this State. His first assault is to be upon the Democratic nomination. He has suddenly become "regular." The resolutions in his favor which his agents supplied the Broome County convention on Saturday, state that he is "a lifelong Democrat," who has "invariably been a loyal supporter of national and State Democratic nominees" (municipal nominees not mentioned). Hence the appropriateness of a Hearst demand that the Democratic party make him its candidate. The first proud scheme of a separate nomination by the Independence League has been quietly dropped. If Hearst gets the regular party nomination, he will continue to be a lifelong Democrat; if not, he will immediately become a lifelong bolter. In either case, the prospect is not pleasant for New York Democrats. They have to face a formidable attack. The Democratic organization throughout the State became degraded to the level of the boss—David B. Hill—to whom it was for so many years subservient, and when he dropped it, the purchase of its fag-ends was comparatively easy. The chief resource of Hearst, next to money, is clamor. His campaign is distinctly planned to win success by the slum and rowdy vote of both parties. His aim is to marshal the discontented, the credulous, the purchaseable, the riff-raff of all parties. Unless self-respecting Democrats bestir themselves, they will see the Democracy of New York, which has fed upon the fair mountain with Tilden and Cleveland, battening upon the moor with Hearst.

A rare virtue attaches to the protest of Mrs. Mary Schauffier Labaree against the action of our Government in exacting an indemnity of \$50,000 from Persia for the killing of her husband, a mis-

sionary, by native religious fanatics. Recognizing her right as an American citizen to such indemnity, she preferred to waive it for the sake of the mission cause, which is as dear to her as it was to her murdered husband. The matter, she pointed out, would not be understood by the Persians, who would speak of it as "blood money"; and this forcible extortion by the United States of payment might thus do "serious and lasting injury" to Christian missions in Persia. Such considerations could not, of course, weigh with an Administration bent upon upholding our dignity abroad. The money was collected, though as a special grace our Minister obtained a promise that it should not be levied as a peculiar tax upon the inhabitants of the province where the murder took place. But Mrs. Labaree's spirit is certainly a better exponent of Christianity than a thousand sermons. It does not, we regret to say, always characterize missionary boards. Some of their demands for rough action by this country in heathen lands Secretary Hay was known to characterize as "bloodthirsty."

The tabular statement of the year's appropriations which is now printed in the *Congressional Record*, shows that the House has not asserted itself in money matters against the Senate quite so successfully as in the past few years. To the supply bills as passed by the House, the Senate added, following its custom, the sum of \$22,185,682. It was the business of the several conference committees to decide how much of the amount, after the House had decided "this much and no more," should remain in the bill for the President's signature. Mr. Cannon went into the Speakership with very decided ideas of his own about standing up for the rights of the House. The first years he backed up the House representatives in the conferences, and met with gratifying success. This year, perhaps, the demands of general legislation tended rather to weaken the grip on appropriations. At all events, besides increasing at a larger rate than in former years, the appropriations have conformed very much more nearly to the Senate's than the House's desires. Out of the twenty-two millions embraced in Senate amendments \$16,281,131 was carried by the law as finally passed. This means that the Senate, which, judged by this test, had been losing ground steadily for four years, has renewed its old-time successes in getting appropriations. We are back to the good old days when the Senate regularly got some three-fourths of the additions it asked for. And, as the Senate went beyond the other body this year in

hard work and popular legislation, it may have deserved what it got.

The only hitch in the plans of Vice-President Fairbanks for winning, this summer, the support of the farmers occurred last week, when his automobile ran down the buggy of a Democrat. Doubtless, Mr. Fairbanks meant to clothe himself in jeans and a wide straw hat, and shoulder a hay-fork before getting into the news dispatches or in front of the camera. Now it is a fair question, "Is this son of the soil, who journeys to his hayfield in a touring car, the 'real thing'?" Regarding certain other statesmen lately in the public eye there is no doubt. When Andrew L. Harris succeeded to the Governorship of Ohio the other day, he was engaged in relaying the stone foundations of a barn on his farm in Preble County. Dropping his tools, he packed a bag, seized a coat and umbrella, and, despite his seventy years, strode off briskly to catch a trolley car for the nearest railway station. The barn is yet unfinished, and the tools are rusting where they were dropped. Gov. Harris's one expression of regret, when he is mentioned as the Republican candidate to succeed himself, is that he can't go back to the farm and finish that job. Mr. Curn of Kansas, a better friend to the cow than to the country, since he refused a Senatorship in order to keep his job as Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture, is another genuine agricultural product. But Mr. Fairbanks—the automobile story makes us doubt him.

Although a general election in Germany is still distant, politicians there are ever watching to see whether the growth of the Socialist party is continuing. Two recent elections have thrown some light on the movement of public opinion. In Hanover the Socialists elected their candidate by 31,803 votes, against 30,596 for the four other candidates, showing, for the first time since the election of 1903, a handsome gain. But their increase was not so great relatively as that of the National Liberals nor their majority so large as three years ago. In Altena-Iserlohn, where the other contest took place, a second election became necessary between the Centre and the Socialists. Owing to the failure to bring about the usual combination of the other parties, the Socialists again won an unexpected and decisive victory and obtained a seat they had never before held. In revenge for this failure of the Liberals to support the Centre, the latter party has informed its followers that they may vote, if they please, for the Socialist candidate to-day, when the seat so long held for the Radicals by Eugene Richter is to be filled. From all indications, therefore, his successor is like-

ly to be a follower of Bebel. Three successive Socialist victories would make the conservative parties and court circles distinctly uncomfortable.

All that human justice can do to right the world-echoing wrongs of Capt. Dreyfus has now been done. The highest court in France at last decides that there never was any case against him; that the Rennes trial was vitiated by forged evidence and monstrous inference from trifles light as air; and that he is now entitled to stand forth legally, as he always has been morally, innocent. The decision carries with it restoration of military rank, though Dreyfus, we presume, will not care for that. Vindication is what he and his friends have asked all these weary and terrible years, and finally they have it complete. No formal redress is possible for the sufferings of the victim on Devil's Island, or for the ferocious ostracism to which he has been so long subjected, but his name and fame are forever cleared, and that is the great result which the heroic men—Reinach, Zola, Col. Picquart, and the others—who identified themselves with Dreyfus's case all along sought. France used to resent the intense interest of other nations in this celebrated case; but she will not spurn the congratulations of the world on the fact that her courts have known how to make justice shine forth as the noonday.

An income tax in France, which was voted last Friday by the Chamber after the Minister of Finance had declared that otherwise he would resign, was advocated as an absolute necessity. The fiscal year ended with a large deficit—no less than \$75,000,000. While that has to be provided for, the budget for 1907 carries, nevertheless, increased expenses of some \$60,000,000—bringing the total for the first time above the \$800,000,000 mark. Such augmented expenditures M. Poincaré asserted to be "inevitable," and our own melancholy experience does not allow us to say him nay. But if outlay cannot come down, receipts must go up. Hence the income tax. It had not been imposed in France since the years after the war with Germany, when the milliards of indemnity had to be paid. Then it was spoken of as a merely "temporary" tax, which after its immediate purpose was served, would not be resorted to, except as a resource in time of war. But here it comes *en pleine paix*. Such are the demands which modern democracy is everywhere making upon the purse of the nation. There is, at any rate, this advantage about an income tax, as compared with the concealed operation of tariff taxes, that it enables people to see clearly who have to put the money into the purse.

The English "suffragettes"—as they are jestingly called—are going at it in earnest. Nearly every day brings news of a fresh demonstration of their desire for the ballot. Lady Frances Balfour, who believes in quiet and orderly campaigning, and Miss Billington, who leads the violent faction, alike feel themselves the victims of a grave injustice, and they are determined that this Parliament shall not expire without voting on the question. They have much to encourage them. On May 19, the Prime Minister received an impressive suffrage delegation and, though giving no pledge of action by his Government, avowed his sympathy with their cause. No English statesman ever went so far. The fact is that English politicians, though they may deprecate the movement, have themselves encouraged their sisters to enter political fields. It was Lord Randolph Churchill who organized them in the Primrose League, and in every subsequent election women have played a prominent part, not only in canvassing, but upon the platform. Their aid is now regularly sought by both parties. Naturally, they who are urged to make others vote demand the ballot for themselves. Moreover, English workingwomen have been drawn into the cause to a surprising degree. Unorganized and often underpaid, these women believe that their hard lot would be improved if they could but impress politicians by their votes. The Liberal press is sympathetic enough to give the "suffragettes" all the space they ask. The contrast between the status of the movement in this country and in England is obvious. Here few men in our national political life have professed sympathy for the cause, and fewer could be got to attend a meeting to urge it.

The suicide of an English barmaid, eighteen years of age, because she had fallen a victim to the drink habit, has once more deeply stirred the conscience of England. The incident may lead to legislation similar to the Glasgow ordinance forbidding the employment of girls as barmaids. To Americans the idea of a woman's serving as bartender is revolutionary, if not revolting. The English public-house of the better class is, however, in many respects so superior to our saloon that this employment has for centuries been monopolized by women. Not until recent years has there been a systematic effort to exclude girls from this trade. The Church of England Temperance Association and the British Women's Temperance Society have been agitating the subject; and a voluntary "Joint Committee on the Employment of Barmaids" has published a number of reports embodying the results of careful investigation. These prove beyond doubt that, even under the most favorable condi-

tions, this employment is degrading. According to the Joint Committee's latest pamphlet, there were 27,700 barmaids in 1901, of whom 6,225 were under the age of 20, and 12,023 were between the ages of 20 and 25. The business requires youthful and attractive victims, for their good looks are expected to bring in much custom. Hence there are few barmaids over 35. The bar hours are abominably long, and in themselves would wreck the health of the women. Public houses in the London Metropolitan District are open no less than 19½ hours on week days; and in many resorts the barmaid is expected to be on hand practically from the opening until closing, save for a couple of hours for rest and meal time. The consequent fatigue is most readily combated by recourse to stimulants. An expert witness quoted by the Joint Committee stated that "75 per cent. of the barmaids are intemperate." Immorality is an almost necessary consequence, particularly as a woman who has been employed in a public-house finds it generally impossible to obtain respectable work elsewhere. Indeed, so overwhelming is the indictment of the calling as to make it incredible that reputable English newspapers should still defend it.

Ouida is begging the headmaster of Eton not to allow his pupils to indulge in the "unsupportably brutal" pastime of hunting hares. The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals is asking in England for an Animal Sunday, after the fashion of Hospital Sunday. The hope is to secure public instruction in our duty to dumb creatures. The consideration now shown for the feelings of the lower animals is the result of long and slow moral progress. Schopenhauer bitterly reproached both Judaism and Christianity for their shortcomings in this respect. It must be admitted that the earlier Christian ethics neglected the whole subject. A great gulf was supposed to separate the heaven-born soul of man and the blind instinct of the brute. But there has been improvement, however gradual. Certain sports which afforded amusement to our ancestors, such as dog fights and cock fights, as well as the baiting of bears and bulls, are becoming rare. The clay pigeon has been widely substituted for the live bird. Cattle on their way to the slaughter must be transported without cruelty. The galled back of the horse, the broken leg of the dog, and even the hunger of the cat are no longer *minima* of which it can be said that the law is heedless. This increased sensitiveness of the public conscience is part of the general humanitarian movement which marks this era. The theory of evolution also has indirectly been a corrective of the ideas of man's irre-

sponsibility to the lower organisms. The demonstration of the unity of the whole organic world has made men understand as never before their real affinity with every living thing. Certain hunters, after killing monkeys, have felt themselves to be but little better than murderers. There is, however, still a considerable field for reform in the treatment of the lower animals.

One development of English railroading is as well worth attention as the Salisbury catastrophe. What is known as the "day cheap trip" is more popular than ever, and the railway companies are competing for the patronage of the great public that likes to travel a long distance for a comparatively small sum. The Great Western Railway, for instance, issues return tickets between London and Weston-super-Mare (113 miles) for one dollar, and carries passengers each way in about two hours without a stop. Places like Brighton, Margate, Hastings, Skegness, Yarmouth, Blackpool, Southport, and Morecambe are visited every day by thousands of people who have been conveyed from city to sea in well-appointed trains at low rates; indeed, Blackpool, by far the most popular seaside resort in Great Britain, depends very largely upon the "cheap-tripper." On the last Saturday in April 60,000 people journeyed from Lancashire and the Newcastle district to London to see a football match, at return fares ranging from 10 to 15 shillings. An excursion of this kind means two nights in the train and about eighteen hours of sightseeing. But the cheap-tripper has a tendency to favor excursions which entail a tax upon the powers of endurance. Not long ago 700 workmen of Burnley participated in a "day-trip" to Paris. During the forty-three hours they were away from home, they travelled a thousand miles by land and sea, kept continually moving while in the French capital, and paraded four deep before the President. And these noble 700 have the satisfaction of knowing that for the rest of their days they will be regarded by friends and acquaintances as men who have seen "foreign parts."

An antiquated method of building up an institution of higher learning is described in the recently published life of Augustus Austen Leigh, late provost of King's College, Cambridge. Forty years ago King's, though wealthy and possessed of fine buildings, was, as one writer describes it, "not only ineffective, but notoriously useless." The lives led by some of its members were "vacuous and indolent, even, in certain cases, grossly scandalous." To-day, on the other hand, King's is "one of the most active intellectual bodies in the King-

dom." This change was due to Provost Leigh, and yet he instituted no drastic or stringent reforms. He had no novel educational programme. He disliked public appearances, and made no reputation either as a writer or a speaker. He was as far as possible from the type of educational hustler and advertiser, now in demand for the presidency of an American college. He seems to have been ignorant of our theory that peripatetic glee clubs and victorious athletic teams are the twin props of a university. With a simplicity that is almost pathetic he bent his whole energy to making the teaching force as efficient as possible, to developing the intellectual resources of King's. Quietly he took one department after another and strengthened it. He kept his eyes fixed on his goal; he was never in a hurry; never lost courage; was never impatient. We do not mean to say that "Steady and sure" would be equally useful in an American college of the twentieth century. That motto, however, has been President Eliot's, and he is thought to have had some success at Harvard.

Amateur golf has apparently sustained its reputation for producing something like a miracle each year, in the defeat of Champion Egan in the second round of the tournament just closed. But the surprise was not so great as it might seem. Experts have commonly said that when Egan had to appear on links where he must play straight, he would be beaten easily. He has been the type of the brilliant but erratic player, with a very long ball too subject to slicing or pulling, though usually with an astonishing power of recovery from the resulting bad lies. But the better golf courses are to-day being steadily constructed so as to punish severely that style of execution. Side traps and pits, with the rough grass narrowing in, have put a premium upon straight and steady playing, which is as great as the penalty visited upon the golfer with tremendous distance but poor direction. Doubtless, the thing is sometimes overdone. On some links the hazards lie too thick. A really good ball may be unjustly penalized. That is said to have been the case here and there at Englewood. But the general tendency is wholesome. It is as marked abroad as it is here—though even of the new St. Andrews some complain that it has been made too hard. Yet it is well, on the whole, to make the golfer's salvation lie through the strait gate. The result of the tournament, by which Mr. Byers barely kept the championship from going to Mr. Lyon, the Canadian, was regarded as a crowning mercy by orthodox golfers—not because Mr. Lyon was a foreigner, but because his formidable game violated nearly all the approved maxims.

PRIMARY LAWS AND PARTY TACTICS.

This year sees the first real trials of the direct primary on a wide scale, and in States where the parties are somewhat evenly balanced. Oregon made direct nominations this spring for all offices, including United States Senators; and the election for State officers and Congressmen was held in June. The Michigan Democrats have nominated their candidate for the Governorship by direct vote. In September, Wisconsin is, for the first time, to try its nominations law, one of the three most complete in the country, in nominating State officers; while under the new Illinois law, primaries are to be held for every office, including the United States Senatorship. In Iowa and New Jersey, which have the legalized but not the direct primary, contests are in progress upon such definite lines that the conventions will merely record the will of the voters as expressed on primary day.

Now that the politicians in so many Northern States are compelled to conduct campaigns under the new system, they are already forced to considerable modifications of the old strategy. Direct nominations obviously eliminate such devices as stampeding a convention, trumping up contests for seats, and the cruder dickering and trading of votes. According to the experience of cities which have used it, the direct primary also doubles, triples, or quadruples the number of voters who participate in the making of nominations, a result which alone would offset most of the faults charged against the new system.

But besides these there are considerations of major tactics. One of the commonest methods of defeating a strong candidate for nomination has always been to put up against him a group of candidates, each drawing votes through his local popularity, so that the first ballot in convention will fail of a choice. Then the opponents of the leading candidate combine on one man, and the thing is done. That was the scheme employed in the effort to beat Folk in Missouri. The president of the Jefferson Club in St. Louis, the popular Mayor of Kansas City, and a Supreme Court judge with a war record made their campaigns separately, expecting to find their aggregate vote larger than Folk's; but they were disappointed. In the same way the movement against Chairman Babcock of the Republican Congressional Committee employed a different candidate against him from every county. This method of fighting is now outlawed by a more effective decree than any Hague conference would make. A faction is compelled to vote in the primary for the man it wants to nominate and elect. A candidate who has a third of the votes to start with cannot be beat-

er by dividing the remainder among three rivals. This makes for frankness and honesty; for "piecemeal" campaigning is never inspiring.

On the other hand, the direct primary tends to discourage independent candidates with small following. If many of them appear in the field, the votes are so scattered that the primary does not voice clearly the sentiment of the party. Thus there may be necessity for a preliminary agreement on candidates, or some means of setting aside plurality nominations. Some of the existing laws require the calling of a delegate convention when no candidate in the primary has a majority. The plan by which voters indicate their second choice, though defeated in Wisconsin last year, seems a fairer and more logical way of surmounting the same difficulty. No primary law now in force, however, has this feature.

Meanwhile, where anything at all besides personalities is at stake, a makeshift solution has to be found in the elimination of distracting candidates. If, for instance, the old "Stalwart" faction proved formidable in Wisconsin this year, it might win unless the opposing "Half-breeds" could concentrate their whole strength upon one or two candidates; that is, persuade all others to withdraw. In the South, except when, as in the current Georgia campaign, there is a clear field and no candidate for reflection, "two-cornered" primaries are decidedly the rule. Senators and Representatives, especially, seem to hold their official honors like so many athletic championships, and aspirants challenge them single-handed, as Hobson did Bankhead, or Gov. Taylor Senator Carmack of Tennessee. Where the fight is over a definite issue, under the direct primary, it is especially necessary that each side choose its man before the fray begins.

That is the chief reason for the peculiar sort of pre-primary conventions which are being developed. The Wisconsin Democrats, for instance, held a State convention last month. This was not to nominate candidates; and even the platform in that State is, under the law, to be formulated by the candidates themselves. It resembled rather a general rally. "It is conceded," says one report in a Republican paper, "that the Democrats have secured an initial advantage by having come together and discussed the issues and the conditions which prevail throughout the State, and received that impetus to work for the party which comes from meeting each other in convention." The direct-primary States are likely to hear a good deal of this last point.

Perhaps it is not fair to say that the direct primary weakens party allegiance. But it has come at a time when appeals to "regularity" as an end in

itself are losing much of their effect. There is no visible danger to the party organizations, but they are already facing a change in the basis on which they must be maintained.

DEALING WITH THE TURK.

One almost regrets that the Administration will not, after all, make the Sultan receive an American Ambassador at the point of the bayonet. The first announcement was that the President would stand no nonsense from the Sultan, but that, having got Congress to pass a law raising the legation at Constantinople to the rank of an embassy, he would proceed to insist upon Minister Leishman's reception as an Ambassador, if it took a squadron to do it. This opened up the prospect that a new chapter would be written in international law, showing that the aim of modern diplomacy is to keep as representative near other sovereigns, not a *persona grata*, but a *persona invitissima*. The State Department, however, has given that story its quietus, tamely acquiescing in the old view that diplomatic relations are for common agreement between nations, that it takes two to make an Ambassador, and that, in this matter, the White House must wait on the pleasure of the Yildiz Kiosk.

There is something a little innocent in the idea that we could transact our business with the Turk much better if we could only persuade him to receive an Ambassador. The reason given is, of course, that a mere Minister has to cool his heels in an ante-room, while Ambassadors claim precedence and pass in first to the awful presence. But the real question is how they fare when they get in. Great Britain and the chief Continental countries have Ambassadors at Constantinople, yet we do not observe that their complaints about the slipperiness and dilatoriness of Abdul Hamid are any fainter than our own. The recent ultimatum sent to Turkey by Great Britain, over the occupation of Tabah, could just as well have been delivered by a Minister, or even a messenger. A Sultan who is determined to refuse satisfaction and to put off every decision to the last day possible, will find excuses even when face to face with an Ambassador. And if it is a question of browbeating him, there is the example of our own Minister Terrell to show what heroic things can be done by a determined man without ambassadorial rank. He stood boldly up in the palace, in 1895, when checked by some minion of a Pasha, and said, "Go tell your royal master that I have come in the name of 70,000,000 American sovereigns to say to him that he must save his country from the devil, or it will be bad for Turkey."

Our own claims, which the Sultan has so long adjourned, relate chiefly to in-

demnities for missionary property destroyed by mobs. But he is treating our appeals for money just as he does every one's. For at least a hundred years the Turkish Treasury has not yielded a piastre except on compulsion. The army is not paid, contractors do not get their funds, even full interest on the foreign debt is not forthcoming until every shift and pretence in order to secure delay have been exhausted. Our plight is not singular; and, as we say, it would be strange indeed if the Sultan's consenting to receive an Ambassador would bring his evasions and pretexts to an end, and put us on a better footing than other nations.

Some of the recent difficulties in dealing with the Turk were brought out strikingly in a debate the other day in the House of Lords. The joint financial control of Macedonia is not working well. This was forced upon Turkey by the Powers, it will be remembered, only after a naval demonstration had overawed the Sultan. But it is one thing to get the Turks to assent to a programme, quite another to induce them to carry it out honestly. Lord Newton read out a letter which he had received from an exceptionally well-informed resident of Macedonia. In it occurred this passage:

Things are not going on well. There is going to be a suspension of payment tomorrow. General de Giorgis can get nothing done. I do not think we shall have any general rising this year, but it is inevitable later on, and I cannot but think that the sooner it comes the better it will be for all parties. At present people are being killed uselessly at the rate of 200 a month, and good honest war would be far less demoralizing.

This deficit in the Macedonian budget is craftily made use of by the Turkish officials to propose an increase in customs duties. As Lord Fitzmaurice, speaking for the Government, pointed out, "there was no reason to be astonished that the trained diplomatists of the Ottoman Empire, when called upon to introduce reforms into Macedonia, took the opportunity of telling the Foreign Office how very desirable it would be to let them have a little more money." The Turks have a seemingly good case. If the intervention of the Powers has cut off part of their Macedonian revenues, there is nothing for it but to levy higher rates on the goods which the Powers export to Turkey. Hence the desired advance of the Turkish customs. It is expected to raise an additional \$3,750,000 for the Turkish Government. Of this, 35 per cent. would, under international agreement, have to go to bondholders; but there is objection to letting Turkey use up even the rest. Turkish finance is a confused mess at best, and the Powers are insisting that if any new sum is available, it should be devoted to settling arrears. Besides, as was openly said in Parliament, "if the Turks once tasted the joy

of an 8 per cent. tariff, they would not relinquish it except under extreme pressure." So England and Austria and Germany are protesting and negotiating and feeling their way; and the fact that they have Ambassadors at Constantinople does not appear to be a solution of their difficulties.

THE MATTER WITH WALL STREET.

That Wall Street is ill—or, at least, complaining of being "all run down"—has been evident for some weeks. Its disease, whatever it may be, is all the more cruel because so mysterious. Wall Street feels that it ought to be in blooming health. Instead of the depressed sensation which it has so frequently suffered of late, it believes that it ought to be buoyant and overflowing with vigor. Nearly every business sign is not merely good, but excellent. General trade is flourishing. Railroad earnings are large. The promise of good crops at high prices is flattering. Under such conditions, the Wall Street barometer ought surely to be set "fair," instead of falling so frequently and alarmingly to "storm."

The puzzling nature of the Stock Exchange ailment has, of course, furnished a glorious opportunity to the financial doctors. They have gathered about the patient bent on making the true diagnosis. But *quot medici, tot sententia*. There are many violent opinions, but no agreement. Among the Wall Street physicians who are always looking for a god from the machine there is, however, a consensus that, whatever else may have contributed to depress stocks, the chief trouble is too much Roosevelt. Many bankers, brokers, and promoters are bitter toward the "rash and meddling" President, who has "killed the market." For this common opinion of Wall Street the compilers of financial statistics can make out a *prima facie* argument in the familiar *post hoc ergo propter hoc* style. Here is a table showing what has happened to typical standard securities and also speculative stocks since the President sent in his message about the beef business on June 4; it may be noted that the market has rallied somewhat this week:

	June 4.	July 18.	
Great Northern	307½	288	-19½
Reading	143½	119¾	-23¾
New York Central.....	141	131	-10
Pennsylvania	133¾	125¼	-8¾
Union Pacific	152½	143½	-9
St. Paul	174¾	175¼	+ ½
U. S. Steel	41½	34¼	-7¼
U. S. Steel preferred..	106¾	101¾	-5
Amalgamated	109¾	96	-13¾
Brooklyn Rapid Transit.	84¾	72¼	-12¾
American Smelting	157¼	143½	-13¾

A downward lurch also dated from June 25, just after the President had announced his intention to prosecute the Standard Oil Company, and possibly the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. This incident brings in a variant of the theory of Mr. Roosevelt's responsibility

as a disturber of traffic. It is that the incensed "Standard Oil crowd" and angry railway interests went into the market to slaughter stocks (including their own) in order to "teach the President a lesson." It is, of course, further proof of the diseased condition of Wall Street's mind that it could believe this. No doubt that the Standard folk would like to undertake Mr. Roosevelt's education, but we can scarcely imagine them eager to pay out of their own pocket his school bills running into scores of millions. Still, there is the tell-tale table, of the most deadly before-and-after kind; and how, in the face of the damning figures, can any man with half an eye deny that the President is guilty?

Indubitably, the President's course, like any other event causing disquiet and apprehension, would tend to deflate a highly blown market. If prices were kept up by reckless speculation six weeks ago, the shock given by Mr. Roosevelt may have been the signal to set them tumbling, though the really efficient causes were many, complex, and partly hidden. And there is, we think, good evidence that speculative manipulation of the market had been too venturesome. It did not reckon with Mr. Roosevelt, to be sure, and is still assigning the fact that "no one can tell what that man will do next" as the vexatious cause of financial depression; but neither did it reckon with other forces which it ought to have taken into account. It was going blithely upon the assumption that money would continue easy, although there were many signs of a coming stringency. New York does not appear to have been so alert as Paris and Berlin and London to the immense financial significance of the Russian revolution—for such, as Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu truly asserts, we must now call it. That cloud on the market was a plain warning to be cautious, but our speculators were jauntily daring. They did not perceive the lesson of the fact that American railroad loans had to be placed abroad, or detect the peril of the real-estate speculation that has mounted to such heights in so many parts of the country. In the face of such clear danger-signals, portending high rates for money, the Wall Street "boom" went merrily on until the demonstration suddenly came that it was hollow. President Roosevelt may or may not have been the immediate cause of revealing the real state of things. If it had not been he, some one else, or some event, would soon have done the work; for the true causes were all the while operative, and the result was bound to follow.

We may wisely distrust the man who confidently offers us a single skeleton key to fit the complicated wards of the financial lock. Large and continuing effects imply general causes. The present cry of Pittsburgh, "Roosevelt is killing

prosperity," sounds more of pettishness than philosophy. In a broad way, this country is suffering financially from thinking to eat its cake and have it, too. The idea has been to screw up wages, prices, profits, all around; to set and keep up a luxurious standard of expenditure; to despise saving and small but sure gains, and to use up our capital faster than it accumulates. If that is folly in an individual, it cannot be wisdom in a whole people. In the end, the spendthrift has to apply to the prudent, as the lavish American is now applying to the thrifty Frenchman.

A SUCCESSFUL PROFESSIONAL CAREER.

"Walter Reed and Yellow Fever" is the title of a book in which Dr. Howard A. Kelly of Johns Hopkins tells the story of a successful professional career. Success in this case, as every one knows, did not consist in building up a large, fashionable, and lucrative private practice; in conducting a popular sanitarium, or in being able to charge enormous fees for surgical operations. Doctors who achieve these ends are commonly pointed out as having won the prizes in medicine; but there is another point of view. Dr. Reed spent eighteen years as an army surgeon in garrison—most of the time in the Far West. When he died at the age of fifty-one his annual pay was less than \$3,000; and his last hours were haunted by the fear that his family was ill-provided for. Yet his life throughout was happy and useful, and crowned at the end with brilliant achievement.

Dr. Kelly's narrative is of deep interest to both physician and layman. Walter Reed was born in Virginia in 1851; and at the age of eighteen he graduated from the Medical School of the University of Virginia. For the next six years he was attached to various hospitals in New York; in 1875 he obtained a position in the Medical Corps of the army, and in the following May he went to Fort Lowell, Arizona; later he was at Camp Apache, seven hundred miles from a railway. The hardships which he and his wife endured are the subject of many graphic pages. Generally he was the only physician at the station, and he was called upon by the settlers for miles around. At one period, when he himself was ill with fever, he insisted on responding to any urgent call. For lack of strength he would be repeatedly forced to sit down while dressing, and finally he would start out "with the snow deep on the ground and the thermometer far below zero." "The more humble the patient," says his biographer, "the greater his devotion." He was especially attached to children. Once he brought into camp a little Indian girl so terribly burned that her people had left her to die. He succeed-

ed in saving her, and brought her up in his own family as nurse to his children.

After thirteen years of Western life came his opportunity. Feeling that he needed time for more study, he obtained appointment as attending surgeon and examiner of recruits in Baltimore, with permission to pursue professional work at the Johns Hopkins Hospital. There he gave himself mainly to pathology and bacteriology, in which he showed marked promise. From 1891 to 1893 he was again in the West; then he was made curator of the Army Medical Museum and professor of bacteriology and clinical microscopy in the Army Medical School. He now began his career as a scientific man. He studied diphtheria, and did everything in his power to advance the use of antitoxin as a remedy. When typhoid broke out among the soldiers at the time of the Spanish war, he was made chairman of a committee to investigate the epidemics. The committee report, in two large volumes, is described by Dr. Kelly as "a monumental work, which will always be of value as a basis of future study in the epidemiology of typhoid fever."

As early as 1897 he had paid some attention to yellow fever. When in 1900 the disease appeared among our soldiers at Havana, Dr. Reed was appointed chairman of a commission to study this plague of the tropics and semi-tropics. Various theories had been propounded as to the cause of infection: that the fever tainted the air, or that it was conveyed by contact with a patient or with his clothing. Dr. Carlos J. Finlay of Havana believed that the mosquito carried the germs; but he had been unable to offer convincing proof. The labor of Dr. Reed and his commission we cannot here take up in detail; but we must at least mention the heroism of those soldiers and physicians who volunteered for inoculation by the bite of a mosquito. Dr. Jesse William Lazear, "with more than the courage and devotion of a squire, risked and lost his life." All the members of the commission were in constant peril. Finally, they made clear beyond cavil the fact that the mosquito *C. fasciatus* is the intermediate host for the parasite of yellow fever. Dr. Reed's exultation as he saw his experiments drawing to a triumphant conclusion is revealed in several letters to his wife. Once he says: "I could shout for very joy that Heaven has permitted me to establish this wonderful way of propagating yellow fever." A few weeks later he writes:

The prayer that has been mine for twenty years, that I might be permitted in some way or at some time to do something to alleviate human suffering, has been granted!

Dr. Reed, worn with toil, died in 1902 after an operation for appendicitis. That he had his recompense, rich and abundant, in this life, none can doubt. The

joy of the scientist as he unveils even a relatively unimportant truth cannot be measured in terms of money, or what money will buy. Only those who have caught glimpses of the beatific vision can conceive the emotion of Dr. Reed at the thought that he had done more for medicine than any American has ever done; that he had stayed one of the most fearful of scourges, and saved countless lives. In a day when the allurements of commerce are more potent than ever before, its rewards huger and more dazzling, such a book as this should be put into the hands of aspiring youth. From it they will learn the difference between the shadows of the flesh and the realities of the spirit.

REMBRANDT AFTER THREE CENTURIES.

During his own life, Rembrandt's fame, once considerable, sank into obscurity. For a full century later he was almost forgotten. His was the fate of all artists at odds with their times. How this great visionary came to be the consummate master of the Dutch school, and withal the least Dutch of its masters, remains something of an enigma. On this point, the modern eulogists differ as widely as the older critics. He is lauded as a precursor of impressionism, as a profound portraitist, as the truest interpreter of Bible story, as the greatest of etchers, even as a masterful colorist. Some have boldly hailed him as the chief of naturalists. Many of these things Rembrandt was—so inclusive was his life work; all of them he might have been—so versatile and persistent was his genius. Painters, who are likely to be right in such matters, regard him as the inventor of a peculiarly rich and vibrant *chiaroscuro*, which became a remarkable medium of expression—hinting at the mystery of personality, and containing, as it were, all the springs of human pathos.

On the technical side Taine said the last word of Rembrandt's characteristic style—namely, "his figures swim in the air, like a fish in the water"; or, again, "the atmosphere is the principal personage of the picture." Such statements should be accepted with a difference; they do emphatically point the truth that every late canvas of the master is a battlefield, in which the shadow surges up to the tiny citadel held by the high light, which in turn resists the gloom and struggles outwards through the deepest shadows, being always conqueror in the end. Similarly his figures do not assert themselves brusquely and once for all in fixed contours, but grow out of the darkness as a kind of emanation. The eye never completely ascertains them, but reveals them increasingly, as forms are divined at twilight. Nothing seems set and arranged for the convenience of the onlooker, of whom

is required something of the visionary quality of the artist. With considerable technical differences, Whistler and Carrière have sought the same effect of an evasive reality.

It is important to note that the mystery of Rembrandt, his effacement of the line and simplification of the masses, is based on a perfect knowledge of the actual forms. One has only to compare the early "Anatomy Lesson" with the later "Syndics" to perceive that the contrast is not between representing forms and neglecting them, but between two kinds of representation, of which the later is both the more difficult and the more accurate. The clinic of Dr. Tulp is painted with a solidity and relief almost scriptural, suggesting, in fact, the touch of the finger rather than the observation of the eye. Each head is painted as if seen by itself; there is no charm of color; the merit lies in superb academic draughtsmanship, in grasp of character, and, negatively, in suppression of the more revolting features of the subject. In such a picture Rembrandt appears as cautious and laborious, a formidable rival to the Van der Heists and other "corporation" painters, but essentially of their sort, after all. In the "Syndics," painted at the end of his career, there is greater actuality and unity—the glamour and mystery in which these grave committeemen are invested strangely contributing to the sense that these are substantial presences. In short, following the almost universal course of successful genius, Rembrandt prevailed by means of a conscientious academic tutelage, the minute method of which he finally abandoned. He is successful in putting his own passionate vision of the world upon canvas, because first he has mastered the dry record of the average eye.

In Rembrandt's etchings—the peddling of which kept him afloat through disastrous years—the real Rembrandt, the Rembrandt of mystery and of the searching, yet fluttering eye, appears much earlier than in the paintings. The etched line indicates the whole character of the pose, the suffusion of the figure with light, the tremor that indicates motion incipient or just arrested. A very little study of the etchings will show how early Rembrandt came to that curiously profound and troubled vision by which we know him best. The fact suggests that his earlier and dryer portraits represent, as one might suppose, less his natural predilection than a conscious apprenticeship to the distasteful but indispensable severities of his art.

If criticism of Rembrandt's finished art has erred seriously, it is in claiming for his use of light and shade and air a ground in realism. As a matter of fact, it would be hard to imagine a more abstract means of expression.

Critics seek rather idly the basis of his golden shadows in the half-light of his home. What such an interior was like we know very accurately from the picture of De Hoogh; but Rembrandt deals in light and shade that never were except in his own imagination. He pays the slightest attention to times of day and to all problems in specific lighting, choosing merely the illumination that best conveys his mood. Thus he has little to do with the modern luminists. His irradiated shadow is a glamour that his brooding spirit imposes upon the world. For this reason he is an unsafe model, as was shown by the artistic shipwreck of most of his scholars and imitators. He invented his half light only that he might people that golden "darkness visible" with types of human tenderness and pathos.

No one so well as he has realized the universal humanity of the Bible narrative—its direct appeal to the heart. How understandingly he has stripped these scenes of all hieratic associations, of all merely learned or traditional sophistifications! "Christ Before the Doctors," "The Raising of Lazarus," "Abraham and Isaac," "The Flight into Egypt"—these are representative of the subjects he has treated in all simplicity. As no other artist, he has grasped the beauty of the homely Protestant conception of the Bible. Rembrandt some way managed to walk with God's folk of old in humble and friendly fashion. They were his neighbors and real visitants, and with them he used a frankness in striking contrast to the caprice that made him travesty himself and his bodily sitters in all manner of studio trappings. In short, when we speak of realism in Rembrandt, we mean simply his sincerity of emotion—his peculiar meditative pathos. His portraits, for example, as compared with those of Titian, of Hals, or better, of Velasquez, are highly unreal and conventional, but it is a convention that expresses admirably the penetrative insight and broad sympathy of the painter-poet of Amsterdam. The realist sets a person in a canvas; Rembrandt fills a canvas with a personality.

No school and no nation may fairly claim Rembrandt. He deliberately forewent the sober excellence of color and solidity of design that make the Dutch school great. With small pride as an inventor of methods, he elaborated a procedure that no one has imitated with safety. Unriddling the mystery of light and shade, he forbore to complete his discovery, utilizing it only so far as it served his limited pictorial message; with a remarkable sense of the value of color, he used it only as a casual grace to enliven his monochrome. At every point one perceives the sacrifice of artistic breadth to profundity. Rembrandt is the most solitary figure in art, for, apparently, no sense of superiority

or pride of artistry sustained him; yet this isolated figure brings to human emotions the just and all-embracing sympathy of a little child.

The sun shines upon the just and unjust, and so the illuminated dusk of Rembrandt embraces without discrimination the beautiful and the unbeautiful. It is, in fact, the beauty of the picture, and the form is largely incidental—a mere centre of coruscation. Nothing more clearly marks him off from the classical tradition than his refusal to impute a beauty that does not lie in the subject. By what seems a kind of good luck, he has painted a few pictures of a peculiarly living and tremulous grace. One recalls the little Susannah of the Louvre, or, better, the "Finding of Moses," now in the collection of J. G. Johnson of Philadelphia—a picture that, with greater seriousness, has the romantic elegance of a Watteau. Such rare examples show that Rembrandt was great, not merely in his achievements, but in his renunciations.

REMBRANDT EXHIBITION AT WASHINGTON.

WASHINGTON, July 16.

A Rembrandt exhibition opened in the Congressional Library yesterday, in commemoration of the tercentenary of the birth of the artist. Through the efforts of Arthur Jeffrey Parsons, chief of the Division of Prints in the library, and also a trustee of the Corcoran Gallery, a representative collection of Rembrandt prints has been gathered and will remain on exhibition in the Hall of Arts throughout this year. There are 550 prints in all. They come from various sources: from the T. Harrison Garrett collection of Baltimore, which, in its entirety of 20,000 prints, has been deposited in the Library of Congress as a loan; the Gardner G. Hubbard collection of Washington, a gift to the library; the George Lathrop Bradley collection of Washington, a loan to the library; and from the general collection owned by the library, obtained largely through the purchase of the George P. Marsh collection. It is interesting to note that the T. Harrison Garrett collection owes its existence to-day to the fact that it was deposited in the library. The Sunday after the prints had been shipped here, the great Baltimore fire destroyed the building in which this collection had been stored.

The hall is well lighted, and admirably suited to an exhibition of this kind. Three hundred and one of the prints are etchings, 154 are reproductions of paintings, and 95 are drawings and sketches. When it is recalled that the greatest number of Rembrandt plates which have been admitted by any critic is 375, the number admitted by Rovenski in 1890, and the smallest number 329, which was declared by Middleton, in 1878, to include all of the Rembrandt plates so far as he had been able to identify them, the representative character of this exhibit will be appreciated. Only a few copies are included among the etchings,

and these for the purpose of completing the several states of the plates.

In arranging this exhibit Mr. Parsons has followed Rovenski's classification, which begins with Rembrandt's portraits of himself. These are exhibited in a glass case to the left as one enters the hall. Passing from these portraits, which some will think the most interesting group of all, the visitor finds, in the following order, that used by Rovenski, the works of Rembrandt according to subjects: (2) Old Testament, (3) New Testament, (4) saints, (5) allegorical, historical, etc., (6) beggars or mendicants, (7) figures, (8) landscape, (9) portraits of men, (10) heads of men, (11) portraits of women, (12) head studies. Groups two and three, pictures inspired by the Old and New Testaments, are among the largest in the collection. Midway in the Hall of Arts is a case containing that foremost of all his etchings, "Christ Healing the Sick," called the "Hundred Guilder Print." Of this etching there are prints of its several states. Nearby is the Abraham series of etchings: "Abraham sending away Hagar and Ishmael," "Abraham and his son Isaac," and the "Sacrifice of Abraham." Other famous etchings in this group of religious subjects are: "Christ Presented to the People," "Descent from the Cross," "Repose in Egypt," "Jesus Christ Preaching," "Ecce Homo," "Raising Lazarus," "Flight into Egypt," and the "Three Crosses." Rembrandt's portraits of men and of women, and his studies in heads complete the collection of etchings; and the groups are represented by many of the best etchings of each, as, for example, the portraits of "Renier Ansloo," "Jean Lutma," and the little and great Copenois. The portraits of women include that entitled "Old Woman Sleeping," and several of Rembrandt's etchings of his mother.

A representative collection of engravings of Rembrandt's paintings occupies nearly a third of the space. Each card in this section gives the title of the painting, the collection in which it originally appeared, place of collection, date of painting, and reference to the Bode catalogue. Of the 154 paintings of which prints are here exhibited, 43 are not described in the catalogue of Bode. Here may be seen examples of nearly all of the engravers of Rembrandt's paintings, Dutch, German, English, French and American.

Of the two hundred and fifty paintings by Rembrandt now in existence, the cards prepared under the direction of Mr. Parsons tell us that some thirty are in art galleries and private collections in this country. The most notable Rembrandt collection in this country is probably that of Henry O. Havemeyer of New York, which includes "Portrait of a Gentleman," long known as "The Treasurer"; "Portrait of a Lady of the Van Berestejn-Vucht Family"; "Portrait of a Gentleman" of the same family; "Portrait of the Gilder"; "Portrait of an Old Lady, looking to the left, her hands clasped"; "A Young Woman, resting her right hand with a fan on the back of a chair"; and a "Portrait of a Young Man in a high hat, his left hand on his breast." Other Rembrandts in New York, and the collections in which they appear, are: Metropolitan Museum, "A Pale Young Man, with long hair and a broad-brimmed hat, his left hand in his

coat"; and "A Man in a broad-brimmed hat, with a dark beard"; T. J. Blakeslee, "The Sibyl"; James W. Ellsworth, "Portrait of a Man of Forty"; F. E. Fischof, "An Old Man with his throat uncovered"; George J. Gould, "A Study of an Old Man with a beard, in a red cap," and "The Standard Bearer with a red sash"; Robert Hoe, "A Young Girl"; collection of the late Joseph Jefferson, "Portrait of Petronella Buys"; Morris K. Jesup, "Portrait of a Young Man" and "Portrait of a Young Woman"; H. McK. Twombly, "The Noble Slav"; Richard Mortimer, "A Warrior putting on his armor"; Charles Stewart Smith, "St. John the Baptist"; H. L. Terrell, "Rembrandt with short hair in a feather cap"; Charles T. Yerkes's collection, "The Raising of Lazarus," "Portrait of an Officer," "A Rabbi in a White Cap," and "Jupiter and Mercury entertained by Philemon and Baucis."

BUILDING UP THE CANADIAN ARCHIVES.

OTTAWA, July 14.

In an unostentatious way, befitting the character of the work and the scholarly men who are engaged in it, the Canadian Archives are being developed into one of the most complete and, what is much more important, most accessible collections of historical manuscripts in America.

The history of the Canadian Archives does not go back many years. The first Dominion archivist, the late Dr. Douglas Brymner, was appointed in 1872, at the instance of a number of Canadians interested in historical research. Dr. Brymner took hold with enthusiasm of the work of gathering the scattered records of Canadian history, but the importance of his task and of the results was not appreciated by the political leaders of the day. He was consequently hampered by the meagreness of the appropriations annually voted by Parliament. The marvel is that, under such discouraging conditions, he accomplished so much. Francis Parkman, Dr. Coues, Dr. Kingsford, Justin Winsor, and other historians and students have borne witness to the value of the Canadian Archives and the industry of the late archivist.

Dr. Brymner devoted all his energies to gathering material. He was always haunted by the knowledge that historical documents, many of them indispensable to full knowledge of the facts of early Canadian and American history, were disappearing. This applied not merely to manuscripts in the hands of individuals, but even to those in the possession of foreign Governments. Dr. Richard, author of "Acadia," who was for some time assistant archivist, prepared ten years ago a calendar of manuscripts found by him in the various departments of the French Government, which he thought should be copied for the Canadian Archives. Owing to continued lack of funds, Dr. Brymner had to put off from year to year the copying of these documents; and when at last the work was taken in hand, it was found that, even within the decade, many important documents had disappeared. In one case the head of a department had cleaned out hundreds of valuable records, many of them bearing on the early history of this con-

tinent, to make room for his secretary; and the manuscripts were sold as waste paper.

With the knowledge before him of this steady wasting away of original documents, Dr. Brymner devoted all his time and energy to hunting up material, and securing for the archives either the originals or accurate copies. He possessed in an eminent degree that nose for the whereabouts of original documents so useful in an archivist; and he was constantly engaged in tracing clues and running down manuscripts in the most unlikely places. He had neither the time nor the assistance, nor perhaps even the inclination, for making the rapidly accumulating volumes of manuscript material readily accessible by means of indexes and other bibliographical appliances. While he lived, this lack was not seriously felt; for Dr. Brymner's knowledge was so minute and his memory so exact, that he could instantly find any document, and could generally refer to everything else he had on the same subject.

After the death of Dr. Brymner, chaos reigned for a time, until the Government in appointing Dr. Arthur Doughty of Quebec as his successor brought to the office one who combined Dr. Brymner's scholarship and talent for hunting down material, with organizing ability and a perception of the advantages of modern methods in cataloguing and indexing.

Under Dr. Doughty's hand, the Canadian Archives are rapidly taking a place beside the Archives of other lands. Through the sympathetic interest of the present Viceroy of India, Lord Minto, who at the time of Dr. Doughty's appointment was Governor-General of Canada, and of the Prime Minister, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Government was induced to provide adequate accommodation for the Archives. A suitable appropriation appeared in the estimates two years ago, and the Archives building is now nearing completion. It has been made as nearly fire-proof as possible. The book-cases, shelving, doors, and window-frames are of steel. It is even proposed to have tables and chairs of the same material. When the Archives have been moved into their new quarters, they will be as safe as human ingenuity can make them.

Steps have been taken to remove to the new building, not only the present collections of the Archives Branch, but also all the historical material now scattered through various departments of the Government. Some years ago a Royal Commission examined the records of all departments, and strongly recommended that everything of permanent value should be removed to the Archives. The Commission found valuable material the existence of which was unknown even to the officials of the departments concerned. From the Department of Militia and Defence is to be taken an immense mass of documents bearing on the Indian wars, the War of the Revolution, the War of 1812, the Fenian Raids, and the Red River Rebellions. From the Department of State comes the entire Branch of Public Records, including a vast accumulation of official and other documents bearing on the political history of Canada, back to the French Régime. From the Governor-General's Office, have already been taken several hundred vol-

umes of original dispatches of the Governors of Canada to the Colonial Office at London. Other equally precious matter will come from the Privy Council Office, the Library of Parliament, the Department of Justice, the Interior Department, and the Department of Indian Affairs.

Probably before the close of the present year, all this material, with the collections of the Archives, will be in the new building; and before the close of the following year the whole will be roughly classified and shelved. But this is merely preliminary. The Archivist will provide an adequate key to the documents in the form of a card index. The work is already well advanced on the original Archives, but the indexing staff will be busy for many years preparing the five or six million cards required for material already in sight, without counting future accessions. When the work is brought up to date, the Canadian Archives will be one of the most valuable, because most accessible, collections in the world. The new archivist has also made a beginning with a Bibliography of Canadian History, designed on a scale far in advance of anything now available. This will also be on cards, but when reasonably complete it will be published in one or more large volumes, to be followed at intervals by supplements.

Another undertaking is the preparation of a guide to historical manuscript material throughout Canada. Specialists are already engaged on this work in the various provinces, and from the notes so far received at Ottawa it is clear that the guide will be of great service. Manuscript material is scattered everywhere throughout the Dominion, in the Archives of the provincial Governments, in college and society libraries, and in the hands of individuals. The manuscripts in the libraries of Laval University, Quebec, and St. Mary's (Jesuit) College, Montreal, are so extensive that the librarians themselves have as yet only an approximate knowledge of their number and character. The old seigniorial families of the province of Quebec, and the old Acadian families in Nova Scotia, possess documents a knowledge of which might upset many conclusions of the historians. The recent organization of an Archives Department at Toronto, under the Provincial Government, has stimulated the interest in original documents in Ontario, and has relieved the Dominion Archives of much research so far as that province is concerned. By a system of coöperation the Provincial and Dominion archivists will each get the benefit of the other's labors. In connection with the guide to historical manuscript material, members of the Dominion Archives' staff are visiting the older churches of the country and the notarial offices in Quebec, and making exhaustive notes as to the scope of all the parish registers. More than one apparently hopeless tangle in early Canadian history has been straightened out, because some parish register showed that such a man appeared as godfather on a certain date, as witness on another, and so forth. The guide to historical manuscript material, like the bibliography of Canadian history, is eventually to be published by the Government in book form.

Meanwhile, the work of gathering material has not been lost sight of. One of Dr. Doughty's assistants is permanently sta-

tioned in London, and is engaged in systematic examination of records in Great Britain, France, and the other countries of Europe. A copyist is transcribing documents at Hudson's Bay House, in London, and material already sent over indicates that it may be necessary to rewrite much of the early history of Western Canada. Recently it has become known that many documents belonging to or bearing on the North West Fur Company of Canada are in one of the Government departments at St. Petersburg. How they got there Heaven only knows. Copies are to be made and sent to Ottawa. One of the most important of recent finds is the discovery in Paris of what seems to be conclusive proof of the authenticity of the discredited fourth voyage of Jacques Cartier; also a very early plan of Quebec.

This year's Archives report will not, as hitherto, be confined to one modest volume, but will fill three large volumes. Documents will be printed freely *in extenso*, including material on the constitutional history of Canada, as well as of hitherto unpublished, and indeed unknown, matter touching the Acadians. The report will also contain reproductions of several rare historical plates.

Correspondence.

RAILWAY CASUALTIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From your remarks upon the lamentable railway accident at Salisbury, England, in your issue of July 5, it would seem that you regard the loss of life to passengers on English railways as rather greater, proportionately, than it is on railways in the United States; and you arrive at this conclusion by distributing the casualties over the railway mileage in each country, with the unquestionable result that in the United States ten times the number of stationary, horizontally laid rails appear to have been the death of only four or five times the number of passengers killed in England. But what has railway mileage to do with it? On the same principle it would be easy to prove the exceptional safety of any ill-built, ill-managed pioneer railway, with one passenger train a day each way and a smash-up once a month, as compared to an equal number of miles of the New York Central, in the immediate neighborhood of New York, with about a thousand times as much usage. Surely, the basis of a comparison of railway casualties ought to be the amount of traffic, not length of line. Passenger traffic on English railways is enormous, as compared with that in the United States, although the average distance over which each passenger is carried is probably not so great. Moreover, the density of the traffic, and therefore the risk of collisions, is much greater in England. I have not attempted to work out such a comparison for myself, but I find one already made in Hazell's Annual for 1906, which I beg to append. The statistics are for the year 1904:

	England.	U. S.
Passengers killed	115	411
Passengers injured	2,669	9,111
PROPORTION OF PASSENGERS KILLED AND INJURED TO PASSENGERS CARRIED.		
	England.	United States.
Killed	1 in 199,753,000	1 in 1,622,267
Injured	1 in 2,244,472	1 in 78,523

The figures for the accidents to railway employees are even more impressive:

PROPORTION OF SERVANTS KILLED AND INJURED TO SERVANTS EMPLOYED.

	England.	United States.
Killed	1 in 10,144	1 in 357
Injured	1 in 747	1 in 19

H. H. LANGTON.

Toronto, July 10.

[These figures do not tell the whole story, inasmuch as they take no account of the average distance travelled by each passenger. The length of the trip is greater in the United States. Much of English railway travel is the London suburban traffic.—Ed. NATION.]

Notes.

The next volume to appear in the Highways and Byways series (Macmillan) will be that on "Dorset," by Sir Frederick Treves. The volume will be illustrated by Joseph Pennell.

Prof. Charlton M. Lewis of Yale will soon publish through Henry Holt & Co. "Principles of English Verse." Professor Lewis writes, he says, "chiefly for the general reader."

The Rev. Bridgeman Boughton-Leigh's "Memorials of a Warwickshire Family" will be published this month by Henry Frowde. Sir H. Gilzean-Reid contributes a prefatory note.

Under the title of "An Englishwoman in the Philippines," E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish shortly a book by Mrs. Campbell Dauncey. It is in the form of letters home, and it gives a view of life in the Philippines generally, and in Manila and Iloilo. Dutton also promises at an early date "Sidney Herbert: Lord Herbert of Lea," a memoir by Lord Stanmore, 2 vols.; "Personal Forces in Modern Literature," by Arthur Rickett; "From a Cornish Window," by "Q."; "Side Lights on the Home Rule Movement," by Sir Robert Anderson; "George Crabbe and His Times," by René Huchon; "A Week in Waterloo in June, 1815," by Lady De Lancey; "The House of Cobwebs," by George Gissing, and "The Quest of the Simple Life," by W. J. Dawson.

Geronimo, the Apache outlaw and chief, has spent the last two years in writing his autobiography, which is to be published by Duffield & Co. S. M. Barrett, superintendent of schools at Lawton, Okla., has been the medium through which the chief, now seventy-seven years of age, has told the story of his life and of his people.

Doubleday, Page & Co. believe in distributing their books through the year. They will soon have ready for publication "The Frog Book," an "authoritative" work on that subject by Mary C. Dickerson; "How to Make a Fruit Garden" and "Cotton," a "complete" book by Charles W. Burkett and Clarence H. Poe. A work of historical importance is "Recollections and Letters of George Washington," which gives a picture of the home life at Mt. Vernon and contains a number of unpublished letters from Washington to his confidential secretary, Tobias Lear.

Norman Duncan has just finished a sea-yarn for boys, "The Adventures of Billy

Topsail," which will be published by the Revell Company this autumn. The same firm announces "The Undertow," by Robert E. Knowles; "On the Trail of the Immigrant," by Edward A. Steiner, and "The Doctor," by Charles W. Gordon, better known as "Ralph Connor."

Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons will begin in October the publication of *Putnam's Monthly*, a reissue of the magazine first published by the late George P. Putnam in 1853. With the new Putnam's will be incorporated the *Critic*, which has been issued by Putnam since 1898.

"Books and My Food" (Moffat, Yard & Co., \$1 net) is a little volume of appropriate quotations and recipes for every day in the year, prepared by Elizabeth Luther Cary and Annie M. Jones. The quotations will be a godsend to the harassed makers of menus for public occasions, and the recipes look appetizing; but why should they be distributed singly under the days of the year?

"Spain and Her People" is the title of an illustrated book by Mr. J. Zimmerman, which T. Fisher Unwin has just issued in London. It opens with sketches of the sights of Spain—the Alhambra, Grenada, etc. Then follow chapters on Spanish Life and character, the Inquisition, the expulsion of the Jews, and the Moors. The final chapters deal with the causes of Spain's decline, and her future prospects.

"The Building of the Organ" and "Onward," two "symphonic poems," published two years ago, by the author, Nathan Haskell Dole, are now issued with the imprint of Moffat, Yard & Co.

The series of translations published by the Oxford University Press includes "Longinus on the Sublime," a work which has stood next to Aristotle's "Poetics" as the source of modern criticism, "a golden book," as old Isaac Casaubon called it. The depth, or, as one may say, centrality of its views may be understood from the fact that so classical a critic as Sir Joshua Reynolds had it constantly in mind while writing his "Discourses," and that so one-sided, if protesting, a romanticist as Professor Saintsbury accepts it as one of the bibles of criticism. The translation by A. O. Prickard is smoothly done. The Introduction gives the data which underlie the discussion of authorship and date, without attempting any dogmatic solution of that question, and the notes supply the information demanded by the non-classical reader. The little book is highly commendable.

A translation of Longinus was published in 1712 by Leonard Welsted, a versifier and critic whom Pope savagely attacked in the "Dunciad":

Flow, Welsted, flow! like thine inspirer, beer;
Tho' stale, not ripe; tho' thin, yet never clear.

These lines were a return for some of Welsted's strictures upon Pope. Welsted, possibly inspired by Longinus, seems to have been at odds with the school of Pope. Writing in 1724 he declared roundly that "a great part" of the contemporary English poets "have been imitators; another body of men, yet more numerous and more despicable than these, consists of such as have learnt from the rules the measure of a verse, and a few other things of not much more consequence; and cer-

tainly of all the causes that have helped to swell the throng of ill writers, none have more contributed to it than those essays on poetry before mentioned." This last clause is a direct slap at Pope's "Essay on Criticism." Further on Welsted talks of "mechanical poets." In fact, Welsted, however faulty his practice, professed some of the doctrines which later inspired the romantic movement.

It would not be easy to name a writer of English better fitted to reproduce the style of Anatole France than the late Lafcadio Hearn. How many readers of Hearn know that he made a translation of "The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard" for Harper & Bros. as late as 1890? The volume is now reissued. Harpers also reprint James de Mille's "Cord and Creese." This novel by the author of the once famous "Dodge Club" was first published in 1869.

Funk & Wagnalls publish Taine's "Balzac, a Critical Study" (\$1 net) in a translation by Lorenzo O'Rourke. A fresh impulse, no doubt, will be given to the criticism of Balzac by the work on that novelist by Mr. Brunetière which will soon be added to Lippincott's French Men of Letters, and this English version of Taine's appreciation is thus well-timed.

"The Scottish School of Painting" can hardly be said to have convinced the world of its separate existence, but in his book of that title in "The Library of Art" (Duckworth-Scribner, \$2 net) William D. McKay has succeeded in demonstrating that painting in Scotland, or in England by Scotchmen, has had, since the day of Raeburn and Wilkie, certain national characteristics which fairly entitle it to the name. None of the members of the school have equalled in eminence the founders of it, but it is impressive to find how many of the leading painters of Britain have come from the northern end of the island. The author is a "professional painter" who writes with knowledge and confidence of technical matters, and the volume is fairly illustrated.

We may mention here two useful books published by Wiley & Sons on a subject attracting continually more attention in this country. In his "Garbage Crematories in America" William Mayo Venable gives the design of every type of crematory built in the United States. And there is a large amount of discussion of matters connected with garbage or refuse disposal which should be of value to those interested in this work. "The Disposal of Municipal Refuse," by H de B. Parsons, is the result of observations while engaged in making designs for the disposition of some of the New York city refuse. The book is mainly devoted to the characteristics of the material collected in New York, the uses to which it may be put, and the principles underlying its sanitary and economic handling.

Professor Jastrow has chosen an interesting subject for his essay in descriptive psychology in "The Sub-conscious" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$2.50 net), and it seems almost impossible to render dull even a second-hand narrative, e. g., of the extraordinary adventures of "the Rev. Mr. Hanna," "Mlle. Hélène Smith," or the three "Miss Beauchamps." He treats it, moreover, as befits a competent psycho-

logist, by emphasizing the relations and tracing the connections between the normal and the abnormal, the conscious and the sub-conscious, functions of our complex personality. The book, nevertheless, can hardly be accorded unreserved commendation. It is far too diffuse, and consequently far too long (over 500 pp.). It is written, moreover, in a highly metaphorical language which is better calculated to obscure Professor Jastrow's meaning than to render it popular, as was doubtless his intention. It is also far too full of usages which, like "novitiate" for "novice" (p. 255), are at best very doubtful or rather downright blunders. And on the theoretic side also the work is not remarkable for any great lucidity, strength, and insight. He could have improved it considerably if he had defined the vague terms he has to use, and inquired how the "normal" differs from the "usual," how "waking" life is differentiated from a "dream" and what are the motives and methods for discriminating between "real" and "illusory" experiences. If he had done this, he could have made clearer the very ambiguous notion of the "abnormal" which at present covers both that which departs from the standard of efficient functioning and that which over-passes the usual. It would also have added to the interest and value of the book if he had explained in detail the grounds for his dissent from the theories embodied in Myers's great work on "Human Personality."

An interesting work is the biography of the well-known German poet and scholar, Hermann Kurz, written by his daughter, Isolde Kurz, one of the most popular of living German authors, especially in the domain of fiction. The biography, just published by Georg Müller in Munich, is particularly valuable for the description of his private life and the severe material difficulties with which he had to contend even in the pursuit of an ultimately successful literary career.

It is commonly supposed that the English books republished by American houses some thirty or forty years ago were usually pirated. This was, in fact, too often the case, but the more honorable firms paid well for the property they took. Harpers, for instance, paid Dickens £1,000 for "A Tale of Two Cities," £1,250 for "Great Expectations," £1,000 for "Our Mutual Friend," £250 for "Little Dorrit," £360 for "Bleak House." To Thackeray they paid £150 for "The Newcomes," £100 for "Henry Esmond," £480 for "The Virginians," and £200 for the unfinished "Denis Duval." Some of the payments to Anthony Trollope are interesting. Thus, £25 went for "The Bertrams," £50 for "Castle Richmond," £50 for "Rachel Ray," £100 for "Phincas Finn," £50 for "Phineas Redux," £200 for "The Way We Live Now," £175 for "The Prime Minister," £100 for "The Life of Cicero," £200 each for "The Eustace Diamonds," "Orley Farm," "Lady Anna," and "Ralph, the Heir"; £250 for "The Golden Lion of Granpre," about £700 for "Sir Henry Hotspur," "Adam Bede" was published anonymously, and £20 was paid as an honorarium; for "Silas Marner," £100 was paid, and for "The Mill on the Floss" and "Felix Holt" the author received £300 each. The amount paid for "Middlemarch" was £1,200, and for "Daniel

Deronda" £1,700. The payments for Wilkie Collins's stories were large: £500 for "No Name," £360 for "The Woman in White"; "Man and Wife" and "The Moonstone," £750 each; "Poor Miss Finch," £600; "Law and the Lady," £500; "The New Magdalen," £588. Charles Reade's stories brought the author considerable sums: £200 for "Love Me Little," £500 for "Put Yourself in His Place," £200 for "Hard Cash," and nearly £1,000 for "A Woman Hater."

The recent sale in London of pre-Shaksperiau plays proved very successful. The total price realized for the seventeen lots was £2,602, or about \$13,000. Among the more important individual prices were: "Trial of Treasure," 1567—£160; "A Right Pithy, Pleasaunt and Merie Comedie Intytuled gammer Gurttons Needle," 1575, the very rare first edition of this the second English comedy—£180; George Wapull, "The Tyde Taryeth no Man," 1576, the rare and only edition—£176; "A Preaty Enterlude called Nice Wanton," 1560—£169; "An Enterlude of Welth and Helth," probably unique—£195; Thomas Preston, "A Lamcutable Tragedie, containing the Life of Cambises, King of Percia, (?) 1570, probably the first of the two editions printed without a date—£169; Thomas Ingelend, "The Desobedient Child," circa 1565—£233; "Thenterlude of Youth," printed by John Waley, no date, but probably 1557—£230; "A New Enterlude . . . entituled New Custome," printed by William How, no date—£155; and "A Newe Interlude of Impacyente Poverté," 1560—£150. It is understood several of these plays will find their way to the British Museum.

The Society of Authors of England now has £2,643 invested in funds, the income to be used for pensions. Within the year it has received a legacy of £50.

For some time past the financial troubles of Cambridge University, due largely to the shrinkage in value of rural real estate, have been growing more acute. Both Oxford and Cambridge have suffered from the popular delusion that they are rolling in wealth. The Cambridge University Library and several of the scientific schools have been badly crippled for years by the lack of funds. A few months ago an effort was begun to raise £150,000 for the perpetual endowment of the library, but of this amount less than £18,000 has been promised, and the prospect is not bright. Now the vice-chancellor, the librarian, and other authorities have issued an urgent appeal to old university men and others, for help in their time of need. Although the Cambridge Library is not so famous as the Bodleian, and far less imposing in its architecture, it is nevertheless one of the largest in the United Kingdom, contains nearly half a million volumes, and many priceless MSS. It certainly ought to be endowed with an income in some degree commensurate with its importance. As matters now stand it is impossible to increase or even maintain its efficiency, a condition which falls little short of a national humiliation.

In the twenty-one German universities the number of matriculated students during the present semester is 44,964, of whom 211 are women; there are also 2,381 male and 1,274 female hearers, making in all 48,-

619. In the last semester there were 42,390, and in the summer semester of 1905, 41,928 students, showing an increase respectively of 2,574 and 3,036. Berlin has the largest number of students, namely, 6,569; then come Munich, 5,734; Leipzig, 4,147; Bonn, 3,275; Freiburg, 2,350; Halle, 2,128; Göttingen, 1,925; Heidelberg, 1,922; Breslau, 1,920; Marburg, 1,717; Tübingen, 1,710; Münster, 1,454; Strassburg, 1,418; Jena, 1,362; Würzburg, 1,360; Kiel, 1,157; Giessen, 1,118; Königsberg, 1,080; Erlangen, 1,067; Griefswald, 890; Rostock, 661. The statistical records of the last thirty years show that the increase in the number of university students has been far more rapid than that of the population. In 1876 there were 16,799 university students; in 1886, 27,721; in 1896, 29,280, and in 1906, as already stated, there are 48,619. These figures prove that during this period of one generation the increase of students has been nearly three-fold and that of the population less than one-half.

Among the methods adopted in England to increase the interest in and knowledge of India is the presentation by the Royal Asiatic Society of a medal for the best essay on some Indian topic by a public school boy. This year it fell to a member of the sixth form at Rugby, whose subject was Hyder Ali. In presenting the medal John Morley, secretary of state for India, said that he did not think it quite accidental that the prize this year had fallen to Rugby, because he could not forget that of all the public schools Rugby was the first, under the admirable inspiration of Dr. Arnold, which taught history in the spirit in which it was pursued to-day. After commending the intelligence, promise of historical grasp, and aptitude in searching for historical parallels which the essay exhibited, he said that there was nothing more important in his opinion than the recognition of the extraordinarily perplexing problem in India. The only way to a solution was in acquiring a real knowledge of the thoughts, beliefs, social usages, conditions, and history of the Indian peoples. In the course of his speech he recalled an incident of his own schoolboy days at Cheltenham. History was taught then, but he did not remember that they ever wrote prize essays on history. He never did. But he did write what he wished should be a prize poem; it was not successful. However, the headmaster said: "I am glad you have composed this poem, because it shows all the elements of a sound prose style."

The successful ascent on June 18, as announced in a telegram to the King of Italy, dated from Uganda, of the lofty Ruwenzori by Prince Luigi, Duke of the Abruzzi, is another remarkable illustration of the value of preparation and of what might be termed boundless resource in the prosecution of certain forms of geographical research. It is true that not many efforts had heretofore been made on the great ice mountain of Central Africa, and the failures reported were in no wise discreditable to Alpinism; but what is apparent in the latest attempt, and that which stands out with marked significance, is the dispatch with which the work was accomplished. The journey thither and the ascent of the mountain took only a few weeks. The same dispatch marked the Duke's brilliant ascent of Mount St. Elias, Alas-

ka, in 1897; and the same direct, business-like method was applied two and three years later to the attack upon the Polar regions, when Capt. Cagni attained the "farthest north" in latitude 86 degrees 33 minutes north, surpassing by thirty miles Nansen's hard-fought effort with what by comparison seemed to be scarcely more than child's play. The lesson of the value of Alpinistic methods and of a sufficiency of good Alpine guides as they are recognized in Italy and Switzerland could not be more impressively taught.

—The second volume of Harry Alonzo Cushing's "Writings of Samuel Adams" (Putnams) covers the years 1770 to 1773. What strikes the reader is the large space devoted to newspaper writings attributed to Adams. The volume contains ninety-two pieces in all; of these forty-one are newspaper articles, twenty are reports or memorials prepared in committee, and thirty-one are private letters. The reports or memorials were presented by committees, of which Adams was a member, and it is to be presumed that they passed through more than one hand before taking the form in which they are now printed. Thus the language may be Adams's, though the matter was supplied by others. Mr. Cushing offers few intimations of the reasons for giving the authorship of these writings to Adams. Wells was notoriously partial to his subject, and took credit for Adams upon the flimsiest pretext. The mere presence of Adams upon a committee led to the assumption that he wrote the report; the employment of a signature in the newspaper, upon one occasion, was accepted as proof that all articles so signed came from his pen. Bancroft attributed the "Chatterer" and other series to Adams. Mr. Cushing mentions in confirmation some "apparently contemporaneous annotations" found in a file of the *Gazette*, once owned by Dorr; but he does not state what these annotations are, whether a direct attribution of authorship or a surmise on the part of the annotator. The first form of one of the "Vindex" series is in the Adams manuscripts in the Lenox Library, which induced Mr. Cushing to include thirteen "Vindex" pieces in this volume. In like manner a draft of a "Candidus," found in the same place, gives opportunity to reprint nineteen articles so signed. Hutchinson is hardly a safe witness where his dislikes were involved, and his belief that Adams was the author of two letters to Franklin and a State paper cannot be accepted as final in default of better evidence. In a few instances a note (and the notes of the editor are, as a rule, excellent) directs attention to other claimants to the authorship of these papers, but even the presence of a copy of a State paper in the Adams MSS. cannot be conclusive, as copies were freely taken of important documents by those interested. It would appear, therefore, as if the material which may be accepted as unquestionably by Adams, forms a small part of this volume, and is to be found in the letters, nearly all of which have appeared in print in other places. Mr. Cushing has followed Wells too closely, and has not made such a careful, critical study of the contributions to journals as to give his decision the requisite weight.

—Mrs. Zelia Nuttall, whose work as an Americanist has done much to advance our

knowledge of the ethnic relations and conditions of life of the aborigines of middle America, contributes to the publications of the University of California an interesting paper on the "Earliest Historical Relations between Mexico and Japan." Much of the material contained in this paper has been obtained from still inedited documents pertaining to the conquest and organization of the Spanish possessions in the New World, which form part of the Madrid publications, while the remainder has been drawn from the historical notes of Ortega, published in the City of Mexico in 1879, and the very recent writings of Señor Lera, the Mexican Minister Plenipotentiary to Japan and China. The first steps toward the establishment by Japan of official relations with New Spain seem to have been initiated by the "illustrious" Tokugawa Iyeyasu as far back as 1598, by the same ruler, therefore, who subsequently framed for his country the theory and condition of exclusion and isolation. In a communication addressed a few years later to the governor of Luzon, Iyeyasu promises the abrogation of piracy in Japanese waters in compensation for support in establishing direct trade relations between his country and New Spain, which at that time appears to have been one of Iyeyasu's chief desires. Within less than a quarter of a century from this time Iyemitsu issued his edict interdicting Christianity in Japan and ordering away all foreigners. Mrs. Nuttall finds that in 1610 twenty-three Japanese noblemen and merchants, forming part of an official or semi-official embassy, passed several months in the capital of New Spain, and that in 1613 this number had been increased to nearly two hundred. The indications of Asiatic influence in New Spain which have from time to time engaged the attention of ethnologists, are thought to be properly referable to this early Japanese influx. Mrs. Nuttall also attributes to the Japanese the introduction of the grass or palm-leaf raincoat, which is to-day worn by the Indians of the Pacific Coast of Mexico, and which is thought to be identical with the similar garment "used in Japan from time immemorial." But it should be remembered that a largely identical garment is common with the peasantry of southern Hungary and Rumania.

—After an interval of twenty years we are glad to see a second edition of John Chipman Gray's "The Rule against Perpetuities" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). A very modest preface states that about a hundred pages have been added to the text, and fifty to the appendix. The subject is too technical for the apprehension of the laity in general, yet there is no branch of legal learning less obnoxious to the reproach of irrationality or inconsistency. The author, who may fairly be said to be our modern master of it, likens the solution of its problems to those of questions in mathematics, which must, in the light of the axioms and corollaries proper to the Rule, be either right or wrong. The decisions under it are not among those which "might as well have been decided the other way." Leaving out questions of construction—for the question of what the Rule means is one of hermeneutics rather than of law—the discussion of the true application of the Rule against Remoteness (the alternative designation suggested by the

author) is a matter of severe logic and pure ratiocination. In the legislature-burdened community in which we New Yorkers live, the Rule does not exist, having been replaced two generations since by the statute making it necessary that future interests shall vest within "two lives." This statute, like the Statute of Frauds may be said to have produced far more trouble than its non-enactment could ever have possibly caused. Before the passage of the Revised Statutes—when the ordinary Rule was in force—there had been but one case relating to it. From the passage of the Revised Statutes down to 1886, when the first edition of this treatise was published, there had been one hundred and seventy cases; in the period since 1886 there have been some one hundred and sixty-six cases more. Such are the fruits of ill-considered law reform.

—A short time ago Drs. W. Amelung and H. Holtzinger contributed to the series called "Modern Cicerone" a volume in which the former described *Die Antiken-Sammlungen*, and the latter *Die Ruinen Roms*. This work has now been issued in an English translation, in two volumes, under the title "The Museums and Ruins of Rome" (Dutton), and Amelung has added three new chapters (on the Museo Barracco and the collections in the Villa Borghese and the Villa Papa Giulio), besides recasting many of his former descriptions and constructing a useful chronological index. The private collections of the city are not included in either description or index. Amelung is one of the very best living authorities on ancient sculpture, as all readers know who are familiar with his works on the antiques in Florence and on the Vatican sculptures; and this present volume will be an indispensable companion to students in the museums themselves, and for home study as well, resembling in this respect Helbig's well known guide. Amelung's knowledge and experience are broad and solid, his perception keen, and his writing vigorous yet pleasant. The translation represents him as worthily as perhaps any translation of a book of æsthetic as well as historic criticism could reproduce its original.

—Holtzinger's volume on the ruins is neither valueless nor unattractive, but is by no means of as commanding interest in its field as is its comrade. The author is evidently acquainted with recent work by both Italians and Germans, but writes as a student rather of architecture than of topography and history, and sometimes appears not to assimilate with ready discretion the conclusions of others. His book is not calculated to supersede a formal guide about the city of Rome, but might well accompany such a guide. The English translator, however, was apparently little acquainted with the subject, and not too well with the German language; and the supervision of the English reviser, Mrs. S. Arthur Strong, was apparently not extended over this volume. As a result, Holtzinger is made to say many wrong things of which a comparison with the German original shows that he is not guilty. See, for mere example (p. 1), "earth wall" for *Wallmauer* (p. 10), "slope of the Cacus" for *Aufgang des Cacus*, (p. 11) "next" for *zunächst*, "down to" for *noch in* (p. 14)

"in its old position" for *in der Anlage*, (p. 101) "water-citadel" (whatever that may be) for *Wasserkastell*, (p. 109) "paved floors" for *Fussbodenschmuck*, (p. 121) "one of the reliefs which contained his portrait" for *auf einem der Reliefs dessen Bildniss*. "Fourteen" (p. 12, of the shrines of the "Argæi"—sic) represents accurately the "14" of Holtzinger's text, but this was doubtless a misprint for 24. The very copious and excellent half-tone illustrations of the original are fairly reproduced in the translation, but have lost much of their primal brilliance.

The New Theatre Association of Chicago has organized a play competition. The piece selected will be produced in due season by the New Theatre Company. The conditions are (1) that the play must be an original drama, and not a translation, adaptation, or dramatization of any published work; (2) it must treat of modern American life, and be written by a citizen of the United States; (3) it must be substantially in a form for acting, and will be judged as an acting play; (4) it must be in three or four acts, without change of scene in any act, must not require over two and a half hours to play, and must not have over fifteen speaking characters. It must be submitted not later than December 1, 1906, to the New Theatre (Play Contest), No. 17 Van Buren Street, Chicago. Dramatists with rejected plays on hand will doubtless avail themselves of this invitation, but not much time has been allowed for new compositions. Nor are plays written in four months likely to be worth much.

The Chestnut Street Theatre, in Philadelphia, will have, after January 1, a stock company of its own, which will produce original plays, each of which will be presented for two weeks, by way of test. Six of these plays have already been selected. They are: "The Round-Up," by Edmund Day; "A Marriage of Reason," by Hartley Manners; "Goggles and Gasolene," adapted from the German; "The Energetic Mr. West," by Edgar Selwyn; a new farce by John J. McNally, and "Peaches," by George V. Hobart. After these plays have had their run, four original musical comedies and operas will be presented in succession. In this programme there is nothing to create much enthusiasm, so far as the plays themselves are concerned, but the establishment of a stock company upon something like sound old-fashioned principles is cause for congratulation. If the experiment is persisted in members of the company will enjoy in some measure the training and varied practice which is indispensable to the production of actors.

Comyns Carr's new play, "Tristram and Iseult," will be produced at the London Adelphi early in September. Oscar Asche will be King Mark and Miss Lily Brayton Iseult. To Matheson Lang has been assigned the character of Tristram, and there is some curiosity to see what this young actor, whose rise has been very rapid, will do with it. The cast will further include Miss Huton Briton as Arganthea, and Miss Gertrude Scott as Queen Oren, mother of Iseult. The play is in four acts. The first, on the coast of Cornwall, relates how Tristram was dispatched to Ireland by King Mark, ostensibly to be cured of his wound, but

really to meet his death for having slain Moraunt, son of King Gorman of Ireland. The second act takes place at the Irish court, outside of which the famous tournament is in progress. The third represents the deck of the ship on which Tristram has embarked, together with Iseult, and the fourth, divided into two scenes, reveals in the first instance a room in King Mark's castle, and in the second Iseult's bower in the forest.

Justin Huntly McCarthy has a rival. Edward St. John Brenon announces that he also has written a drama having Cæsar Borgia for its hero.

Bernard Shaw's play, "Cæsar and Cleopatra," in which Forbes Robertson is to be seen here in October, is in constant rehearsal in London under the direction of its author. Report says that, owing to certain difficulties revealed by rehearsal, it has been found advisable to cut out the third act altogether. Mr. Shaw generally arranges the construction of his play with a view to such contingencies. You could not cut an act out of one of Shakspeare's dramas without injuring it. In the case of Mr. Shaw's masterpieces, it is different. Herein may be found one of the many evidences of his superiority to the Swan of Avon.

London managers are reported to have come to the conclusion that the days of the variety shows offered to the public under the title of musical comedies are nearly ended. They think, in other words, that the patience of theatregoers has been exhausted at last by the impudent repetition of stale buffooneries under new names, and that some new form of entertainment must be devised to take its place. It is certain that nothing more worthless can be substituted, because the lowest depths of folly in this direction were sounded long ago. Any change, therefore, must necessarily be for the better. It does not follow, however, that it is likely to come at once, or even very soon. A single new success might alter the entire situation. But a good deal of money has been sunk lately in pieces of this description, and the promoters are growing tired of putting their hands into their pockets. Hoyt's compositions had a certain freshness and pertinency about them, although they were a pretty light foundation for the substantial fortune reared upon them, but there were no such redeeming features in the productions of his imitators, whose only aim seems to have been to excel each other in silliness, vulgarity, and extravagance. What must Shakspeare think—if his shade ever revisits the glimpses of our moon—of Seymour Hicks's proposal to make a "musical comedy" out of "As You Like it"?

A pretty severe dose of the most objectionable kind of modern French drama has been administered to Londoners lately, and some of the critics have summoned up courage enough to rebel against it, even at the risk of being sneered at by the devotees of the "advanced" drama for their methodistical and provincial turn of mind. Réjane has been playing "Le Rafale," in its entirety, and evidently with superb passion. She made a personal success, but clearly failed to convince all observers that the brilliancy of her acting was a sufficient justification of the object of it. She seems, however, to have extinguish-

ed all memory of Mrs. Patrick Campbell, who tried an expurgated version of the piece with indifferent success. Sardou's latest comedy, "La Piste," is less objectionable in character, and has the merit of being amusing, while "Le Rafale" certainly is not, but even this is marked by the old familiar taint, the old cynical assumption that impurity is the most natural and fitting subject of jest. The Sardou piece, however, is wholesome as new milk compared with "Le Passé" of George Porto Riche, in which Mlle. Brandès, the well-known actress of the Français, has been acting in London. As one London writer says: "It is really the worst kind, or almost the worst kind, of French yellow-back put upon the stage, and after seeing it one looks about for some sort of disinfectant for the soul."

Oscar Hammerstein has announced his intention of paying more attention to the spectacular ballet than it receives at the Metropolitan Opera House. Such ballets have enlisted the services of some of the great masters, especially in Russia, Austria, and France. Rubinstein might almost be said to be at his best in his ballets, and Tchaikovsky also wrote some master works in this line which every music-lover is eager to hear and see. London newspapers speak of a revival of the ballet in that city. Some time ago a variety theatre produced the "Coppélia" of Delibes, while another brought out Thomé's "Amour," both with so much success that the Opera Syndicate felt encouraged to revive Messager's twenty-year-old "Deux Pigeons."

Has Canada any national music? This question was put the other day by a representative of the London *Tribune* to Dr. Charles Harriss, "the most energetic and far-seeing of Canada's musicians." He replied:

Yes, decidedly we have; but you must go to the backwoodsmen, the logmen, the boatmen of our great rivers for it. There, indigenous among the older race of French settlers, you will find real folk-music. Sir A. Mackenzie thought he discovered traces of Scotch influence in it, but it is mainly French. Our present viceroy, Lord Grey, who interests himself with enthusiasm in all our artistic hopes, is at the head of a movement for the investigation of our folk-songs, and has himself arranged a water festival, which will presently be held, when representative singers from the backwoods are to chant their songs as they glide past the governor in their boats.

Dr. Harriss's career is a fine example of what a man of energy and ability can do in building up an interest in music. Twenty-four years ago he left England and went to Montreal, where he became organist of the Cathedral. He has composed music; he has taken an active part in the work of the Montreal Philharmonic; he has organized the musical department of McGill University; he helped in every possible way to foster musical education in his adopted country. In 1902 he began to extend his influence beyond Montreal by organizing a cycle of "peripatetic music festivals" held in the Canadian cities from Halifax on the Atlantic to Vancouver on the Pacific. English music alone was sung and played—the works of Parry, Stanford, Mackenzie, Sullivan, Cowen, German, Elgar, and the festivals were a great success. For the season of 1907-8 Dr. Harriss plans a similar festival, on a broader basis, so far as the

programmes are concerned, inasmuch as French music as well as British is to be performed; the French probably under the direction of Saint-Saëns.

The least popular of all varieties of the tonal art is chamber music. This is due partly to the limited range of the color scheme, which makes an orchestra so much more interesting than the usual string quartet. But probably the main reason is the stubborn conservatism of the writers of chamber music, who adhere to the tiresome and artificial old sonata form with a perseverance worthy of a better cause. While orchestral conductors have overtures and symphonic poems, and while pianists have short pieces innumerable to vary the symphonic or sonatal monotony, the chamber musician has to content himself with the unvarying cyclic piece in four movements.

England has a society called the Worshipful Company of Musicians, which, not long ago, offered a very generous prize for the best chamber music works of smaller dimensions and more free structure than the form which has heretofore been connected with this branch of the art. At a recent concert in London six examples of this new style of works, to which the name of Phantasies has been given, were played. To all of them prizes had been awarded. The first prize went to a "Phantasy in A," by the late W. Y. Hurlstone.

A German journalist in London suggests that "Parsifal" ought to be produced in that city, if only to demonstrate to the English that the stage is a worthy place for a quasi-religious work of art. He notes that when an opera by Massenet, in the last act of which an image of the Madonna comes to life, was produced at Covent Garden a few weeks ago, many left before that scene came on, while those who remained seemed afraid to applaud this act, thus showing what a low opinion they have of the stage. The renaissance of the English drama, he goes on to say, cannot be brought about until the advent of a Schiller to teach the British that the stage is not necessarily a degraded and degrading institution.

Leipzig is to have a new Bach monument, to be placed before the Thomaskirche, of which he was cantor twenty-seven years. It is to be made by Professor Seffner and will cost 50,000 marks, of which all but 2,000 is assured. The city contributes 30,000 marks.

THE FRENCH IN CANADA.

La Colonisation de la Nouvelle-France: Étude sur les Origines de la Nation Canadienne Française. Par Émile Salome, Professeur d'Histoire au Lycée Condorcet. Paris: E. Guilmoto.

Le Canada: Les Deux Races. Par André Siegfried. Paris: Armand Colin.

We were once told by Sir Adolphe Chapleau that, at the celebration of a silver wedding, he had sat down to dinner with a French Canadian mother and eighteen of her sons. Making allowance for the average infant mortality, this was an achievement well calculated to elicit fervent admiration from the dignitaries of both Church and State. Particularly in France, where a stationary population

gives cause for grave concern, are the pacific conquests of the French Canadian mother likely to call forth a tribute of praise. Nor is it matter of conjecture alone. During the past ten years French writers have devoted an amount of attention to the affairs of Canada which can be accounted for only by the fact that the growth of the French in America is becoming a source of pride to the economists and historians of Paris. The new attitude is defined with perfect clearness by M. Siegfried in the following passage, which is taken from his chapter on "Canada and France":

Though for a whole century we made the great mistake of forgetting almost completely these brothers who have become separated from us, we have fortunately abandoned such culpable indifference, and are now beginning to understand (late, it is true, but not too late), that, putting aside all regret for the inevitable, a noble possibility still lies before us: to aid this sister civilization, to profit by it in extending the field of our commercial activity, and, in a measure restricted but appreciable, to benefit by it in defending some of our political interests.

We have before us two excellent books, both of which owe their origin, one may be sure, to the fact already mentioned. "La race canadienne a pris racine" are the concluding words of M. Salone. "Il ne saurait d'abord nous être indifférent que près de deux millions de Français—plus de deux millions si l'on compte ceux de la Nouvelle-Angleterre—maintiennent fièrement en Amérique leur existence, leur langue et leur culture propre": such is the basal consideration of M. Siegfried. Both writers have approached their subject seriously, and paid French Canada the compliment of investigating before writing. As his title shows, M. Salone confines himself to the original settlement. M. Siegfried, on the contrary, devotes no portion of his space to the recital of the steps whereby the French in Canada have come to occupy their present position. Assuming that his reader is familiar with the essential features of the national history, he sets out to consider existing conditions. We have brought these volumes under a single title simply for the sake of emphasizing the degree of interest which France now takes in Canada. The phenomenon is relatively new and deserves some notice. Otherwise the books in question require the separate criticism which we shall now proceed to offer.

When an English writer sets out to describe the Old Régime in Canada, the reviewer's first instinct is to see how much has been pilfered from Parkman, and unfortunately in many cases the indebtedness amounts to more than the law allows. By way of contrast M. Salone goes forward with complete independence of his leading predecessor. Parkman's name is omitted from the bibliography which stands at the opening of the volume, while opposite Casgrain's 'Montcalm et Lévis' appears the note, "le livre définitif sur la guerre de Sept ans en Amérique." Neither in the body of the text nor in any of the abundant footnotes have we seen more than one allusion to a work which nine people out of ten in the United States and in the English part of the Dominion would immediately say was the chief contribution yet made to the historical literature of Canada. It cannot be imagined that Parkman's celeb-

rity is unknown to M. Salone. Two inferences remain. Either our author wishes to make his study represent a perfectly fresh scrutiny of the materials, or else he looks upon Parkman's works as negligible. We can easily understand that he should wish to reach his main conclusions unaffected by the views of any other writer, but why, having arranged his conclusions, he should not place them beside those of Parkman we cannot see. The French Canadian historians—Garneau, Faillon, Ferland, Casgrain, Chapais, Sulte—are referred to frequently, nor is there any disposition to pass over the contributions of Rochemonteix and Lorin. Parkman alone, and he, in our judgment, the most conspicuous writer on the Old Régime in Canada, seems systematically boycotted. On the one occasion when he is mentioned (p. 453) the allusion is but slight, and his name is misspelled.

We lay some stress upon a fact which has caught our attention and from its singularity occasions much surprise. Speaking more at large, M. Salone is under no obligation whatever to any English writer, but draws the bulk of his materials from the *Archives du Ministère des Colonies*, the archives of Quebec, the *Édits et Ordonnances*, the *Jugements du Conseil Souverain*, the reports of the Jesuits and Sulpicians, and other sources of a similar kind. These have been supplemented by a study of the leading monographs produced in France and in French Canada. M. Salone considers the problems of colonization as they appear through the course of French rule, and investigates with much thoroughness those features of the administrative system which can be made to elucidate the process of settlement. Beginning with a geographical account of the region occupied by the immigrants, he passes from period to period in the annals of New France until the final catastrophe is reached. On the topographical side the work is particularly valuable, and an immense amount of detail has been forced to yield definite conclusions regarding the state of the seigniories from their establishment until the Cession.

At one point less information is given than we might have wished. M. Salone is content to take over from Ferland, Faillon, and Rameau his analysis of the population according to origin. And even in stating Ferland's results he is not quite accurate. Thus, when speaking of the Norman group, he places it at almost one-half of the total according to Ferland's conclusions, but the figures upon which he bases this statement show the Norman element to have been barely more than 30 per cent. We could point out a number of loose statements, and a few distinct mistakes. In the former category may be placed the remark that about Montreal the snow disappears before the first of April, and the application of such a phrase as "vainqueur des Bostonnais" to the leader of a French and Indian raid. Among the larger errors is the remarkable piece of mistranslation which occurs just at the close of the volume. M. Salone, after stating that in 1763 the French race was so far rooted in Canada that it could not be dislodged by the conqueror, proceeds thus: Et voici l'aveu de découragement qui, dès 1767, échappe au général Carleton, le second gouverneur de Québec, le successeur immédiat de Murray: "Le dénouement in-

évitable, écrit-il à lord Shelburne, chose horrible à penser, c'est que ce pays devra à la fin être peuplé par la race canadienne, laquelle a déjà pris racine et atteint un si haut chiffre que toute autre serait entièrement perdue, sauf dans les villes de Québec et de Montréal."

Now the actual words of Carleton to Shelburne run as follows:

But while this severe climate and the poverty of the country discourage all but the natives, its healthfulness is such that these multiply daily, so that, barring a catastrophe shocking to think of, this country must to the end of time be peopled by the Canadian race, who already have taken such firm root and got to so great a height that any new stock transplanted will be totally hid and imperceptible amongst them, except in the Towns of Quebec and Montreal.

Obviously Carleton is not saying that the presence of the French is a catastrophe, but that, barring a catastrophe, they will always inhabit the valley of the St. Lawrence!

We do not present a complete catalogue of the slips we have observed, because the book as a whole is a good one and embraces a wealth of interesting detail regarding the circumstances which attended the settlement of the French in Canada. It is admirably written, and deserves to rank among the best historical monographs that have come to this side of the Atlantic from France.

In estimating M. Siegfried's study of contemporary problems in Canada, we must first state that the author is well fitted by birth, training, and intellectual temperament to write upon the complicated phenomena of Canadian life. A highly educated French Liberal, who has freed himself from the narrower prejudices of anti-clericalism, a traveller who is thoroughly familiar with English life and has already written an excellent book on New Zealand, a quick observer and a lucid writer, he enters the field with many advantages. Moreover, he shows both tact and fearlessness in his account of the Canadian temper. The political institutions of the country are not difficult to understand, and any clever youth could prepare an octavo upon them without once leaving the shades of the Bibliothèque Nationale. Such difficulties as arise, and they are many, may be traced to the peculiarities of the position occupied by the French in Canada. These, too, it is quite possible to apprehend in a purely intellectual fashion without once setting foot in the country. But nothing short of personal familiarity with the life which is led in the region of the Two Canadas can justify a European, whether French or English, in attempting to pronounce judgment upon the politics of the Dominion. M. Siegfried has lived in Canada long enough to know what the races think about each other, and to appreciate the paradoxes which arise, not only from the situation wherein the French Canadians have been placed by a strange chain of circumstances, but from the remarkable plight of the English—conquerors and a majority, but yet a majority that is unable to carry out a scheme of national education. M. Siegfried came to Canada and talked with all manner of men. Priests, as individuals, confessed to him their strong interest in contemporary France, while yet, as ecclesiastics, they were forced to declare anathema against her. He caught the echoes of the last

general election in Ontario, and can repeat the cry of Conservative election agents opposing Laurier with the argument, "Don't vote for that damn Frenchman." He has even found out the idiosyncrasies of the Protestant sects, which he touches off with much wit and a sufficient amount of truth. Matthew Arnold felt sure that he knew all about the dissenters of England and could distinguish a Methodist from a Baptist by talking with him five minutes about the weather. Whether M. Siegfried could make this boast about the Protestants of Canada, we shall not pretend to say; but he certainly has kept his eyes open. Where, for instance, is the Scotchman who would rebel against the following little hit: "L'intransigence des mœurs mise à part, les presbytériens deviennent les plus agréables des compagnons. Leur franchise cordiale et leur sens de l'hospitalité sont célébrés."

Possessing talent, objectivity, and a first-hand knowledge of his subject, M. Siegfried spares no pains to reach by careful analysis the essentials of Canadian life—on its political side. The Roman Church is so great a factor in politics that some account of its ecclesiastical position becomes necessary. The school question is so fundamental that conflicting types of instruction must be described. Otherwise, the interests of the volume are limited to issues which may be termed political in the narrower sense of the word. Racial and religious differences as furnishing the groundwork of party cleavage are placed in the front of the canvas, and involve an account of complications which are not purely local. For example, the attitude of the French Canadian Catholic towards the British Government centred in Downing Street is more cordial than his attitude towards the average English Canadian who walks the streets of Montreal or Toronto. The extreme loyalty of the Latin Church in Canada to Rome brings in another non-local element. The sentimental attachment (quite divorced from any wish of political union) which many of the French Canadians feel for the land of their origin, causes glances at times to be cast across the Atlantic, leads M. Louis Frechette to burst forth in verse when a French warship enters the St. Lawrence, and makes Sir W. Laurier show more real enthusiasm when in Paris than when in London. Thus an allusion to French versus English in Canada brings in not merely the mutual relations of the two races as Canadians, but suggests the outlook of each towards London, Paris, and Rome.

M. Siegfried recognizes this fact in all its bearings, and makes the arrangement of his book conform to it. He also sees how strongly the influence of the American continent in general and the activity of the United States in particular are likely to affect the ideals of both races in Canada. We do not imply that M. Siegfried is a political prophet who dogmatizes in favor of annexation or any other solution of a mixed predicament. His forecasts are so non-committal as to be merely a summarizing of conflicting factors, a simplification of the leading facts. But, looking to a future which is not remote, he sees the conquest of Canada by American manners, business methods, and intellectual outlook.

Whether the bishops will be successful in protecting their flocks from such an inroad, is a large and doubtful question. On the other hand, M. Siegfried can see how powerfully the English in Canada are reacting to this stimulus: "Je ne veux pas dire par là que le péril d'une annexion soit écarté. Il existe; mais, comme nous l'avons montré plus haut, n'est sous une forme autre que celle de la conquête militaire ou politique. Ce n'est pas la nation américaine qui menace la nation canadienne; c'est plutôt la civilisation américaine qui menace de supplanter au Canada la civilisation britannique."

While it would not be easy to improve upon M. Siegfried's minute and systematic account of the Catholic Church in Canada, and while his notice of the school question as a thorny point in legislation is likewise admirable, we have found special interest in observing his opinion of the Canadian attitude towards imperialism. This new force presents itself under two main aspects, economic and military. As for its economic side, it is quite allowable to speculate concerning the degree of willingness which the English-speaking manufacturer in Canada will eventually show in surrendering percentages of his protection for the benefit of his British competitor. Similarly, the final deliverance of the French Canadian upon the subject of military imperialism is fair matter for guesswork. Not, in the latter case, that one can doubt the natural unwillingness of the French Canadian to send money abroad for military purposes, but that the extent of his unwillingness has not yet been accurately gauged by experience. M. Siegfried does not look for any signal triumphs of the imperial spirit in trade relations until Great Britain shall have adopted a policy of protection—in other words, for a long time. As for military imperialism, he does not think that present indications point towards the establishment of centralization. "The Canadians, instead of imperializing the national services, think only of nationalizing the imperial services." From this dictum it is an easy inference that the military policy of Canada at the present moment inclines towards nationality rather than towards imperialism. M. Siegfried appreciates exactly the position of M. Henri Bourassa, whose speeches in the House of Commons and whose article in the *Monthly Review* have aroused much resentment among English imperialists in Canada. The imperial idea as linking Great Britain and her colonies has its roots in sentiment. Now the French Canadians are destitute of any sentimental attachment to the country that conquered them. They look upon the Quebec Act in the light of a treaty rather than of a law. In the language of M. Bourassa: "Notre fidélité à l'Angleterre ne peut et ne doit être qu'une affaire de raison."

Slips in this volume are few and not very important. On page 117, a printer's error gives a wrong date to Laval; on pages 17-18, a rather misleading allusion is made to the scope of the Jesuits' Estates Act; on page 113, we doubt whether M. Siegfried has got to the bottom of a celebrated resignation; and on page 74, there is a passage in which "Broad Church" appears instead of "Low Church." On the whole we have been impressed by the distinctness and ac-

curacy of M. Siegfried's knowledge no less than by his fairness and discernment. Goldwin Smith has written of Canada with more incisive pen. M. Siegfried does not aim at being incisive in the sense of being controversial. Aiming at the clear and impartial description of existing conditions, he has given us a book which yields to none in the literature of its subject for candor, acuteness, and grasp of the whole situation.

TWO RECENT NOVELS.

A Son of the People. By the Baroness Orczy. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1906.

In Cure of Her Soul. By Frederic Jesuo Stimson. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1906.

There are who find perpetual nourishment in the story of a forced marriage converted into a conjugal triumph. Usually the pair are really in love with each other all the time and do not know it. Sometimes the bourgeois husband is too considerate to express his sentiments to his aristocratic helpmeet until the last page. Nothing indeed equals the rudeness of the aristocrat except the elegance of the peasant. Again, it is a rough bear who begins by frightening the shrinking dame—never the well-seasoned reader—and ends by proving to her that his brutality was only a form of shyness. Neither of these examples quite covers the case of "A Son of the People," yet to lovers of the "won after marriage" school of fiction this novel may safely be commended. Of course, in all such stories the satisfactory untying is to be counted on, but in this one it comes with singularly little cause, except the nature of the novel. Perhaps that is enough. At all events, to accept the conclusion as it comes is to leave one the freer to note those traits of the book which separate it from its kind.

It is only secondarily a love story and primarily a Hungarian picture. "An absorbing, a passionate fondness for the lowlands, the wild mysterious plains of Hungary" inspires the writer and is happily conveyed to the reader. The far-away horizon trembling in the intense heat, the vision of a white city rising in the distance, the horse and his rider, make a canvas that lives to the eye and in the memory. The pendent pictures of village life and noblemen's entertainments are fairly splashed with color, ranging from gloomy to lurid. Where peasants' wives rejoice in the blows their husbands inflict, as proof of affection, it is not surprising to find peasant men burning their neighbors' crops as expression of their disapproval of modern machinery, or to find the nobles persecuting the Jews. A great primitiveness invests this life, shut out entirely from latter-day ideas or confronted by woe when it opens ever so little to let them in. Life is a satisfaction to the man who has flour, wine, a few sweethearts, and a horse; it is a rapture if he can also acquire a bit of land. Thinking and reading may be done for all the neighborhood by the good priest and the hero whose rugged strength and merry affability make him a leader of men. This really interesting book is hurt by wordiness and repetitions of good effects, yet not unto destruction.

Whether or not Mr. Stimson wrote his latest book keeping pace with a serial, it

has the faults which the serial form imposes. It covers far too wide ground, abstract and concrete, going on from interest to interest quite too much as life does, or a monthly call for copy. Instead of related groups of selected incidents, there are unrelated patches of unrestrained detail. Pinckney as a lawyer fighting railroad corporations is a sketch by himself. Pinckney as a student of sociology joining labor unions, arbitrating strikes, defying Trusts, is another. Pinckney pursuing grizzly bears, Pinckney promoting gigantic irrigation schemes, Pinckney the reformer politician, is exploited in each of his activities at excessive length. And there are still his love affairs to be considered: his marriage, his brief temptation, his Dantesque passion for his modern Beatrice of the settlement. These seem to leave no room for more, yet there is much more of both sketch and elaboration; of Rivington Street, of society, of Wall Street, of a sweet old Maryland garden, of Cambridge, Beverly, Newport, New York, Baltimore, Colorado, the Connecticut River, and of Taormina. Of these drawings the scenery is invariably attractive, the portraiture as a rule distinct. The society chapters, it seems, might very well have been Bowdlerized. To indicate the vices of a degenerate society without offence requires a tact and taste which if Mr. Stimson possesses he has not here chosen to display. We incline to think he has the qualifications, but that he has elected, no doubt from high motives, to make his picture gross rather than suggestive. His command of words, his ingenuity in epigram, his control over phrase, forbid the thought that he has said unintentionally anything that he has said; therefore it is with a misguided taste that he must be taxed.

The lessons of the book are mainly noble ones, developed with much generous interpretation of motive, much poetic breadth of vision. Particularly to be cherished, for example, are the views of the settlement girl upon the question of the work to be done for working girls by women. "The hardest thing I find? . . . To keep them from copying the wrong models—and to make them see the right ones. . . . They are not advertised. Work girls cannot imagine them; they have to meet them." "It is not so much the luxury, the comfort that the rich can really use, if only for themselves—it is the show of senseless possession. . . . We must get ideals—it comes back to that—we must learn not to be vulgar in our hearts." The triumph of duty is sung consistently, if too discursively, leading, to be sure, to no conventional "happiness ever after," but to things more important.

Leo Tolstoy: His Life and Work. Autobiographical Memoirs, Letters, and Biographical Material, Compiled by Paul Biriukoff, and Revised by Leo Tolstoy. Translated from the Russian. Volume I. Childhood and Early Manhood. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1906. \$1.50 net.

It was a happy thought to compile materials concerning the activity of such a personality as that of Count Tolstoy before death should render correction of errors difficult or impossible. For such a compila-

tion Mr. Biriukoff, whose adoring discipleship of, and close friendship with, Tolstoy has extended over more than twenty years, is, in some respect, well fitted. In fact, the banishment of Mr. Biriukoff from Russia, to which he alludes in his preface, was directly due to his ardent advocacy of some of his "Master's" theories, and attacks upon the established order. One can pardon somewhat his lack of literary skill, in view of his transparent honesty, and modest attitude toward his work as "material" for the use of more competent workers hereafter. Unhappily for future biographers who may resort to this material, Mr. Biriukoff has not always verified and correlated dates. For example, he says that Tolstoy's father and Tatiana Yergolsky "were born in the same year," but afterward he gives the dates two years apart. The references to certain persons are occasionally misleading. Countess A. A. Tolstoy (once or twice mentioned in full as Countess Alexandra Andreevna Tolstoy), herself a famous and important personage at court during three reigns, is sometimes called the great author's "aunt," sometimes "the friend of his youth," and sometimes she has no special designation. The uninitiated reader could not determine whether three women are alluded to or one, and what the real relationship is.

The autobiographical contributions to this volume possess the wonderfully vivid and appealing qualities with which we are already familiar in the author's works of fiction and personal record. His descriptions of scenery, of inward moods and motives, and of the characters and actions of the people about him are as fine as anything he has ever penned. As Tolstoy will, indubitably, figure extensively in many future as well as present lists of "books which have influenced me," the writings which influenced him at various stages of his career, are particularly interesting, and at times rather surprising. The self-questionings and strivings for perfection, the faith in its possibility, the extensive programme of reading for self-improvement, and the rules of conduct are also characteristic. "I have no modesty," he writes in his diary, during the Crimean war; and then proceeds to contradict himself by a self-drawn portrait which is about equally divided between pitiless truth, and misrepresentation which might lead astray any one not personally acquainted with him. It is at this time that he records the conception of an idea to found a new religion, which he attempted to carry out thirty years later with "What I Believe" and subsequent writings.

There are repeated evidences that as a writer Tolstoy not only never experienced the pain of "rejected addresses," but was from the first hailed by rival literary men as destined to be the greatest of all—which did not conduce to a low estimate of his own work and talents. His Diary contains the most convincing autobiographical material, because devoid of the rather strained and oppressive self-consciousness which characterizes the passages deliberately prepared for the biography.

The numerous illustrations, portraits of Tolstoy's ancestors, of himself at different ages, of his young wife, his house, his

village, etc., are all of interest, although some of them are not wholly unfamiliar to the public.

This work will be reviewed in greater detail when all the volumes are published.

George Douglas, Eighth Duke of Argyll (1823-1900). Autobiography and Memoirs. Edited by the Dowager Duchess of Argyll. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$10 net.

"What I admire in this," said Dr. Johnson, when, on tour to the Hebrides, he stood looking at the ancestral seat of the Dukes of Argyll, "is the total defiance of expense." The reviewer contemplating the almost equal pile of this biography—more than 1,200 pages—detects defiance of various things—order, proportion, neat finish, whether in parts or in the whole. The late Duke himself wrote some 700 pages of his autobiography, and in them he found room and verge enough for his *longueurs* and irrelevancies. Moreover, he could write deadly dull. This, for example, is the ducal way of making things simple:

When we speak of new scenes as making a great impression, we employ a familiar image taken from the effect produced on soft substances by the physical pressure of a seal, or by the contact of some other external substance, exercising an impressing force, and leaving a mould or cast of itself on a clay, or on wax, or some other recipient and yielding surface.

Too many such sleeping potions are offered the reader. When the Duke lets himself go on the intricacies of feudal land tenure in Scotland, or loses himself in the mazes of Scottish ecclesiasticism, or discourses on the land cess in India, his amplitude and dreariness are oppressive. This is the stranger because, in speeches and letters, the Duke of Argyll was often forcible by compression. He began writing this autobiography to occupy his old age; and seemingly fell a victim to that desire to leave nothing unsaid, which often possesses the garrulous veteran. Yet he remarks with fine unconsciousness that he was "never under any temptation to write for writing's sake, which is known as 'padding.'" And he records as if it were a great natural curiosity the fact that a presidential address of his at Glasgow put Whewell to sleep. It is not given to all Dukes to be aware of their fatal power.

The long career of the Duke of Argyll was filled with notable activities. Acceding to the title very young and unexpectedly—through a collateral branch of the family—he was of serious and energetic bent. Early called to a share in the Government, he was a member of several Cabinets, and played a considerable part as much in virtue of his hard work and sagacity as because of his rank. For years he was an enthusiastic follower of Gladstone, but broke with him on the land question and Home Rule; but their personal friendship remained unimpaired. Yet his chief distinction was as a controversial writer. He had considerable scientific attainments. From early life an eager naturalist, he had named all the birds, not always without a gun, and was practically skilled in geology. He read widely in science, too, and being, as he innocently observes, "inclined to question rather than to harbor doubt," he "took

most naturally to religion and theology." A good part of his fame was that of the man who had exposed the fallacies of evolution. As such his "Reign of Law" used to be re-preached from a thousand pulpits. But time has put that right. It was too much of a piece with other manifestations of the Duke's versatility—his painting, his making verses; amusing but evanescent. In general literature it does not appear that he had catholic tastes. He was a great admirer as well as personal friend of Tennyson. To Wordsworth also he was devoted: "even the ponderous pages of 'The Excursion' and 'The Prelude' have never, when I have had time to read them, ceased to throw over me a certain spell." A thorough Scot, contradictory, hair-splitting, voluble, fervid, we do not imagine that the Duke of Argyll would have led Coleridge to modify his dictum that "Scotchmen with a little literature I have generally found disagreeable."

During our civil war the Duke was an outspoken friend of the North. He perceived from the first that the struggle was one for national existence; and from the beginning he also contended that the war was about slavery, and would lead either to its extinction or its exaltation. For taking this position when a Minister of the Crown, he was long held in grateful remembrance by Americans. Praise and thanks came to him from Motley and Beecher and Longfellow and Whittier. The latter wrote him in 1871:

Hast thou never thought of making a visit to the United States? Our people would welcome thee as their friend in the great struggle for Union and liberty, and in our literary and philosophical circles thou wouldst find appreciative and admiring friends.

The Duke made a short tour in this country in 1879. Writing of it to Gladstone, he said: "I was delighted with all I saw in the New World, differing as it did in many ways from any expectation I had formed of it. . . . Longfellow was very well, and as charming as ever. I have always thought his countenance such a beautiful one. . . . I was made ill by the fearful heat in New York, where the thermometer was 100 in the shade during the two days I was in it." Of Mrs. Stowe the Duke saw a good deal, "when," to quote the original Argyll, "the unparalleled circulation of the book in England involved pecuniary transactions of corresponding magnitude, it became necessary for Mrs. Stowe to visit Europe." At first, he was disappointed in the "small and most inconspicuous woman," who would not pose or be oracular, but he soon conceived a great admiration for her. The Duchess of Sutherland gave a large reception to Mrs. Stowe, and "the tiny personality of the great writer was almost lost in the gilded and lofty surroundings of that beautiful room, whilst the magnificent figure of the hostess looked like some splendid bird of paradise mothering under her wings a little black chick." The Duke heard one of Emerson's lectures in London. "It was full of a dreamy beauty," but there was "no continuous thread of thought." "It was like the diffused perfume of Christian ethics, but without its doctrine, and therefore without its power." The whole Duke is in that "therefore."

Monographs, Garrick, Macready, Rachel, and Baron Stockmar. By Sir Theodore Martin, K.C.B., K.C.V.O. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1906. \$3.50 net.

These monographs are all reprints, with the exception of a few details added for the sake of completeness and finish. The "Garrick" was first published in 1868; the "Stockmar" in 1872, and the "Macready" in 1875, all in the *Quarterly Review*, while the "Rachel" was published in *Blackwood's Magazine* in 1882. The fact that they are to-day singularly fresh, authoritative, and fascinating is a sufficient proof of their innate excellence. Of the three theatrical studies, indeed, it is not too much to say that no student of dramatic history can afford to be without them. Sir Theodore Martin is a nonagenarian, who throughout his long and industrious life has been intimately and actively associated with the leaders in political, literary, artistic, and social affairs, and not only writes with the authority of personal knowledge, but with the force and judgment of the student and scholar, and the compact and fluent arrangement of the practised author. His facts are wisely selected and carefully substantiated, his opinions—never rhapsodical eulogies—are fortified by simple quotations from various and weighty sources, and his criticism, whether favorable or unfavorable, is acute, clear and unexaggerated.

Of course he has nothing new to tell about Garrick, Macready, or Rachel. Concerning all of them there is an immense bulk of contemporaneous or posthumous testimony, and all readers are familiar with the main details of their public life and private character. What he has done is to select from the mass of evidence such salient facts as furnish a vivid intellectual image of the individual. His essays are, as it were, the essence of all that the most competent witnesses have told. A word of warning is, however, necessary. In all his statements of fact, Sir Theodore may be trusted implicitly, and there can be no doubt that he is always, in intent at least, scrupulously fair, but in reading his final estimate of Macready it must not be forgotten that he was the husband of Helen Faucit, whose earlier stage experience was a good deal embittered by the famous tragedian's passionate, jealous, and egotistic temper. Also it should be remembered that in genius and character Helen Faucit was in almost every respect the opposite of Rachel, her rival in fame, and, therefore, probably, but little disposed to put a charitable construction upon the brilliant Frenchwoman's expressed impatience of the restraints of civilized society. It is not impossible that her husband sometimes saw with her eyes. As for the panegyric upon Stockmar, who by general admission was a man of extraordinary political ability and disinterestedness, it must be noted that Sir Theodore, when he wrote it, was practically the mouthpiece of Queen Victoria, who held the baron in the highest estimation.

To the study of Garrick Sir Theodore brought a mind free from all bias, complete information and a ripe judgment. In his youth he must have known men who belonged to the great actor's generation and could speak of his powers and conduct from personal observation. He was all the more likely, therefore, to form a just

appreciation of his subject, and it is pleasant to find this so entirely favorable. He is at especial pains to prove—and that, too, by strong evidence—that, so far from being niggardly and vain, Garrick was most generous in all deserving cases, and if fond of applause and somewhat eager to attract attention was, at all events, notably free from that particular form of vanity—with which Macready was so afflicted—that bears no rival near the throne. He never feared that his own brilliancy might be dimmed by that of his associates. The ablest performers of the time were grouped under his standard. Sir Theodore has a pertinent comment on this fact. "On the stage, as elsewhere, power kindles by contact with power; and to the great actor it is especially important that he secure himself, as far as he can, against being dragged down by the imbecility of those who share the stage with him." Regarding his managerial ability there is a suggestive passage in a letter written to him by Kitty Clive. She says: "There are people now upon the stage to whom you gave their consequence; they think themselves very great; now let them go on in their new parts, without their leading strings, and they will soon convince the world what their genius is." Garrick, doubtless, like many another great man, suffered much from envious detraction. Even Sarah Siddons was not ashamed to speak slightly of the manager who was among the first to discern her talents and incurred much ill-will by his eagerness to push her forward in spite of the indifference of the public. Sir Theodore Martin quotes many instances in which Garrick sought to help others to his own loss.

It required some courage to write about Macready, thirty years ago, with the frankness which Sir Theodore employed. Admirable actor as the former was in certain parts, and valuable as were his efforts as a stage reformer, he never was altogether worthy of the pinnacle upon which some of his eulogists would place him. His attitude toward his calling, and his associates in it, is only too well known even to those who have only read his own journals. Once he said publicly of acting that persons who could find any other occupation would not take to one in which they were entirely dependent upon the favor of the public. "It was an ungracious speech," says Sir Theodore, "considering that the public had been kind to him to the full measure of his deserts. But it had a farther and a deeper significance, because it showed that the speaker wanted the first element of greatness—a thorough faith in his art, as in itself worthy, without reference to the measure of popular appreciation or of money value." It is a bitter saying, and "pity 'tis, 'tis true." But after all, Macready, perhaps, was the proper object of pity rather than blame. Throughout his professional life he suffered tortures from the infirmities against which he struggled in vain.

Sir Theodore's sketch of Rachel is illuminative, attractive, vital, and convincing. In her case, as in Macready's, he does not have to depend upon the verdict of others. He saw her act in her prime and in her decay. His judgment of her is careful, analytical and doubtless just. In her interpretation of the fierce passions of classic tragedy, he holds, that she was, at her

best, supreme, incomparable; but the softer and more gracious attributes of feminine nature she could neither understand nor portray. Nor was she at all inspired by the spirit of comedy. Perhaps it was the coarse and wretched Bohemianism of her youth that prevented the development of purity and delicacy in her nature. Hers is one of the saddest of all stage stories, and Sir Theodore closes it very fittingly with a "Pauvre Rachel!"

The monograph on Stockmar is a fine bit of friendly appreciation, which, perhaps does not do much more than justice to the memory of an uncommonly shrewd, sagacious, and devoted man. Younger readers will be astonished to hear of the great hut silent part played in European history by this political dry nurse of princes. For those who already know something of the jealousies, anxieties, and suspicions of the early Victorian era, this little essay will not afford much information. But it is interesting reading, nevertheless, as is the whole book.

The Making of Modern Egypt. By Sir Auckland Colvin. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1906. \$4 net.

Sir Auckland Colvin was Comptroller-General in Egypt between 1880 and 1882, and Financial Adviser to the Khedive from 1882 to 1883; in describing the recent history, and happily of late the progress, of the Valley of the Nile, he therefore treats elaborately, though not exclusively, of the shifting financial situation. As the history is told by one who not only knew and had official intercourse with the principal actors—native and English—who have made modern Egypt, but also himself took part in some of the most eventful of the incidents, it carries authority. He was, for instance, an official in Egypt, when, after the crushing of the Arabi Rebellion, Lord Dufferin, the British Ambassador at Constantinople, was sent to Egypt, to report on the utter demoralization of the land, and to suggest remedies; which, in his ignorance, he bravely did. One of the practical questions he had to solve was the disposal of the arch-rebel Arabi and his principal co-partners, whose army "had vanished like a puff of smoke" before Lord Wolseley's advance, but who themselves remained as troublesome realities. The simplest solution would have been to cut off their heads in proper Oriental fashion, and this would probably have been the disposal made of them, had not the generous, warm-hearted Lord Dufferin appeared on the scene while the farce of the trial was in progress. He accepted the confession by the rebels of guilt in exchange for banishment to Ceylon. The incident, in its motives and effects, has been the subject of much contradictory comment ever since, and therefore the opinion of one of the prominent officials in Egypt at the time is worth noting. Sir Auckland Colvin remarks:

It was not to be gainsaid, on the one hand, that, if the Khedive held the rebels in his power, it was due to no merits of his Government, but to the exertions of British troops. . . . But for British intervention, the prisoners and their friends would have thrown the whole house of Muhammad Ali, hag and haggage, into the Red Sea. The Khedive could not be allowed, under benefit of the intervention of

a civilized Power, to make himself arbiter of their fate. It was for the Power that had subdued them to punish them. All this was unanswerable, and public opinion in Great Britain, flushed even by success over an Egyptian army, was disposed to show itself generous. Vanity was flattered by an occasion for the display of magnanimity; for magnanimity, like charity, may be indulged in without cost, if exercised at the expense of a third party.

There came the rub. The third party was the Khedive. The cost of British clemency had to be met by Tewfik Pasha, and the eclipse of the Khedive's authority was the measure of that cost. The British had landed in Egypt not to destroy the authority of the Khedive, but to restore it, and to retire. But, had they wished to destroy it, and to make prolonged occupation of Egypt necessary, they could have adopted no more effective means than by remitting the death sentence on rebellious officers in arms. In the autocratic East, the degree of submission to the ruler depends on the public estimate of his power, and this again depends on the free and unfettered use which he is seen to make of it. If the Khedive might not punish condignly the very head and front of offenders, his authority fell to the ground; nor could all the Queen's horses nor all the Queen's men raise it up again. The authority of the Khedive might still be maintained, as to the day of Tewfik's death and as under his successor it has been maintained, by foreign bayonets. But foreign bayonets must be kept in Egypt to support it. However sincere, therefore, the British Cabinet may have been in the expression of its wish to withdraw its troops from Egypt at the earliest opportunity, it is not he wondered at if the foreign colonies in Egypt, and the Governments to which they were subject—still less if the Khedive himself—regarded the clemency shown to the rebels as based upon the methods of Machiavelli. It was generally believed in Egypt that, though it might be the declared wish of the British to retire when the Khedive's power was restored, they had adopted, curiously enough, the one course calculated to prevent the restoration of his power.

A Liberal Government, led by Mr. Gladstone, after bombarding Alexandria and occupying the country, spurned the idea of governing Egypt as a tributary province under a resident, and yet brought about this same result, more drastically, by appointing as Consul-General and adviser to the Khedive, in 1883, Sir Evelyn Baring. He had spent three years in Egypt under the rule of Tewfik, as Major Baring, and now returned to grow in rank and influence till as Lord Cromer he has become in reality, though not in name, joint ruler of Greater Egypt as far south as the Equator. Just as the English army of occupation was about to withdraw in fulfillment of England's pledge the revolt of the Mahdi and the Gordon tragedy, and the advance of the Dervishes on Egypt, obliged England to call a halt. Thereupon followed the tedious campaign against the Mahdi, conducted over a railroad which was built for military purposes, but which has since been the most efficient agent for completing the peaceful conquest of the Sudan.

All this is related with much amplitude of statistics, and with the unimpassioned fairness and exactitude of an accountant. But occasionally there are hits of sparkling descriptions which relieve the tediousness of the narrative, as when Sir Auckland touches off in the following paragraph the salient features of the character and behavior of the English and French colleagues.

Keen of wit, incisive of tongue, choleric

of disposition, sensitive as children, kindly as women, the Frenchman was the very opposite of the phlegmatic, imperturbable Briton. . . . Which of the pair did the most useful work it was not always easy to say, but the paces and showy movement of the Frenchmen were effective. They were never seen on the tennis court, nor in the saddle; nor did field sports attract them. Constant and often heated discussion with one or other was their relaxation; the black official portfolio their symbol; the frockcoat their habitual garb. There must have been something abhorrent to their passion for correctness in the negligent costume, the slack disregard of formality, the indifference to the outward and visible signs of office, which in Egypt, as elsewhere, distinguish Englishmen. But difference of temperament and of training seemed to draw together, rather than to repel. To their honor, be it said, the French sought to do their duty as conscientiously by the country which employed them, and by the colleagues who worked with them, as though their portion had been in France and their colleagues of their own nation.

On the whole, the hook, despite the many romantic phases of the subject, is not exciting reading, but it supplies the safest guide to those who may wish to study one of the most interesting and far-reaching series of events which have occurred in our own time. It is an excellent supplement to Lord Milner's "England in Egypt," written after he had resigned the under-secretaryship for finance in that country. His fascinating hook, published in 1892, balances hope against despair. Speaking of the financial situation then, in the last paragraph, he says:

Of course it may be contended that, though financially the enterprise costs us nothing, Great Britain has not the strength to carry through the regeneration of Egypt consistently with the fulfilment of other and prior duties. To such arguments, if they can be established, all reasonable people would be prepared to listen, including, I hope, the present writer, who has now said his last word on this thorny subject, and whose constant aim has been to state the Egyptian Question temperately—recognizing, to the full, all the difficulties of our position, honestly admitting all its weaknesses. But in the absence of such arguments—and they are not yet forthcoming—the case for Perseverance holds the field.

Colvin's hook shows how perseverance, practised by honest financiers and an able administrator, has conquered.

Five Years a Dragoon. By Percival G. Lowe. Kansas City: The Franklin Hudson Publishing Co.

Soldiers' autohographies, seldom interesting to strangers, and more rarely of value to any one, have been common enough since 1865. But the experience of an intelligent regular before the civil war now appears for the first time. In "Five Years a Dragoon" Mr. Lowe embodies ten years of military life, five in the mounted ranks, and five as a high-grade quartermaster's employee, in active service on the great plains, beginning in 1850. The story was well worth waiting for, for besides its interest as "a human document," as the phrase goes, it is the history of a past never to be repeated, and full of peril and of an excitement that closely approaches romance. It is an enlisted man's supplement to Marcy's account as an officer. It describes from the inside that life of frequent storm and stress of which Parkman caught glimpses along "The Oregon Trail." There is nowhere a formal

record of how the rough and often dissipated recruits were transformed into iron soldiery, who held positions or died in their tracks with no other thought than that of duty. No drill-book teaches the art. But the careful reader sees here that the officers, who were also gentlemen, encouraged the worthy, controlled the unruly, administered justice, and enforced obedience with an impartial and relentless hand, and solely for the public good, thus establishing a standard to which each in his own grade was insensibly drawn. Lost to the popular eye in the hordes of volunteers, the little army thus created was more than "a stone wall"; it was from end to end a *corps d'élite* that never had, and doubtless never will have, popular recognition of its service in the dark and stormy days of the rebellion. Ravaged by hostile fire, impossible to be recruited under the counter inducements for volunteers, it was frayed into nothingness before Appomattox was reached, and its reconstruction became a weary and difficult task.

Mr. Lowe's relation is a new proof that "the Captain and the First Sergeant make the company." In later days he would have been commissioned long before his enlistment had expired. Many a man with less military aptitude, merely because he had carried a rifle, has become a company officer, to say nothing of filling higher places. The wisdom of that policy is another question.

In these pages men afterward very famous, then young and unknown, cross the path. Cuvier Grover, Simon Buckner, Robert Williams, Eugene Carr, J. E. B. Stuart, John Buford, all subalterns who later became generals of renown, and others of greater rank, as Sedgwick, Harney, Sumner, Van Vliet, Fitz-John Porter, Albert Sidney Johnston, were building character by the inconspicuous discharge of routine duty often interspersed with peril and loaded with responsibility. Charged with practical hints about savages and civilians, mules and wagon trains, troop horses and troopers, this is an important contribution to a phase of American history, the opening of the great plains, whose intelligent record is so inconsiderable. There are occasional errors in proper names, and there is no pretence at literary style; but it is a good book. We make note of it not as essential literature, but as the truthful and unadorned story of a man who in a most modest sphere rendered valuable public service. Every collection of Americana should open for it, and many a library besides.

The Development of Palestine Exploration.

By Frederick Jones Bliss, Ph.D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50 net.

Both by nature and by art Dr. Bliss is equipped to speak with authority and sympathy on the subject of Syrian and Palestinian exploration. He is a quasi-Syrian, son of one president of the Syrian Protestant college at Beirut and brother of another; and he has spent much of his life in Palestine and its immediate vicinity. For about ten years, from 1890 to 1900, he was in the employ of the Palestine Exploration Fund, directing excavations at Lachish, Jerusalem, Gath, Maresha, and else-

where, and he is the author of various volumes published by the Palestine Exploration Fund recounting these excavations. Before this he had already become known by his investigation of a curious survival of the Syrian language at Ma'lula and by other papers of interest to Semitic and Oriental scholars. It was natural and fitting that his *alma mater*, Union Theological Seminary, should select him to deliver the Ely Lectures in 1903, and that he should select as his subject the theme of Palestinian exploration.

The literature of Palestinian travel and exploration is enormous. Röhrich, in his "Bibliotheca Geographica Palæstina," counts 3,515 names of writers on the Holy Land between 333 and 1878 A. D.; and if one add to this the references for the preceding and succeeding periods, the total number of entries will approximate if not exceed 3,600. The latter years especially have witnessed a most minute search of archives and libraries for any manuscripts or works dealing with Palestine. Röhrich himself has been engaged in the publication of German pilgrimages, and several pilgrim narratives have lately been printed in the quarterly of the Deutscher Palæstina-Verein. Connected with the English Palestine Exploration Fund there is also a pilgrim publication account, while in France the Société de l'Orient Latin is engaged in the collection and publication of similar texts. Dr. Bliss has selected only the more important and characteristic publications from various periods. Precisely how many are referred to in this volume one can tell only by actual count, since there is no special index for that purpose. He has endeavored to arrange them in such a way as to show some sort of a development, but it must be frankly said that, except for the latter time, there is no real development in the series.

The first chapter deals with the topographical and geographical references of the Old Testament, the notices of Palestine in Egyptian and Assyrian literature, in Greek and Roman historians and geographers, including Josephus, and in the Talmud. Then we pass on to the age of pilgrimage, which carries us down beyond the Christian period and up to the close of the eleventh century; and after that to the Crusades, for which period Dr. Bliss has confined himself to Christian writers, to the exclusion of the Arabic sources. With the Dominican monk, Felix Fabre, toward the end of the fifteenth century, begins a sort of pre-modern period, which extends in Dr. Bliss's scheme to the year 1838. Here we have an odd miscellany of ignorant pilgrim narratives and archæological, botanical, meteorological, and, in general, scientific writings, none of which are of importance to-day, except as showing the general conditions of the country at that period and the Christian attitude of mind toward the Holy Land. The real exploration of Palestine begins with the American, Dr. Robinson, and indeed it is astonishing how large a part Americans have played in the exploration of Palestine in proportion to the material means at the disposal of the explorers. It was the United States which, through Lieut. Lynch, gave us the first scientific exploration of the Jordan and the Dead Sea. It was an American, Thomson, who first stirred the interest of

Bible students the world over in the manners and life of the present inhabitants of Palestine and Syria as illustrative of Bible times and Bible customs; and it was Dr. Bliss, an American in the employ of an English society, who first conducted systematic excavations in Palestine.

It was becoming that, in lectures delivered at the Union Theological Seminary, in which Edward Robinson was so long a professor, Dr. Bliss should lay special stress on his importance in the history of Palestinian exploration; but he has no whit exaggerated that importance, nor was one lecture devoted to the subject of Robinson too much. It is astonishing what that man accomplished in the five months which covered his two journeys in Palestine in 1838 and 1852; and his account of those journeys is still a classic for the student of Palestinian geography and history. While deeply imbued with the religious spirit, Robinson broke loose from the trammels of tradition and applied scientific methods to the determination of localities. Simple as his method seems to us of to-day, it was a revelation at the time. His work aroused enormous interest in England and Germany, as well as in America, one result of which was the formation of the Palestine Exploration Fund, with its short-lived sister in this country, and a little later the Deutscher Palæstina Verein. These permanent organizations, especially the English Palestine Exploration Fund, have mapped practically the whole country, collected folklore and local traditions, and, from the study of topographical notices in the Bible and elsewhere, in connection with modern traditions and local place-names, identified by far the larger part of the Biblical sites. Latterly, they have begun systematic excavations. Out of this work, also, have been developed the French, American, and German (to mention them in their chronological order) schools for archæological and Biblical research and instruction established in Jerusalem itself.

One of the singular episodes of Palestinian exploration, to which Dr. Bliss devotes a chapter, is the expedition of the French Government under Renan, who conducted excavations on the Phœnician coast. This expedition was coincident with the French intervention in the Lebanon, occasioned by the Druse massacres in 1860, and the French fleet and French soldiers were placed at the disposal of the explorer. No explorer had greater opportunities than Renan, but, with all his ability in other directions, he had not the gifts or the training requisite for archæological exploration, and one can only say that, in view of the opportunities at his disposal, the *Expédition de Phénicie* was not a success. Far more important to the world at large was the impetus which this expedition and the opportunity of visiting the Holy Land gave to Renan's Biblical studies. Without it the world would never have known his "Vie de Jésus," which, whatever else may be said of it, is one of the most wonderful pictures of the scenery of Galilee ever painted, and one of the most sympathetic studies of the man Jesus ever written.

In his final chapter, Dr. Bliss speaks of the exploration of the future, but with no very great definiteness. Commenting on the Turkish law of antiquities, he says:

"Petty and illicit excavation is easy, while scientific excavation on a large scale is hampered by the tedious but necessary process of obtaining a permit." It might have been added that the law and its maladministration combined have discouraged and almost prevented scientific exploration; and in the meantime incalculable injury has been done through all Palestine by the indiscriminate opening of graves by the natives and the ransacking of supposed ancient sites to procure objects for sale to antiquity dealers and tourists. Dr. Bliss is most cautious in his prophecy as to the probable results of future excavations. He expects "a continuation in the future of the experiences of the past—a gradual aggregation of small things from which large inferences may be drawn, rather than some sudden and startling revelation on a grand scale"; but he admits that the surprises of the past have been of such a character that, in view of the very small amount of scientific excavation conducted in Palestine, it is impossible to forecast what the results of such excavation will be when sites of importance shall have been excavated.

This little volume is not a general account of explorations and discoveries in Palestine, with a summing up of results attained and a discussion of methods to be employed, but rather a partial bibliography of Palestinian exploration, with more or less extended comment—a sort of *catalogue raisonné*. It is extremely difficult to make a catalogue interesting, and it seems to us a matter of regret that Dr. Bliss did not prefer a more pictorial presentation of results, either choosing one or two representative writers from each period and letting them tell their story, or telling it for them in his own words, or else giving us such a summary of the writings of each period as should enable us to see what was the condition of the country at successive epochs. As it is, his work is neither a complete bibliography, with such notes as will enable a student to select what he wants for study, nor, on the other hand, is it a narrative of exploration. It falls midway between.

Some Ethical Gains through Legislation.

By Florence Kelley, General Secretary of the National Consumers' League. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.25 net.

As a summary of what has already been accomplished in certain lines of social betterment, and a helpful guide toward promising avenues of fruitful effort in the future, we have seen nothing superior to Miss Kelley's well-written volume, the latest addition to the "Citizen's Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology." Miss Kelley's preparation for treating such a subject has been direct and practical. As special agent for the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois, she made a thorough investigation of the needle-trades in the tenements of Chicago, in 1892. Subsequently, she held for four years the position of chief inspector of factories of Illinois. She was in charge of the Chicago division of the investigation of "the Slums of Great Cities" conducted by the United States Department of Labor, and for years she has been steadily engaged in "settlement work," first as a resident of Hull House in Chicago, and af-

terwards at the Nurses' Settlement in New York. To her work in all these relations she has brought not merely unflinching energy and an ardent desire to do good, but the less common virtues of trained intelligence and cool judgment as well.

Her most interesting chapters take up what she has well called "the right to childhood." If the functions of mature life are forced upon the child, through any cause whatever, the normal development which should attend this plastic period is impossible; and not only is the child robbed of its birthright to the full use of all its faculties, but society itself is poorer by the loss of what those faculties might have achieved, even if the child does not finally become a positive burden by proving incapable of self-support. The child is *ipso facto* incapable of appreciating the significance of childhood and maintaining its rights therein. The impossibility of depending upon parents to solve the problem is shown by the very fact that the problem exists. Philanthropic interest *applied directly* touches only individual cases. The State, through its general legislative power, is the one agent which can enter the field with any hope of success, and its sufficient warrant for doing so lies in its admitted guardianship of the health and good order of the community, and in its ultimate dependence for its own life and usefulness upon the production of the highest possible average of morals and intelligence in its citizens.

Miss Kelley shows that great progress has already been made in forbidding the employment of young children in labor sure to be detrimental to their development; New York and Illinois taking a decided lead in this work. She brings out clearly and conclusively the baselessness of the supposition, sometimes put forward through honest ignorance of the facts, but perhaps oftener the hypocritical claim of parties financially interested in the perpetuation of child labor, that such prohibition will bring suffering upon dependent parents and relatives, or lack of proper food and clothing to the children themselves. That the earnings of children sometimes go to just such ends is of course true, but investigation has shown that the cases are far more numerous in which the fact of these earnings has been made the basis for a life of idleness and vice on the part of able-bodied men and women. In any case, however, will a self-respecting people, once fully alive to the facts, consent that the burden of maintaining others incapable of self-support should be thrown upon mere children? Miss Kelley hails with great pleasure the growing tendency to put legal restraint upon the employment of young boys and girls in street occupations, such as the selling of newspapers, flowers, etc., and the telegraph and messenger service. Society can well afford, she thinks, to take care of all cases of real destitution supposed to be relieved by such employment, rather than to face the future cost of the crime and pauperism sure to be engendered by subjecting little boys and girls to the immoral influences inseparable from it. She cites two striking answers to the question, what is to become of boys and girls when suddenly thrown out of remunerative occupation by restrictive laws such as she advocates. When child labor was driven by law from the

glassworks of Millville, N. J., a new school house had to be erected immediately to provide for the increased attendance; and the similar law passed by Illinois in 1893 forced the building of one new school house and the opening of an old one long out of use, by driving child labor from the Alton glassworks, previously one of the worst centres of all the evils inherent in the employment of children in manufacturing industries. In some States there has been a tendency to couple such legislation with exceptions in case of the children of widows, or other classes based upon some such plausible peculiarity; but investigation shows that the exception works more hardships than it averts, since it always sacrifices the interests of the child, and by no means always relieves real destitution. An indirect gain of this legislation, not thought of when it was originally proposed, is its restrictive effect on immigration. It has caused an already perceptible shrinkage in the stream of "half-grown, illiterate children brought into the congested manufacturing centres by sordid relatives for the express purpose of crowding into factories and sweatshops."

Compulsory education laws are, of course, to be classed with direct restrictions on child employment, each demanding the supplement of the other in order to work the desired effect. Miss Kelley lays down as the minimum requirement for an effective child-labor law that it should prohibit the employment of all children under fourteen years, of all under sixteen who do not measure at least sixty inches in height and weigh eighty pounds; of all under sixteen who cannot read fluently and write legibly simple sentences in the English language, of all under sixteen between the hours of 7 P. M. and 7 A. M., or longer than eight hours in any twenty-four, or longer than forty-eight hours in any week, and of all under sixteen in any occupation dangerous to life, limb, health, or morals. Of course, such danger is sometimes hard to prove in court; but the steady efforts of philanthropists like Miss Kelley are gradually bringing about a state of public feeling, under the influence of which such doubts will be resolved in the interest of the life, limb, health, or morals of the child, rather than the financial interest of the would-be employer. Effective legislation, she continues, must require the child who accepts employment to satisfy a competent officer that it is in good health, that it does not fall within any of the prohibitions before enumerated, and that it has attended school a full school year during the twelve months immediately preceding. The law must also put upon the parent the obligation of keeping the child in school, and of furnishing to the constituted authorities, before the child accepts employment, adequate evidence as to its age and schooling. For the employer, too, she lays down a list of requirements, very carefully thought out, and so brief, clear, and comprehensive that one is tempted to find in this passage itself the strongest possible support of her argument elsewhere, that women should be admitted to direct participation in the processes of government.

Her second general topic she entitles "the right to leisure." All legislation limiting the hours of labor without reference to age or sex, of course, falls under this

head. She is an earnest advocate of the eight-hour system, believing that the limit is not low enough to impair the efficiency of labor, and that such a limit tends to produce steadier employment, and to enhance the moral and physical well-being of the laborer. To the argument that this and other such legislation impair the right of free contract on the part of the laborer, her answer is that this alleged right is a delusion, because the laborer, from the nature of the case, cannot meet the employer on equal terms, and will often feel obliged to consent to hours or other conditions entirely repugnant to his own judgment and feeling rather than run the risk of being thrown out of employment. He does not thank society, then, for refusing to create for him a legal right to a certain amount of leisure, enforceable without bringing him into conflict with his employer, and thus endangering his tenure of his job, on the plea that this would infringe upon a right of which he finds himself unable to make any satisfactory use in any case of conflict. Doubtless questions will arise here in the minds of many who can follow Miss Kelley without hesitation in all that she advocates for the legislative protection of children, since children have neither the power to help themselves nor the maturity of judgment to recognize many of the most serious injuries which may be inflicted upon them. Her facts and arguments, however, are such as no student of the problems involved can afford to neglect.

The New Earth. By W. S. Harwood. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1906. \$1.75 net.

This short title on the cover is a little too sensational for so useful a book. It does not matter whether the name was meant to catch the eye of those who have in mind the Scriptural association of the new heavens and the new earth, or the smaller class, belonging to the Tolstoy school, who have considered chiefly a new ownership of our present earth. The book has a far more modest aim than to attempt the task of revealing these mysteries, namely, "a recital of the triumphs of modern agriculture in America." It would not bring harm to any of the theologians or reformers to study this recital of triumphs, for even the most pessimistic would come to feel that sure steps are now being taken towards making this a better world.

The volume has a certain scrappiness here and there, as if the chapters had first been used in magazines, but, on the whole, it is consistent and compact. Probably, too, if a second edition is called for, some of the "fine writing" may be advantageously toned down; but the whole movement is brisk from start to finish and the pages are readable throughout. The author has a happy knack of selecting from the solid mass of agricultural statistics the striking facts which would, in a yellow journal, make uncommonly good "scare" headlines. For instance: "The particles in a single cubic foot of average farm-soil for general use, usually roundish in shape, expose to the roots of plants an area of surface three acres in extent. To show

how very small these particles are, it should be noted that fully one-half of the cubic foot of soil is air-space, so that if it were not for the air it would contain twice as many particles." Again: "One investigator, noting the size of the bacteria that appear in milk, says that if they could be increased to the size of baseballs, and a man should be increased in the same proportion, he would stand over fifty miles high." All of which is true. Now, out of the immense accumulations of data in modern agriculture the author has chosen such facts as these and put them in a novel form.

Mr. Harwood begins by contrasting the old farming, cheerless in most of its aspects and crushed by depressing mortgages, with the well-stocked acres belonging to modern scientific agriculture, its books, its music, and the balance in the bank. "The period of the New Earth is more than a renaissance, a revival; it is an era of creation, the most remarkable in history." Under the heading, the "Brain of the Earth," the author deals with the composition and physical properties of soils, as introductory to "Soil-inoculation" by bacteria. Having disposed of the subject of a new soil for plants, he passes naturally to new plants to fit the soil. Here he takes up the matters connected with the breeding of seeds to produce better plants, and he gives a very good synopsis of the most remarkable achievements in this direction, especially as far as horticultural and agricultural varieties are concerned. Chapters follow on modern forestry and modern dairying, in which the layman will find many surprises. The results obtained by laboratory study of bacteria in milk and the utilization of certain forms in the making of butter and cheese are lightly touched upon, but the grand aggregate is amazing to all who have not kept up with recent progress in this work.

The chapter on animal husbandry is carefully, not to say very cautiously, written. And this may well be:

Perhaps in no other line of modern life has there been displayed during this period so much selfishness and so great a determination on the part of unfair capital to take advantage of the necessities of the people; and yet those who provide the supply for the demand, however greatly misused they have been, have not allowed this selfishness to prevent them from advancing.

After this comes an interesting section devoted to the reclamation of the desert lands of the Far Southwest by irrigation and by the introduction of nutritive plants from other climates. Finally, the author discusses the food supply of the world and the benefits of cooperative industry. He shows the importance of the work now, in hand by the Department of Agriculture and its associated experiment-stations, and one can say that there is no exaggeration in the astonishing assertions. Until one examines the whole ground carefully, it is impossible to see why the Department of Agriculture annually comes before Congress as a solicitant of favors; it has the right to demand adequate support. This support it does not have, because its work often runs counter to the organized selfishness of innumerable constituencies. Formerly it was the fashion to ridicule the work of the Agricultural Department as being largely library-farming, and per-

haps parts of the earlier reports were fair game for the humorists of that day. That day has passed. Doctrinaires have been mostly displaced by practical men, who are accomplishing great results. But where they meet the resistance of entrenched selfishness, as has been and is the case in certain forest reservations and in certain *uncertain* foods, it is an uphill fight. Not unfrequently, those who are disturbed by the Department, attempt to make use of the old weapon of ridicule. A perusal of Mr. Harwood's book will show how unjust this ridicule is. The reader will be obliged to admit that the triumphs of American agriculture, during the last few years, have been many and most gratifying, and that a large share of this success is due to the original work in our Department of Agriculture and to its skilful appropriation, with due credit, of work in the same fields of thought throughout the scientific world.

Carlyle and Goethe. By Otto Baumgarten. New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Few critics who have sought to trace German influence in foreign thought and literature have been on safer ground than Baumgarten, who ascribes much of the Scot's greatness directly to the example and influence of the German immortal, although he sees in the two men of genius the most contradictory types: "Goethe, the clear eye, the bright, sunny look, the susceptibility for cosmos, objectiveness and æsthetic pleasure in Nature, the harmonic moulding of his life as a work of art; Carlyle, the gloomy, veiled eye, the dark glance into the black pits of life, the wrought-out spleen, the violent separation from the wide world, the narrowing to that which to subjectiveness appears heroic, the complete sacrifice of all æsthetic points of view to the ethical, the discordance of his personal as well as his married life." That Goethe stood for a *Mustermann* to Carlyle, the latter's own works have made known: we think of Carlyle doing much to introduce Goethe in England, and of Emerson, leaning on Carlyle, composing his "Goethe, or the Writer," one of the best estimates of the Weimar Olympian ever penned in English. It is not so generally known that a considerable correspondence took place between Carlyle and Goethe, and that an early edition of Carlyle's "Schiller," issued while Goethe still lived, contains an introduction in German from Goethe, and several letters in German between the two authors. Whether this new presentation of Carlyle is pushed too far is likely, at this late day, to be variously regarded, less according to scholarship than to bias of nationality. Baumgarten, taking Froude severely to task for what he believes is an incomplete and partial portraiture of Carlyle, finds more than an ordinary touch of two great souls; to him Carlyle is a pupil of Goethe, turning away from an overdose of Schiller in his youth, absorbing Goethe's *Persönlichkeitsideal*, celebrating Luther, Frederick the Great, and Bismarck as its embodiment, and preaching to his countrymen the wisdom of giving sober thought to their spiritual relation to the Germans. Goethe was to Carlyle even more than Jane Welsh; in his struggles for a *Weltan-*

schaung he found in Goethe his rock and fortress; it was Goethe who led him to the "Eternal Yes." The life-work of Goethe became reflected in Carlyle; "in 'Wilhelm Meister,' especially, Carlyle found a mirror which revealed to him the ground-lines of his own genius"; 'Sartor Resartus' is but an after-effect of Goethean influence; Carlyle's 'Hero Worship' arose from a study of Goethe's ideals as expressed in particular in "Faust"; and in Carlyle's sociological and religious ideas there is astonishing agreement with those of the Spinozan poet. What Baumgarten does not find is the least influence of Carlyle on Goethe!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.
Ball, W. W. Rouse. Trinity College, Cambridge. Dutton 75 cents net.
Bell, Mrs. Arthur G. Picturesque Brittany. Dutton \$3.50 net.
Carmichael, Montgomery. The Life of John William Walsh. Dutton. \$1.50 net.
Chapman and Shirley's The Tragodie of Chabot. Edited by Ezra Lehman. University of Pennsylvania.
Conyngton, Mary. How to Help. The Rowland Press.
Deland, Margaret. The Awakening of Helena Ritchie. Harpers. \$1.50.
Early Western Travels. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Vol. 2: Maximilian's Travels in North America. Cleveland, O.: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Goodrick, John T. The Life of General Hugh Mercer. Neale Publishing Co. \$1.50.
"Gramme." The Money of the Future. The Peck Press.
Henshaw, Julia W. Mountain Wild Flowers of America. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$2 net.
Hillern's Höher als die Kirche. Edited by Clarence W. Eastman. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.

Irwin, Will. The City that Was. B. W. Huebner. 50 cents net.
Johnson, Claude Ellsworth. The Training of Boys' Voices. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. 75 cents.
Jones, Chester Lloyd. The Consular Service of the United States. University of Pennsylvania.
Lajonquière, E. Luner de. Le Slam et les Slamols. Paris: Armand Collin.
Lendrum, Robert A. An Outline of Christian Truth. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark.
Levy, Oscar. The Revival of Aristocracy. Translated by Leonard A. Magnus. London: Prohchain & Co.
Martin, Sir Theodore. Monographs: Garrick, Macready, Rachel, and Baron Stockmar. Dutton. \$3.50 net.
Miles, Eustace. Essays in the Making. Dutton. \$1 net.
Pierce, James O. Studies in Constitutional History. Minneapolis: The H. W. Wilson Co.
Platonis Opera. Tomus I, Fasc. I. Oxford Press.
Santayana, George. Sonnets and other Verses. Duffield & Co.
Sauter, Edwin. The Poisoners. Published by the author.
Skrifter utgifna af Kungl. Humanistiska Vetensk.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 26, 1906.

The Week.

"Great Father in Heaven," was Speaker Cannon's pious exclamation when, after the conference at Oyster Bay on Monday, he denied that there was any thought of considering tariff revision. The Republicans have decided, then, not only to "stand pat" on the record of the Roosevelt Administration and of Congress, but also on the tariff. From one point of view, this policy is wise; for the most partisan Democrat must admit that Congress accomplished a great deal. On the other hand, the stump-speakers will have hard work to confine themselves wholly to the past and make no promises for the future. This proposed programme of looking backward will have a chilling effect in Massachusetts and in other places where Republicans are uneasy over tariff iniquities. If the Opposition seizes this opportunity to talk about the things concerning which the Republican leaders wish to remain silent, this latest capitulation to the protected interests will make votes for Democratic Congressmen. People are beginning to feel that brute resistance to change has been carried too far; and that "revision by the friends of the tariff" is an idle phrase.

The political programme of the American Federation of Labor, published this week, cannot make the Republicans very happy. They will watch with great uneasiness the progress of the Federation's opposition to the several Republican Congressmen who figure upon its blacklist. Many Republican leaders would, of course, like to speak out frankly, to point out, for instance, the impudence of Samuel Gompers and his associates in assuming to speak in the name of American labor when they represent but one-tenth of the workmen of the country. These Republicans dare not, for they are aware of the weaknesses in their armor. The party which, through its tariff, favors the trusts and is putting hundreds of thousands of dollars into the pockets of the manufacturers it protects, would look foolish indeed in protesting against labor bills on the ground that they are special class legislation. What is needed is a party which will administer the government in the interest of the whole nation, and not of any one set or class. From such an organization the Federation of Labor would have to listen to the plain truth. As it is, influenced by the Parliamentary success of the English labor men, it now

seeks to become a great political power. There is already grave question in England whether the Labor delegation in Parliament can hold together; here the uncharted seas upon which Mr. Gompers and his fellows have set sail are even more difficult to navigate.

Secretary Shaw has handled the Panama Canal loan with much adroitness. When the loan was first authorized, many persons feared that the restrictions would endanger its success. The bonds were to bear only 2 per cent. interest; yet they must be sold at or above par. In view of the strain to which investment capital was being repeatedly subjected, and the much lower prices at which securities of other Governments were being taken, it did not appear easy to satisfy both requirements of the law. The succession of British issues for the Transvaal war during 1900, 1901, and 1902, broke the price of consols from 114 to 86, yet British consols pay 2½ per cent. The offsetting fact, in the case of our own Government bonds, was the artificial demand through compulsory use of them by national banks as security for note circulation and public deposits. But even the banks have not always been eager buyers unless the price were an inducement. Furthermore, there remained the question whether the currency might not hereafter become so glutted with new money as to discourage bank circulation, and whether disappearance of the Government's surplus revenue might not cut down the deposit of Government funds in bank. It was, moreover, evident that individuals were unlikely to bid for an investment bringing an annual return of 1½ to 2 per cent. In order to procure abundant bank subscriptions, the Treasury had, first, to show the banks the necessity of taking the new bonds, in order to enlarge circulation or get increased public deposits, and, second, to assure them that public deposits would be extended. The first purpose Mr. Shaw effected by transferring Government funds to interior banks. These institutions, in order to qualify as depositories, sent to New York to buy United States bonds, and swept the market practically bare of such securities. Then the Secretary announced that one-third of the money paid by any national bank, in subscription for the new loan, would be left in that bank as a public deposit. As a result of these tactics, the entire loan of \$30,000,000 was covered by bids ranging between 103.63 and 104.36. This achievement stands quite by itself among recent operations in public finance; and it is not less noteworthy in the face of a dull and distrustful market.

Less attention seems to be given to the Pan-American Congress, which began its sessions in Rio de Janeiro Monday, than to its predecessors in Washington and Mexico City. This is partly because the first fears and hopes in connection with these conferences have proved groundless. There has been no league of American nations against Europe, as was vaguely dreaded at the first Congress, fifteen years ago. Nor, on the other hand, has there been that marked improvement of commercial and diplomatic relations which generous spirits hoped for. Thus the work and scope of the Congress have come to be discounted as pretty surely perfunctory. Still, Secretary Root may be able to accomplish something. He is eminently a man of business, and it will be interesting to see how he fares with the expansiveness, the politeness, the flowery speech, yet the indefiniteness and dilatoriness of the delegates from Spanish America. In one respect, Mr. Root's long voyage can scarcely fail of result. Both at Rio and in his further travels he will have an inviting opportunity to express the good will of the United States towards the countries to the south of us, and also our desire to secure their good will in return. This policy is known to be near the Secretary's heart, and he should be able to further it while away.

Secretary Root's plan for shifting our secretaries of embassy and legation from time to time will commend itself to all save a few of those secretaries who have "soft" berths. That the diplomatic service will profit thereby is obvious; the wider the experience, the greater the usefulness of the official. There will still remain at the various legations the permanent clerical staff, conversant with the local methods of procedure and formalities, to act as advisers when new secretaries arrive, just as in the past. Moreover, the shifting of diplomats, besides increasing their versatility, invariably results in adding to their linguistic attainments. While French is still the diplomatic language, the representative who speaks the tongue of the country to which he is assigned is, in Europe at least, in a much more favorable situation than one who does not. To this change as to the others there must be the corollary of permanent service under the Government. Well qualified men can be found to endure tedious exile if they can be certain that, after giving years to the country's service, they will not be flung aside for no reason whatever.

The Philippine Government is hopeful again; it has succeeded, thanks to a

skilful subordinate, in bringing about the surrender of the leading "ladrones" in Luzon. Incidentally, it appears for the first time that these "ladrones" were unique among thieves, in that they had formed a political organization, styled the Government of the Filipino Republic, with a president and vice-president, generals, etc. Until this surrender, the public had no idea so many formidable robbers were in the field. Even after this achievement, however, peace is not yet established in Luzon, for "Felipe Salvador and his fanatical followers" are still outstanding. In Cebu all the remaining outlaws have been brought in, together with their guns. But in Samar the attitude of the Pulajanes promises more trouble. A correspondent of the *Army and Navy Journal* says that the problem of suppressing these outlaws, without punishing the innocent, "is a puzzle not easily solved, and up to the present has baffled the most careful and deep-thinking men." The topography of the island makes it almost impossible for the troops to run the offenders down, as there are no roads, few trails, while the tall cogon grass enables the pursued to hide with the greatest ease. The Twenty-first Infantry, which is stationed there, is kept in the field steadily, but as yet with slight results. The peaceful inhabitants of the towns are represented as suffering terribly from the raids of these Pulajanes, who mutilate and torture right and left.

If justification were still required of the laws reforming insurance passed by the last Legislature, it could be found in the present condition of the insurance business and the attitude of the big companies. The figures of the 1905 report of the New York State Superintendent of Insurance, just published, show that the decrease in insurance written was no less than \$151,724,854, the various companies falling behind their previous year's record by 83,376 policies. There were also 76,934 more policies terminated in 1905 than in 1904, which proves that thousands of men and women were content to pocket losses rather than remain connected with companies whose management was under suspicion. In such a juncture the gravest problem is to restore public confidence. For this purpose the provision of the statute entitling every policyholder of a year's standing to vote directly for trustees, is wise and salutary. The only question is whether the policyholders will actually succeed in exercising that power. The New York Life, as we have noted, has shown some realization of the situation by nominating a ticket that at least commands respect. The management of the Mutual, however, seems incurably obtuse or worse. If through defects in its list of policy-

holders filed at Albany, or through other tricks, the Peabody administration, with the backing of H. H. Rogers, thwarts the action of the policyholders, people will continue to desert it for more conservative companies.

Russell Sage had been, for more than a generation, a target of ridicule from the whole country. If he had any aspirations beyond money-getting, he did not show them to the world; any virtue beyond thrift, he did not practise it before the eyes of men. He even failed to enlist sympathy by succumbing to redeeming vices. To most people his name meant nothing but a hand to grasp and a safe to hold. Possibly he did not deserve so much opprobrium; perhaps in some corner of his heart he kept a place for generous dreams and hopes. He may have had visions of splendid charities—schools, museums, libraries, and hospitals, founded by his millions and perpetuating his name for grateful posterity. But though he had it in his power to make the visions realities within his lifetime, he never for an instant loosened his clutch on his dollars. We must form our opinions of him on the facts as they appear. Every village has its keen money-lender, ready to screw the last cent from his neighbors, on mortgage or note. Russell Sage was this village skin-flint writ large. He operated in the market of the continent; but the magnitude of the enterprises in which he shared did not expand his soul or quicken his sense of responsibility to the community. From the individual in his grip he relentlessly exacted the pound of flesh; and he never made even a pretence of reparation in the form of public benefactions. He wanted money; he got it; he kept it. It may be well then that by a rough justice he was made the victim of squib and cartoon; for he was far from the type of an ideal citizen.

The University of Virginia has issued a statement of its growth which will delight its alumni and all interested in seeing education prosper south of Mason and Dixon's line. Primarily, its productive endowment has recently been increased forty-eight per cent., and the annual grant from the State of Virginia fifty per cent. The total available income has risen from \$161,978.49 in 1904-05 to \$196,539 in 1906-07, and a very considerable increase may be looked for in the near future, as the Jefferson Memorial Endowment Fund, begun in March, 1905, has passed the \$850,000 mark, and will shortly be completed by the addition of \$150,000 more. The teaching staff has been doubled since 1900 by the addition of nine professors, one associate professor, eight adjunct professors, and thirty-one assis-

tants and instructors. The faculty now numbers ninety-six. In 1906-07 four new professors—of economics, chemistry, pathology, and physiology—will assume their chairs. Since the fee for Virginia academic students has been reduced, the university should have a much larger attendance. The new university commons will provide board at reasonable rates, and may in time become a Memorial Hall similar to Harvard's. Meanwhile, the graduate schools are being steadily enlarged, particularly the medical department, while the law school has just graduated the largest class in its history. In the engineering department the enrolment has grown from fifty-eight to one hundred and eighteen in three years, and the teaching force from thirteen to twenty-three. Thirty-seven States and Territories and five foreign countries were represented by the seven hundred and twenty-eight students registered in all departments of the university this year—the largest number in its history.

One of the best proofs that Yankee ingenuity is something more than an empty boast is found in the accounts which are often published of the formation of companies for out-of-the-way and novel purposes. No longer is it necessary to go to the sewing machine or the Bell telephone, or even the shoe eyelet, for inspiring examples of modest industrial projects that have brought wealth. Consider the Missouri corn-cob. At the recent convention of the Grain Dealers' National Association there were exhibited specimens of a new variety of corn, grown especially for its cobs. This represented the final stage in the development of an interesting minor industry. When an ingenious Missourian conceived the idea of supplying the whole country with cob-pipes, such as the farmers sometimes made for themselves, the corn-cob had no commercial value in the world, except as an inferior sort of fuel. Now the census gravely lists the Missouri corn-cobs—those elsewhere are still considered valueless—as worth annually \$16,550. Cob-pipes were originally made from ordinary ears, but scientific agriculture set about the production of larger cobs, just the opposite of the requirement for the corn itself. The cob is alleged to have been trebled in diameter, and some Missouri farmers are said to realize now nearly as much for the cobs as the kernels. Whatever else may be said of such odd industries as this, it is an excellent thing that so many ingenious and energetic men who might be "playing the stock market" or "pushing" patent medicines and the like, are eagerly trying to make money in ways which, if successful, will add both to their wealth and that of the world.

Alfred Beit evidently sought with Cecil Rhodes to establish the principle that South African millionaires, whether residents or absentees, shall return to that continent a large portion of the wealth they have drawn from it. In the originality of his testament, however, Mr. Beit has surpassed his old friend. This, so far as we are aware, is the first time that any one has sought to endow a railway. Revolutionary as the procedure is, it is admittedly attractive. If this plan had been adopted in the United States from the earliest days of railroading, we should have escaped some of our most trying political problems. A sufficiently endowed railroad would have no trouble about rates, for it could carry everything free or at merely nominal charges. Large shippers would neither demand nor receive rebates, and division superintendents would have no temptation to secure sudden wealth by misuse of official position. Mr. Bryan, we are sure, would withdraw his proposal of ownership by individual States in favor of the endowed railroad; there would be no more angry stockholders to pacify; no more Stock Exchange battles for the control; and the Federal Government could devote itself wholly to the task of restoring foreign confidence in our canned meats. Altogether, the world owes thanks to Mr. Beit, for showing our multi-millionaires a new way to dispose of their surplus.

German losses during the two and a half years' campaign in Southwest Africa are now known exactly from the official statistics. Altogether, 2,342 persons have perished from disease or bullets. The army proper has lost 2,120 men killed and wounded. One thousand soldiers have returned to Germany as invalids, and an equal number is still in the field hospitals. As the troops comprise not much over 15,000 men, this means that for every fifteen soldiers one is disabled by disease. Sixty-three officers and civilian officials, 102 non-commissioned officers, and 462 privates have fallen in battle. Of the 798 wounded, only 40 succumbed to their injuries, which is thought to reflect great credit upon the medical officers. The deaths by disease, 603, prove, however, that Japanese standards are by no means attained. Meanwhile, the losses steadily continue, although the collapse of the rebellion has been announced as often as our conquest of Samar. All Germany is thoroughly sick of the war, the scandals of which are proportionately greater than ours after the war with Spain. Even the army at home is disgusted; and since many time-expired men are left at the front because of the lack of proper transportation, the popular grumbling increases daily, particu-

larly when the taxpayers study the length of the bill they have got to foot.

The *pénétration pacifique* of Morocco by the French continues steadily. In Tangier almost all the shops are in French hands and have French signs. Besides the Comité du Maroc, there are four similar associations, most of which receive aid from the French Government in their efforts at the peaceful conquest of the country. The French language is taught in Moorish and Jewish schools; German and English are seldom heard. The Jews, most of whom speak Spanish, find it easy to master the allied language of France; those Arabs who have dealings with foreigners generally know some French, occasionally a little English. In Tangier there are published daily newspapers in French, Spanish, and Arabic; and a French monthly devoted to music. The Sherif of Wasan, a sort of Mohammedan pope, whose influence extends over all of North Africa, is under French protection, and wears the legion of honor. The ports of Morocco are touched regularly by six French lines, while German steamers call much less frequently and at longer intervals. A correspondent of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* declares, in view of all these facts, that it is only a question of time when Morocco will become a French colony. He does not say "alas," for he is quite willing to let the French "burn their fingers" there. A few decades hence Germany may, he thinks, succeed France in a peaceful way, although he fails to explain how. For the present, the German programme is for Morocco to become "an international colony under the suzerainty of the Sultan, with absolutely open door."

The energy and intelligence of the Japanese are demonstrated afresh by the official statistics just published of ten years of Japanese rule in Formosa. Eleven years ago the coast was infested by pirates, while outlaws and aboriginal tribes made the interior dangerous. The Japanese established their civil government in March, 1896, but did not until 1901 complete the subjugation of the island. In 1896, there were 4,638 Japanese officials, but in 1904, 12,501; the Japanese population increased from 10,584 to 53,365 in the same period. The revenue has increased from \$1,313,330 in 1896-97 to \$11,166,557 in 1904-05. While the railroad mileage is now 230 miles instead of 60, with a passenger traffic of a million and a half, as against a quarter of a million, the freight traffic has grown from 23,337 tons to 350,431. The telephone and telegraph systems are gradually being extended, and the mails are far larger than in 1894. Mean-

while, the educational system has been developed, so that there are now 14 schools for Japanese with 2,552 pupils, and 153 schools for 23,346 native scholars. In addition, a medical school for natives has made a promising beginning. Foreign trade, except with Japan, has hardly varied during the decade. The exports and imports to Japan about balance each other, and are worth together about \$9,500,000. Gold, coal, and sulphur are being mined in greater quantities, and the increase in live stock is very marked. This record of Oriental dealing with Oriental has its lessons for occidental nations which are endeavoring to develop their possessions in the East.

What shall be the attitude of the press of a country in war time? This is a question which is agitating the journalists of England almost as if a war were in sight. A recent conference, called by the Newspaper Society, agreed that legislation should be obtained from Parliament. The editors granted the necessity of some kind of control, were patriotic enough to see that in a national emergency the country is first and the private interests of the press subordinate, and admitted without qualification the value of the Japanese policy of complete secrecy. As to details, however, there is still a considerable difference between the English journalist and the Japanese. Arthur F. Walter of the *London Times* hoped that "the responsible and somewhat invidious office of press censor will never be committed to any man who is not amply qualified by ability, tact, and judgment to discharge it." Here Mr. Walter put his finger on the weakness of a system of censorship. The average military censor is apt to be a bureaucrat, or a soldier without the slightest knowledge of the newspaper business. His training inclines him to be arbitrary and over-cautious, apt to suppress information to which the country rightly is entitled. Hence, there will never be a wholly satisfactory censorship in nations in which public opinion rules. Generals Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, and others have declared that if they had their way no correspondents would be allowed with the armies. Yet Lincoln was ever anxious that correspondents should furnish accurate and full news of what was going on at the front. Only in this way could he retain the support and confidence of the masses—particularly in the hours of darkness and defeat. Object as the military may, in a country with popular government there must always be published plenty of news and gossip. The people are accustomed to it, and will obtain it, for they are the real government.

THE DUMA AND THE CZAR.

It was fearfully irregular for the English Prime Minister to exclaim, "Vive la Duma," in London, on Monday, but, as even his Conservative critics concede, he was only saying "what is in all our hearts." That is really the significance of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's indiscreet cry. He is a great parliamentarian. He is steeped in the methods of popular representation. Hence it could not but be a shock and grief to him to hear of a parliament forcibly dispersed by an autocrat. And he will not be greatly blamed for consulting his feelings rather than his prudence. All that he really did was to give utterance to a sentiment as wide at present as free government. All civilized nations are watching Russia intently. As between the Duma and the Czar—representing government and autocracy—the hopes and fears of Christendom are all with the former. Sir Henry was the impetuous spokesman of millions.

Even the Russian reactionaries who finally screwed up the courage of the weak Nicholas to the sticking point, are aware that the general opinion of the world is strongly against them. Hence their haste in protesting that they do not really intend the destruction of the Duma. There is to be another one. The Czar "firmly" abides by his "unshakable" determination to grant Russia a Constitution and a Legislature. But the protests of members of the present Duma indicate how little such promises are worth. The policy of the Czar, they point out with great force, must be to obtain "a pliable, subservient Parliament"; while if he succeeds in putting down the popular movement, he "will convoke no Parliament at all." Hence the instant need of such a proclamation as the Duma has issued, defying the autocracy, and calling upon the people to agitate and organize and assert their right to rule themselves.

The issue between the Duma and the Czar may be looked at in a narrow, technical way, or broadly. Strictly speaking, Nicholas had a right to dissolve the Duma. That was reserved to him in clause 3 of section i. of the Constitution. But in providing that "the Duma can be dissolved by the Czar before the expiration of five years"—the term of office of its members—such violent action as we have just seen, even if narrowly legal, was not warranted by the natural meaning of the words. On the other hand, the Duma may also point to the letter of the law as justification for its threat to declare invalid any loans that the Government may make without its consent. The Constitution explicitly extended the "competence" of the Duma to "the departmental, ministerial, and national budgets." This, to be sure, is not so

clear an assertion of the power of the purse as the Commons of England made against Charles I., though the technical argument for it would be good. But the contest has gone beyond the actual script of the documents to the inherent merits of the case. What we have, on the one side, is an autocracy setting itself up again as supreme; on the other, popular representation insisting upon its rights. As an alternative to the impending collapse and anarchy, of which the Marshals of Nobility warned the Czar last summer, he chose the Duma; now, in dispersing it, he virtually challenges a repetition of that industrial paralysis and social chaos which forced from him the promise of a Constitution. If the people say that they have no other weapon but resistance, it is the Czar who has forced it into their hands.

The Czar has, it is clear, staked everything on the army. He expects resentment. He looks for riots. Even armed resistance here and there he must count upon, but if the army obeys orders, he can make a desolation and call it peace. Thus the loyalty of the troops may prove to be the critical factor in the whole struggle. On that point we have not much light. So far as it reaches, however, it makes the prospect for the military autocrats highly dubious. When the soldiers were still in Manchuria, they often manifested a spirit of mutiny. There were many cases of refusal to obey orders, and of officers being shot by their own men. But this, Gen. Treppoff has explained, was due solely to the fact that the officers were not on good terms, personally, with the troops. He declares that not a single instance of insubordination occurred in the cavalry, where better conditions prevailed. However that may be, we have already considerable evidence that the army does not consider itself a machine apart from the nation. A letter from non-commissioned officers in South Russia was published in St. Petersburg Monday, saying:

The time is very near when the Government will find that the army is not on its side. The army is not the same since that sad war. We know now for whom we are bearing all the misery and ignorance in which we exist. Let the Ministers of War, Justice, and the Interior know that we soldiers are now a conscious element of the nation and share its sorrows and its hopes. Better that the officers do not now order us to fire on our families.

In the nature of the case, the Russian soldiers cannot continue aloof from the mass of the people. The force is all the while recruited from the people. Every year, about 300,000 young men, on reaching the age of twenty-one, are taken for service in the army or the fleet. Their period of service is from three to five years. Hence, of the regular army of 1,000,000 men, something like two-fifths has recently come from among those

very peasants and artisans where the spirit of revolution has been most rife. Inevitably, then, the army should be infected. We may not at once see the troops, like the French National Guard, fraternizing with the people; but there is good reason to believe that the army cannot be depended upon to shut its eyes and fire upon Russians rising to demand the fulfilment of the Czar's solemn pledges.

The development of the situation may be slow, but, in the end, the two irreconcilable forces of absolutism and freedom will be in collision. M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, a great and sober authority on Russia, declares that the autocracy has already gone, assert itself galvanically though it may; and that the question is whether the dynasty will not also have to go. We cannot say too roundly that revolutions never go backward. What Napoleon did with the French Revolution, reminds us of the possibility of a military dictator in Russia. But Napoleon held himself in power only by foreign wars, with their *gloire* and loot. Such a means of keeping the Russian army content is grotesquely impossible. All the bloodshed will be at home. Cruel repression may grow from a habit to a passion and then a madness; but, in due time, the irrepressible demands of the Russian millions, who have been taught at last to aspire, will brush away all opposition. It may then be "à bas le Tsar," but it certainly will be "Vive la Duma!"

TRADE UNION VIOLENCE.

The murder committed in the Plaza Hotel building in this city, by members of the Housesmiths' Union, has enabled a coroner to surpass the chartered absurdities of his office. Coroner Acrittelli declares that the posting of special officers where union and non-union men were working near each other was equivalent to incitement of the union men to murder. "The construction company," he affirms, "knew full well that to place a guard over the ironworkers would be like flaunting a red blanket in the face of a bull." It would "almost certainly lead to strife." This learned opinion would make policemen accessories before the fact to every trade-union crime committed where they are in sight. But the inflammability of the union workers goes further than that. It is well known that they feel an irresistible impulse to club and kick a non-union laborer. Yet if you station guards to protect him from violence, you simply stir up murderous passions against those officers, and make yourself responsible for their death. So much for this latest sample of "crown's law."

The whole episode throws new light upon our peculiar problems of trade unionism. Deny it as they may, intim-

idation, brutal assault, and if need be, murder, are widely employed by labor unions in this country. This fact it is which gives them so malign a distinction. Violence is not so the mark of labor agitation in other lands. Frederick Harrison, in a lecture the other day before the International Institute of Sociology in London, stated that in England, though there had been endless strikes, on a vast scale, no violence had been used, except in one or two local and trifling affairs. The reason for this good order, Mr. Harrison found in "the national character of patience and self-control," together with free institutions and a law-abiding spirit; and also in what he called a "real spiritual power" influencing both employers and the masses of laboring men. Our difference from Englishmen, in this respect, has often been noted. It goes to the conduct of mobs as well as unionists on strike. The English mob is uproarious, but not murderous; ours takes with dangerous facility to the throwing of bombs. This necessarily compels a different attitude on the part of the authorities.

The contrast was well brought out by Kipling in his "From Sea to Sea." He first came to this country when the crimes of the Chicago anarchists were still reverberating, and he could not understand the talk he heard about the need of the sternest measures with rioters. On shipboard the conversation fell upon the subject. An American passenger said:

"You can't persuade the mob of any country to become decent citizens. If they misbehave themselves, shoot them. I saw the bombs thrown at Chicago, when our police were blown to bits. I saw the banners in the procession that threw the bombs. All the mottoes on them were German. The men were aliens in our midst, and they were shot down like dogs. I've been in labor riots, and seen the militia go through a crowd like a finger through tissue paper."

"I was in the riots at New Orleans," said the man from Louisiana. "We turned the Gatling on the other crowd, and they were sick."

"Whew! I wonder what would have happened if a Gatling had been used when the West End riots were in full swing," said an Englishman. "If a single rioter were killed in an English town by the police, the chances are that the policeman would have to stand his trial for murder and the Ministry of the day go out."

In point with the last statement is the fact that Mr. Asquith, now Chancellor of the Exchequer, has long suffered, politically, for having, when Home Secretary, approved the action of the troops in firing upon rioting workmen. This is soberly given you in England as a reason why he can never become Prime Minister. This English view is sanctioned by long tradition. As far back as 1780 Burke set it forth in pleas of clemency for the "No Popery" rioters. Burke argued that the offenders were "a poor, thoughtless set of creatures, very little aware of the nature" of their wrong-doing. He feared anything that

should "rather resemble a massacre than a sober execution of the laws."

In the United States, however, the popular feeling is not the same. It may fairly be argued that there is something in our air or blood that makes the resort to violence easy, and that laboring men on strike act only as does the typical American crowd in a fury. If that is an explanation of the cause, it leaves us as much as before in want of the remedy. And there is no remedy except the absolute maintaining of law and order against either the mob or the trades union. In fact, the putting down of mob violence has come to be almost a popular thing in this country. The day is far past when a Governor of New York could make a mealy-mouthed speech to rioters, and address them as his "friends." Gov. Flower and also Gov. Rusk of Wisconsin showed the more excellent way of laying the rough hand of the State upon disturbers of the peace, whether they call themselves strikers or not; and President Roosevelt's plain-spoken speech in Chicago last year, in support of Mayor Dunne's determination to make the city safe from the violence of strikers, met a response which shows which way the wind is blowing.

But the approved medicine for the mob must also be administered to the labor union when it acts like a mob. Why does no leader of workingmen come out in clear utterance upon this subject? Deprecating remarks have, of course, been made by Mitchell, Gompers, and others, but none of them have trenchantly told workingmen that union violence is a crime against their own cause, as well as against the State, and must be repressed with all severity. When the Typotheta of this city were suing out their injunction, last winter, the judge asked the representatives of the Typographical Union what rules they had against violence by their members. He was told they had none. But in the long run trades unionism cannot prosper by breaking heads; and the sooner its champions find that out, the better for their cause.

SUPPLEMENTING IRRIGATION.

Where one acre in the arid and semi-arid regions has been watered by irrigation, a hundred acres continue to bake under the sun from one rainy season to another, far above the level of any possible ditch. Great upland plateaus in Colorado, Utah, and Idaho can never be watered from storage reservoirs or living streams. Deep wells and pumping are of some value, but when all is done, the most optimistic Westerner is forced to admit that much of "God's country" is, after all, a thirsty land.

While the work of irrigation has been carried ahead with extraordinary energy, considering the difficulty of the en-

gineering problems, people interested in other methods have not been idle. State and Federal forestry, as a means of utilizing the land, has been talked in season and out. To-day, the voice of the "dry farming" expert is making itself heard. He recites the old, depressing statistics: There are 600,000,000 acres of public domain left to settlement. Of this, 70,000,000 acres are quite sterile—rocks and alkali and mountain peaks; 95,000,000 acres are sparsely wooded; not quite such a large area is well wooded and valuable; 70,000,000 acres may be brought to a high state of productiveness by irrigation; and there remain 300,000,000 acres, half of the total area, fit only for grazing. Of course, to this immense area of public land must be added as much more in the hands of private owners. To change the form of the statistical chart, the philosopher of the dry country points out that for 1,200 miles north and south, and 1,300 miles east and west, and embracing four-tenths of the whole territory of the United States, there is sharp need for some sort of moisture-producer. Speaking broadly, farming in this region is a speculation, in which the ordinary farmer fares no better than the ordinary speculator in Wall Street.

H. W. Campbell of Lincoln, Neb., who has been preaching dry farming for some years to the plateau dwellers of the West, has so developed his system as to make it a valuable supplement to the reclamation service. As described by many observers, and summarized in the *Century Magazine* for this month, Mr. Campbell's idea "consists simply in the exercise of intelligence, care, patience, and tireless industry." He is not an alchemist, and has none of the airs of a magician. He has made no such spectacular experiments as have called attention to Luther Burbank's wonderful plant-breeding in California. What he says, in effect, is that rain is not needed in the growing season if the moisture deposited in the soil during the wet months is carefully saved. We do not, however, predict any general immediate success for the Campbell system, because the average farmer is as fond of his ease as the average Trust magnate. He will always prefer irrigation to deep ploughing and frequent cultivation. To him the newspaper advertisement, "Let the Little Wonder do your reaping while you improve your mind," makes a strong appeal. When, however, the wheat-raiser is forced to go to the uplands, he will remember the Campbell creed, and may resort to it for agricultural salvation.

The dry farmer begins his preparation for next year's crop as soon as this year's crop is off the land. He sends his ploughs into the field as the harvester leaves it. A seven-inch furrow is turned, then the ploughed soil

is immediately packed firm by a subsoil harrow, or series of cutting disks. From that time until planting begins every rain that falls calls for a fresh stirring of the soil by an ordinary harrow. Winter is not a season for rest and recreation; it is, rather, the busy season, when moisture enough is stored up to force the crop to maturity. All that Mr. Campbell has been able to say in favor of his toilsome method is that the laborer shall have his reward—the experiment has been continued long enough to show that by this incessant labor the yield can be increased from three to five fold. Where the annual rainfall averages twelve inches—irrespective of the months in which it is deposited—practically all crops can be raised by dry farming. A ten-inch rainfall will produce many special crops, like dwarf Milo maize, Turkestan alfalfa, Kaffir corn, beardless barley, and durum, or macaroni wheat.

Mr. Campbell's pioneer work, the enthusiastic labors of the forestry experts employed by the National Bureau and by various States, and the continuous experimenting in the Government desert laboratories with a view to finding out how the unchanging grim humor of the dry country may be turned to the settler's profit—all these serve to emphasize one point, the wasteful spirit of the West. The forestry commissioner of Minnesota begs for funds to acquire for the State 3,000,000 acres of rocky and sandy land fit for planting with pines. He demonstrates that only 20 per cent. of cut-over pine land reforests itself with pine if left untouched. Thus far, however, the West has been content to gather its quick profit from an immediate use of 80 per cent. of the country's resources and leave the problem of subsisting on the remaining 20 per cent. to the next comers. These husbandmen are now plodding into the dry country in the wake of the spoilers, and to them Mr. Campbell, Gifford Pinchot, Mr. Burbank, and the Arizona experimenters are coming to be as significant figures as Frederick Haynes Newell and the experts of the irrigation service.

HARVARD VS. CAMBRIDGE.

The news that the Harvard crew is to meet the Cambridge eight on the Thames in September will gratify lovers of rowing here and abroad. Not since August 27, 1869, when a Harvard four was beaten by an Oxford crew, has there been a contest between English and American boats save in the Henley races. There climatic conditions and the skill of the Englishmen have resulted in defeat for the Americans on every occasion, except in 1878, when a Columbia four carried off the Visitors' Cup. The time has, therefore, long been ripe for a 'varsity contest over

a longer distance than that at Henley, where racing in successive heats over a difficult course has always been trying for American oarsmen.

Still another reason exists why Americans should welcome the appearance in England of a Harvard crew. Some unpleasant happenings at Henley have cast discredit upon our American sportsmanship. We refer not merely to the poor taste and bad manners which marked the Henley career of a crew from a New York college, but to the disgraceful incident of the Vesper Boat Club of Philadelphia, which represented the United States at last year's Henley regatta. Although entered as amateurs, the members of the Vesper crew, as the National Association of Amateur Oarsmen has proved, accepted money in sums varying from \$50 to \$150, more than the proper expenses of their trans-Atlantic trip. Moreover, several of the Philadelphians perjured themselves when giving to a notary information as to their status and occupations. As a matter of fact, they were not qualified to row under the Henley rules. Naturally, this affair has provoked bitter criticism in England, where such racetrack performances would be impossible in amateur circles; and the suggestion has been seriously made by one of the Henley Stewards that all American entries be henceforth barred. Obviously, a well-behaved Harvard crew could do much to make Englishmen remember that there are gentlemen oarsmen in America, and to renew the pleasant impressions made by Yale's Henley crew in 1896.

From the oarsman's point of view the promised race will have the merit of reopening the old discussion as to the relative value of the English and American styles of rowing. Unfortunately, Harvard this year exemplifies the teachings of a professional coach, Wray, who is to accompany the crew. He will be looked at somewhat askance on the Thames, where only amateurs coach amateurs, and where at least one member of Parliament finds it worth his while to train the crews, not only of his own university, but of its great rival. Regrettable as it is that Harvard in this respect savors of professionalism, there will none the less be interesting points of comparison. Cambridge won this season with a crew which was not up to the standard of its predecessors of 1897 and 1900. The stroke was on the bow side, a "North Country rig," not used since 1876. More significant to Englishmen is the fact that Cambridge rowed in a "sculling style"; indeed, her crew was criticised as being more like the American eights than any English 'varsity hitherto. Her victory was as disconcerting to the old-fashioned English boating experts as was the recent triumph of the Belgians at Henley. The

latter were admittedly strong and well-trained men; according to all traditions, their short, jerky stroke should have defeated them. Instead, they won, and handsomely, although it must be said that the crack Leander crew was not there to measure oars with them.

Writing in the *Fortnightly Review*, Theodore A. Cook, who has watched American crews at Cambridge, Mass., and at Henley, stoutly stands up for the long English style. He thus describes its advantages:

If you could take an English oarsman as he is seated in an eight, just at the start of a stroke, and could tilt up the boat until the bows were straight in the air and the rudder at the bottom of the river, you would then see that the action of his arms and legs almost exactly reproduces the movements of a man who is drawing a cork out of a bottle which he has placed on the floor between his feet. His arms remain straight. His body becomes gradually more upright at the hinge of the hip joints. His legs supply the real thrust as they slowly and strongly straighten out, and the knees go flat. That is why, when an Englishman gets out of a boat after a hard race, he can scarcely walk. But he could probably do almost anything he wanted with his arms. Now the effects of this style are threefold. It uses the strongest propelling muscles in the human frame. It uses every ounce of the weight of the body. It can be rowed when a man is so tired that he can scarcely see the back in front of him. However fatigued you may be, you can throw your weight on to an oar-handle until the whole eight men stop rowing altogether.

In Mr. Cook's opinion, the American coaches (he despises the professional variety, boasting that there has not been one on the Thames in sixty years, and never will be another) neglect the human equation entirely: "They develop a theory and prove it on the bank. They then proceed to train their men's muscles by gymnasiums and tanks, to stand the extra strain which that theory will put upon them." A particular coach's style may be successful against another coach's, but it has never yet succeeded against the English style.

Mr. Cook dwells further on the weaker nerves of the American Henley crews, which have invariably succumbed to eights unable to cover the course nearly so quickly in practice spins. The races discovered the Americans' weak points—the disadvantage of their higher nervous tension, and also the fact that human nature "has an awkward habit of announcing its existence, however often it is pitchforked out of the way by a professional." In brief, the Americans' quick, jerky style has been their handicap. The moment they are passed or pushed hard, they falter; their style "disintegrates more and more, and no amount of pluck can save them." In the proposed four-mile contest there will be an excellent opportunity to see whether these English theories are true only on a short course, or whether, as a result, perhaps, of Rudolph C. Lehmann's visit to Harvard in 1897 and 1898, our American style is not more and

more approximating the traditional long swing of the Thames.

PREACHING AGAINST "SOCIETY."

One of the chief sensations of this year's London season has been the series of sermons on the "smart set" delivered by Father Bernard Vaughan. His pulpit is in the Jesuit's church in Farm Street, Mayfair, and he has preached to packed audiences, for the church is too small to hold the throngs that come in carriages and automobiles. That is an old trick of "society." Fashion often goes where fashion is scourged. And Father Vaughan, who does not appear to have craved notoriety, has addressed himself with great directness to the follies of the hour. Here is an extract from the report of a recent sermon:

If Dives, who was buried in Hell, were to revisit the earth he would most surely have the *entrée* to London's smartest set to-day. He would be literally pelted with invitations. And why not? Dives, so well groomed and turned out, with such a well-lined larder and so well-stocked a cellar, would be the very ideal host to cultivate. He would "do you so well," you would meet the "right people at his place," and you could always bring your "latest friend." Besides, what a good time one would have at his house-parties, where there would be no fear of being bored or dull!

George Russell has recalled the fact that Father Vaughan had a precursor in London about 1870. The Rev. George Wilkinson was then the reigning flagellant of fashionable sinners. He did very much what Father Vaughan has done—laying about him with great vigor, and hitting chiefly at the frivolities and vices of the rich. He had little eloquence, but great sincerity; and the burden of his preaching was, as Mr. Russell recollects it, made up of exhortation in this style: "Don't stay till three at a ball, and then say that you are too delicate for early services." "Eat one dinner a day instead of three, and try to earn that one." "Give up champagne for the season, and what you save on your wine-merchant's bill send to the mission field." "Sell that diamond cross which you carry with you into the sin-polluted atmosphere of the opera; give the proceeds to feed the poor, and wear the only cross—the cross of self-discipline and self-denial." The services of this plain preacher were as crowded by the elegants and notables as have been Father Vaughan's this year.

Mr. Russell's explanation is that "Society loves to be scolded." But this, if it be not intended for a paradox, is too superficial. Doubtless there is, to a certain order of mind, a thrill in feeling that one belongs to a class which is important enough to be preached about in church. It heightens the sense of notoriety, and notoriety is three-fourths of "Society," as Matthew Arnold might have said. As for the clerical "scolding" which Society loves, it is not the

genuine article like Father Vaughan's, but the kind of insincere half-protest, half-admiration, and all envy which some preachers indulge in under the impression that they are giving social sins a terrible raking. We all know those mock John Knoxes of the fashionable world. They exhort their dearly beloved brethren to mortify the flesh, and then angle for invitations to mortify their own—and they usually carry a lot of it—at a good table.

Yet it remains true that when a real prophet arises to castigate the pleasant sins of the luxurious, he gets an echo in their own hearts which is somewhat surprising. How are we to account for it? Partly, it may be, on the theory of penance. To go and hear your own class and your own habits and proclivities denounced, may awaken a sentiment which seems akin to virtue. "Yes," you will say, "we may as well confess that it is so. We are leading too gay lives. It will do us all good to go and hear a saintly man tell us the truth about it." Then, having heard, and with a comfortable feeling that you have somehow repented and reformed by merely being where the good word was preached, you depart and straightway forget what manner of man you saw yourself to be when looking into the mirror of the perfect law.

Deeper than all this, however, is satiety. Nothing bores one like a long course of frivolous pursuit of empty pleasures. Vanity Fair gets horribly out of conceit with itself. In gilded society a certain proportion of people may always be found who are sick to death of it; who know its hollowness; who hate its conventionalities, and to whom all its forced gayety is as the crackling of thorns under a pot. A preacher who could uncover to the foolish rich this sense of satiation which besets them or dogs them through all their round of pleasure-seeking and vain social competitions and jealousies, would appeal to a motive that is stronger than fear of punishment after death. Satiety is the punishment before death. A veteran dramatic critic has implored the clergy to declaim, not at the immoralities of the stage, but at its fearful stupidity and banality, its power to make you, not wicked, but infinitely bored. Similarly, we imagine, it is the satiated exponents and victims of fashion who long for a breath from the Judean hills; and the most effective preaching against Society would consist in a faithful depiction, not of its lust of the eyes and its pride of life, but of its endless vexation and heaviness of spirit. That was the text of the weary King Ecclesiast, "the sad and splendid"; and his sigh, "vanity of vanities," uttered nearly three thousand years ago in the palace at Jerusalem, echoes still in the palaces of London and New York.

THE REMBRANDT TERCENTENARY.

AMSTERDAM, July 16.

Rembrandt reigns in Holland. From the desolate heaths of Drenthe to the limestone hills and caves of Limburg, and from the Bourtanger morass to the Wilhelmina Pier at Scheveningen, his name is on every lip during this week of celebration. It is not the great cities only that display the tricolor bunting. A carefully planned and successful propaganda has distributed albums of cheap copies of Rembrandt's masterpieces throughout every one of the eleven provinces.

I am writing in da Costa Plein, around the corner from the Rosengracht, where stands the last dwelling house of Rembrandt—now duly marked with its mural tablet and gay with flags and orange streamers. The Wester Kerk tower—highest work of man in Amsterdam—rises in view. Under its stone floor rests the dust of the greatest painter of the northern Netherlands. This morning I saw the golden-lettered memorial unveiled before thousands of people. A little to the west, and running out from the church square, is the Bloomgracht, in which the artist bridegroom and his bride Saskia dwelt. Yet, except flags and flowers, nothing in the way of decoration, for a moment approaching the Queen's inauguration in 1898, is to-day visible. It is otherwise—more quietly, appropriately, and with an eye to permanence—that the Dutch will commemorate Rembrandt. They have struck in gold, silver, and bronze, tokens, on which besides dates and words of honor is the palette entwined with oak and laurel. The painter's lineaments are those of ripe age, when his triumphs had been attained; while Royer's colossal statue on the Rembrandt Plein, reared in 1852, represents him in his early manhood. The new monument by the sculptor, Toon Dupuis of The Hague, near Rembrandt's birthplace in Leyden, also shows the mature features, as on the medals. As for the book and print shops, all over the kingdom, they blossom with Rembrandt's portraits and pictures.

In the sheaf of newly written biographies that of Dr. Hofstede de Groot, in eight volumes, leads all in documentary importance and general interest. Yet he told me that since the recent completion of his work, about fifteen new Rembrandts have been brought to light. One of these, "Saskia with the Letter," I saw last week in the Frisian Museum at Leeuwarden, and since that time again at the superb collection assembled at Leyden by the indefatigable biographer. It represents Saskia in happy mood, holding what is perhaps a letter from her lover. The metallic lustres and jewelled effects, so frequent in the artist's pictures, are here strikingly fresh and beautiful. Another brief but vivid narration and literary appreciation is seen in "Rembrandt's Leven en Kunst," by Jan Veth. In addition to serious and critical works for the adult readers, there is a small library of books for the young, which tell of the man, the artist, and his work.

It was interesting to witness the Dutch academic function in honor of Rembrandt. To the *aula* of the Amsterdam University, I made my way on Friday, the 13th, through the Doelen Straat, and

the Kloveniers-Burgwal (of Pilgrim Father associations), into the brick archways lined with book stalls, and thence to the pretty courtyard, rich in greenery and gay with flowers. In the hall, well filled with the élite of Amsterdam, Professor Six, a descendant of the famous burgomaster, made immortal on canvas by Rembrandt, presided. The professors, each in black velvet gown and beretta, with huge white cravat, filed in with the dignitaries of municipality and province. Of the five glorifiers of Rembrandt, who were to receive doctorates *honoris causa*, three were present. They sat on chairs confronting mighty sheets of parchment duly printed in Latin, subscribed by the faculty, and brave with the red and black colors of Amsterdam. Émile Michel, now aged, remained in Paris, and Bode, busy in Berlin, could not come; but Bredius, Jan Vetb, and Hofstede de Groot, listened and received honors. Above the tribune in letters of gold was the name of the Amsterdam's University professor, Dr. Tulp, who still demonstrates from the immortal "Anatomy Lesson" on Rembrandt's canvas.

Passing by the "winged words" of Dutch eloquence in oration and official conference, we go in memory, as we did in reality, to the Senate Room—for refreshment of mind as well as body. From the social reception in this hall of portraits, I went to the city archives fronting the New Market. With the assistance of the keeper, I found and read the original entry in full of Rembrandt's marriage with Saskia, the maid from Friesland; and also the one-line record of the artist's death in poverty. Across from the market space is St. Anthony's Street, running into the Jew's Broad Street, where stands Rembrandt's house, now duly marked with tablet. The painter had not far to walk to portray the dissection directed by Dr. Tulp, for the round, or octagonal, room now given up to documents, was once the famous Anatomical Theatre.

On Saturday, July 14, at Leyden I saw again the haunts of young Rembrandt and the twentieth-century honors beaped upon his memory. The old city was ablaze with red, white, and blue, and the Queen Mother and Prince Consort observed "the politeness of princes," and were in their seats at two P. M. Mesdag, Israels, Blommers, and many other artists were among the dignitaries of the city and the ancient University, and the beauty and fashion of South Holland. The exercises were of the most felicitous order. They included superb floral offerings laid by the various artists' societies on the grassy mound to the honor of the man in bronze. Rembrandt, pencil in hand, looks towards his humble birthplace and his beloved Rhine. To make the scene most deliciously Dutch, the inevitable little dog in Tobit's story, in the normal Dutch painters' pictures, and in the Fatherland's history, as on William the Silent's tomb and statue, was there in several breeds. He trotted in and out and after, lending impudence to the dignity of the occasion. Besides the twenty Rembrandts exhibited in the City Museum, were also specimens of the work of all the Leyden painters of the seventeenth century. After the concerts, kermis in the "Burg," and merrymaking at the students' banquet, the fun ceased about four A. M.

On Sunday, July 15, I was again at Amsterdam. Except for an afternoon opening of pictures to "society," at the Arti et Amicitiae clubhouse on the Rokin, the Dutch kept Sunday pretty well. It was appropriate that night should be chosen for the chief Sabbath-day function. A half million people blocked the avenues to the Rembrandt Plein, into which at ten P. M. filed a procession of men in seventeenth-century garb with flambeaux. The glitter of steel cuirass and morion, the slashed and striped silk, the russet jerkins, the orange sashes and plumed hats, made Rembrandt's time come again. Two hundred artists, women as well as men, marched with the costumed escort. As each guild or society, from all over the kingdom, laid down a floral offering, the blue and white flag of St. Luke signalled for a crash of drums and cymbals. The singing of the large male choir, as at Leyden, was superb.

Monday, July 16, was the real Rembrandt Day, and happily dry and fair. Concerts, with choir and band in many parts of the city, and a great costume procession, with allegorical representations in "floats," with maidens arrayed in brilliant colors and heraldic and mediæval dress, amused the people. The crowning function was at the Rijks Museum at two P. M. In the old Hall of Rembrandt gathered Holland's beauty and manhood to consecrate the new rooms set apart wholly for the works of the master. Russia, England, and the other countries of Europe, as well as the United States, may possess Rembrandts; but Holland has her own son's three or four greatest works. I asked Josef Israels which of these he considered the greatest. "The Staalmeesters [Syndics of the Cloth-Makers' Guild] is the one which has the mark of Rembrandt's handwriting," said he. This is his greatest work. In *De Gids* of this month, Israels has further emphasized this view.

The Prince Consort and the Queen Mother led the honors, for the sovereign Wilhelmina abides in quiet at Het Loo palace. The Prince read his speech—with a slight German accent. After music, the most distinguished auditors first, and then all of us, entered the new cloisters—shall I call them?—in which the "Night Watch" and "Cloth Syndics" are to dwell. The first effect is disappointing. The glory seems too lonely and the plain woodwork of the new and rather small rooms too dark. Yet, he who would study Rembrandt would have his canvas alone. Furthermore, the works of other artists gain by Rembrandt's absence.

Drama and song, with the presence of royalty at the Royal Theatre, in the evening, with free concerts, monster stereopticon shows of Rembrandt's paintings and etchings, searchlight effects and illuminations for the people, closed the third century and opened the fourth of the great painter's fame.

W. E. G.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL PROGRESS AT ROME.

ROME, July 7.

Just at present the excavations in the Forum itself are almost at a standstill. The property at the end of the Via Cavour, covering the north part of the Basilica Æmilia, has, however, been purchased by

the Government, through the continued generosity of Lionel Phillips, and workmen are now engaged in removing the buildings. Commissioner Boni intends to proceed with the excavation of the rest of the Basilica at once, and the work ought to be finished in the course of the coming winter. It is not to be expected that the completion of this excavation will add much to our knowledge of the edifice itself, but it will be interesting to discover whether there was a row of *tabernæ* on its north side, as there was on the south side of the Basilica Julia. It is unfortunate that funds are not in hand to provide for the extension of this excavation around the Temple of Antoninus and Faustina, across the end of the Via in Miranda, as far as the Church of SS. Cosma e Damiano (the so-called *Templum Sacræ Urbis*).

The excavation in the ancient necropolis has reached its limits; in fact that portion that is nearest to the Temple of Faustina has already been covered up again, and it is the intention of the director to cover all the rest after three or four years. The surface of the tufa disintegrates so rapidly, now that it is exposed, and so much pumping is necessary to keep the water out, that Commissioner Boni thinks there will be no good reason for keeping the tombs open beyond the period mentioned. It seems a pity, however, that so interesting a spot should be entirely hidden from view.

The removal of the stones that were piled up against the brick pedestal of the Column of Phocas, on the east and north sides, has brought to light the matrices of part of an inscription cut in the travertine slabs of the pavement. The bronze letters were about forty centimetres high, and the inscription about twelve inches long, running in a direction parallel to the front of the Rostra. It reads "L. Nævius L. . . . nus," without doubt the prætor, L. Nævius Surdinus, whose name occurs on the back of the famous relief that represents Mettius Curtius spurring his horse into the chasm in the Forum. This Nævius was probably prætor during the reign of Augustus. As another inscription, dedicated by another prætor of about the same date, was found here in 1811, it has been conjectured that both belonged to the tribunal of the prætors which stood, as we know, near the Lacus Curtius. Close by, and directly between the Column of Phocas and the Lacus Curtius, is a square foundation of concrete, surrounded by the travertine pavement, which might possibly be the base of such a tribunal. We know that the tribunal itself was made of wood. It has also been suggested that this inscription may relate to a dedication of the pavement itself at some time during the early empire. This portion of the pavement does seem to be older and better laid than most of that now existing. Neither of these explanations is entirely satisfactory, and the inscription simply adds one more to the unsolved problems of the Forum.

Signor Boni has recently come to the conclusion that many of the walls in and around Rome, that have been regarded as brickwork of the first and second century after Christ, are not built of ordinary brick, but of big tiles (*tegulæ*) which were obtained in large quantities from ruins caused by the conflagration in Rome.

These tiles were broken with a hammer, and used in structures like the hemicycles of the Forum of Trajan, and the rear wall of the rectangular part of the Rostra. Of course, if these tiles were taken from other buildings their stamps cannot be used to date the structures in which they are now found.

Much interest has been aroused in Rome by the work that Signor Boni is now doing at the Column of Trajan. Investigation showed that a large excavation had been made under the pedestal of the column during the middle ages, and that a chamber in the pedestal itself had been filled up. This chamber has now been excavated. A small window opens into it on the southwest side, and along the northwest side something has been cut away which Boni thinks may have been a sarcophagus. Almost all the missing fragments of the great marble wreath that forms the base of the columns have been found, and are being replaced. A mould of this wreath is also to be made so that plaster casts may hereafter be procured. The architrave and the inscription are also to be restored.

Under the concrete bed of the pavement of the Forum of Trajan, just east of the column, the pavement of a road has been found, that dates from the early part of the first century after Christ. This road is flanked with the remains of buildings constructed of tiles. The pavement rises slightly, and makes an angle of nineteen degrees with the northwest side of the foundations of the column, by which it is cut. Beneath this pavement, close to the northwest side of the column, is a drain which had been filled up. It is clear that this road and the buildings on it were covered up when the Forum of Trajan was built, but the bottom of the archaeological strata has not yet been reached by the excavations. This discovery seems to disprove effectually the traditional interpretation of that part of the inscription on the base of the column which states that it was erected "ad declarandum quantæ altitudinis mons et locus tantis operibus sit egestus." Evidently, in view of what has been found, a supposed ridge connecting the Quirinal and Capitoline hills could not have been removed to make room for Trajan's Forum, and the valley or depression between the two hills had probably always existed. The language of the inscription has always been puzzling, and now is still more so. Signor Boni suggests that this road may be called the *Clivus Pontinialis*, from the *Porta Fontinialis* in the Servian wall, which certainly was very near this point.

Another name has been added to the list of Roman streets by the discovery of a marble altar dedicated to the Lares Augusti by the officials of the *Vicus Stata Matris*, on the Cælian. The inscription dates from 2 B. C., and gives the names of the consuls of that year, hitherto unknown in the *fasti*. L. Caninius Gallus and C. Tufius Germinus. This also indicates the date of the *lex Tufia Caninia*, relating to the manumission of slaves.

At Ostia about four hundred terra-cotta stamps have been found which represent theatrical and hunting scenes from the celebration of the public games. These were used to stamp the loaves of bread

that were distributed to the people in connection with the public banquets provided during the games. *Mulum* was also distributed with the loaves of bread, and many small measures, containing about three-quarters of a litre, were found with the terra-cotta stamps.

The work of removing the Villa Mills on the Palatine is to be commenced at once, and we may look forward to a renewal of interest in the archaeology of the Palatine.

S. B. P.

Notes.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, has just published an illustrated book of travels, "Vacation Days in Hawaii and Japan," by Charles M. Taylor, and "Women's Work and Wages," by Edward Cadbury, Miss M. Cecile Matheson, and George Shann. This latter book deals with conditions of work, life, recreation, and ameliorative agencies, wages, legislation, home life, recreation, clubs, trade unions, legal minimum wage, and wages boards.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will soon publish "A Woman of Wit and Wisdom," a memoir of Mrs. Elizabeth Carter, one of the "Bas Bleu" Society, a notable scholar, master of many languages, and translator of Epictetus. The work is by Alice C. C. Gaussen, author of "A Later Pepys."

A recent address, "The Service of Missions to Science and Society," by W. W. Keen, M.D., LL.D., of Philadelphia, president of the American Baptist Missionary Union, is being circulated as an inexpensive booklet by the Literature Department of the American Baptist Missionary Union, Boston.

The "Oxford Library of Prose and Poetry" (Henry Frowde) issues "Theological Essays" by the late Benjamin Jowett, and Trelawny's "Recollections of Shelley and Byron." Jowett's essays are selected and arranged by Lewis Campbell; Trelawny is edited by Edward Dowden.

The Clarendon Press has just issued six volumes in its "Higher French Series": Flaubert's "Salammbô," edited by E. Lavrière; Lamartine's "Jocelyn," by Émile Legouis; Madame de Staël's "De l'Allemagne," by Henry Weston Eve; Mémoires de Madame Campan, by H. C. Bradley; Hugo's "Notre-Dame de Paris," by Léon Delbos; and Gautier's "Trois Grotesques," by H. J. Chaytor. Appended to the French text are English notes. The type is rather small but clear; the paper opaque.

The Macmillan Company makes two announcements of special interest to students of the classics. The firm will issue "Historical Greek Coins," by G. F. Hill, of the British Museum. There will be thirteen plates in the volume, besides illustrations in the text. The company has also undertaken a new series of Latin classics, to be prepared, with special consideration for the needs of younger students in colleges, under the editorial supervision of James C. Egbert, professor of Latin in Columbia University. Each volume will contain a brief introduction, the standard text, and a commentary in the simplest and briefest form.

To his text of the "Elegies" of Propertius and his recent "Index Propertianus," J. S. Phillimore has added a prose translation. (Oxford: The Clarendon Press.) The work is designed, we are told, both for the general reader who has no Latin and for the student who wishes to solve the difficulties of the original text. We doubt whether readers of the first class, who have any desire to know Propertius, are sufficiently numerous to justify effort in their behalf, and for any student able to deal with the original at all Mr. Phillimore might easily have provided a more valuable aid than this translation. There is scant justification for translation of such an author as Propertius on any basis which precludes genuine literary merit at the start.

In Eugene Bacha's "Le Génie de Tacite" (Paris: Alcan. New York: Stechert), we have the latest attempt to solve the problem of Tacitus. One critic has not hesitated to call him the greatest historian of all time; to another he is first and foremost a mere stylist, ready even to eliminate an important fact rather than injure the stylistic form of a sentence by its insertion. Still another has found in him a malevolent pamphleteer, employing an almost Satanic verbal ingenuity in whipping the Imperialists of his own time over the shoulders of such noble Romans as Tiberius Caesar. Most of those who actually read Tacitus, however, get a strong impression of a serious and powerful mind, incapable of freedom from bias in the interpretation of facts, but always with an honest endeavor to be fair. To M. Bacha we are indebted for the discovery that these estimates are one and all widely astray. Tacitus wrote neither history straight nor history warped, but pure fiction. M. Fabia's laborious efforts to show where the "Annals" follow Aufidius Bassus, and where Cluvius Rufus, are thus seen to have been thrown away, for the one great "source" all the way through was the writer's own fertile imagination. We cannot reproduce here the ingenious line of circumstantial evidence on which the court of scholarship is asked to pass death sentence upon one of the most persistently readable and influential historical writers of all ages. M. Bacha, like many another rash critic, has set up a theory and allowed his love for it to lead him beyond the bounds of sound judgment. If the "Annals" had contained so large a purely fictitious element they could never have survived the criticism which would have been heaped upon them by the age to which they were first submitted, containing as it did thousands of children and grandchildren of the eminent men and women whose names and deeds appear in the fascinating record.

In connection with the celebration on July 6, by the University of St. Andrews, of the four hundredth anniversary of the birth of George Buchanan, a volume will be published early in August by Henderson & Son, University Press, St. Andrews, and will be entitled "George Buchanan: a Memorial, 1506-1906." It will contain papers on the various aspects of the Scottish scholar's life and work, as well as translations of his verse. An appendix will give an account of the St. Andrews celebration. On that occasion the Lord Rector, Andrew Carnegie, asserted that

Buchanan was not only the greatest poet of his time, and a great scholar, but the founder of constitutional government. It was Buchanan who first in Britain proclaimed the divine right of the people and denounced the divine right of kings. In his commemorative oration Lord Reay dwelt upon his strength of character, independence of judgment, scorn of luxury and fearless assertion of individual convictions. He said that the debt of gratitude which Scotland owed him could best be paid by following in his footsteps. "Had he lived in these days his scathing satire would have been directed against the evils of plutocracy and democracy, and the tyranny of public opinion." He concluded by saying that the universities have no nobler duty than to inspire the rising generations of young Scots to maintain the liberties they owed to him and his friends, and to use them in such a manner as would have satisfied Buchanan that he had not lived in vain.

Daniel Coit Gilman, president of the association formed to honor the memory of Dr. Walter Reed, whose discovery that yellow fever is conveyed by mosquitoes was discussed in the *Nation* last week, writes that \$20,000 has been collected for the fund, and that \$5,000 more is needed. When this sum is received, the income will be paid to the widow of Major Reed, and the capital reserved for a permanent memorial, probably a monument in the city of Washington. Further contributions are greatly desired. They may be sent to the treasurer, Charles J. Bell, of the American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

The plan for a Keats-Shelley memorial in Rome—to purchase the house in which Keats died, and to establish therein a library of the works of Keats and Shelley, and to provide for perpetual care of the graves of the poets—is making steady headway. Of the total amount needed, \$22,000, about half has already been subscribed. Checks should be made payable "to the order of the Keats-Shelley Memorial Fund," and sent to R. U. Johnson, secretary and acting treasurer, No. 33 East Seventeenth Street, New York.

Some interesting books with autographs have been sold this week by Sotheby in London: a work by John Selden, presentation copy from the author to Ben Jonson, who has written in it his autograph; a pamphlet by Sir John Norris and Sir Francis Drake, "Ephemeris Expeditionis," 1589, with the autograph of Ben Jonson on the title; a copy of Lovelace's "Lucasta," 1649, with the inscription on the fly-leaf, "Charles Cotton ex dono authoris." The sale also included fine illuminated manuscripts, and rare early printed books.

Harper's Magazine for August presents a notable array of contributors: stories by Mark Twain, Thomas A. Janvier, W. D. Howells, Alice Brown, and Joseph Conrad; "The Sense of Newport," by Henry James; and poems by John B. Tabb and Laurence Housman. President Arthur T. Hadley of Yale, in an article entitled "Wealth and Democracy in American Colleges," maintains the comfortable thesis that, after all, the increase of wealth and the spread of luxury are not a serious menace to the democratic spirit in our colleges; and that intercollegiate athletic

contests, in spite of "incidental evils," "form the most potent protection against those minor forms of self-indulgence which are so often a first step in the direction of major evils." Prof. Thomas R. Lounsbury discusses with his usual vivacity and good sense "Hostility to Certain Words," particularly "tireless" and "female." Howard Pyle in the colored frontispiece adds to his series of "Pictures from Thackeray" an admirable representation of Beatrix and Esmond. In *Appleton's Magazine* Miss Agnes Repplier's amusingly suggestive essay on the treatment to which children have been submitted since Miss Edgeworth's day, in the name of education, is the feature of the month. *Scribner's* follows up Chapman's flamingo pictures of last year with some remarkable photographs of the mountain-goat taken on its native crags by W. T. Hornaday, and John M. Phillips. This is its fiction number, a complete novelette by Edith Wharton and one of Arthur Cassett Smith's delicately worked out short stories being the best among its contributions. The *Century* reproduces partly in color the pastel drawings by F. Dormon Robinson, who made them two blocks distant from the heart of the San Francisco fire. "Heroic San Francisco," by Louise Herrick Wall, is the article which they illustrate.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for July is wholly devoted to a series of seventy photographs, taken with flashlight and camera, by the Hon. George Shiras, 3rd, of wild game—deer, elk, moose, herons, duck, pelicans, birds in flight, etc. The brief accompanying text is a description of his methods and a strong advocacy of this hunting with the camera which does not tend to convert the wilderness into an untenanted and silent waste.

Of especial interest at the present time is the paper of Prof. R. S. Tarr of the United States Geological Survey, in the *Geographical Journal* for July, on recent changes of level in Alaska. In it are given the main results of a study made last summer of the general geology and physical geography of one hundred and fifty miles of the coast. The most pronounced evidences of changes of level are well-defined rock benches and associated sea-caves and chasms elevated well above the level of the present reach of the highest waves. A part of this uplift, which amounts in one place to eighteen feet, is due to an earthquake in September, 1899, which lasted for seventeen days. These investigations throw light on the causes of the San Francisco earthquake, showing that it is situated on a danger-line in the earth's crust, and that the normal process of mountain building is active in the coast ranges of California as in Alaska. An account is given by Col. F. R. Maunsell of the Rhodope Balkans, which almost unknown part of the peninsula is interesting from the peculiarities of its inhabitants and its remarkable natural beauty. Sir G. T. Goldie, in his annual presidential address before the Royal Geographical Society on the geographical work of the past year, refers to the return of a young American explorer, Ellsworth Huntington, from Central Asia, where he "has done much to solve some of the problems connected with the geography, the desiccation and the archaeology" of that region.

The second issue of the Sociological Papers published by the British Sociological Society is in many essentials like the first. Francis Galton continues his papers on eugenics, or man-breeding, and here attempts to show that the creation of usages and institutions which shall control the present irrational methods of human mating, is entirely possible. Professor Geddes continues his demonstration of the subject of civics, and Dr. Westermarck contributes one of his characteristic papers, heavily fortified with ethnographical instances, upon magic and social relationships. A brilliant though unconvincing study of the relation of sociology and ethics comes from the pen of Professor Höffding; the philosophy of history is taken up in a somewhat similar way by Mr. Bridges; and Professor Sadler writes ably upon the school as a social factor. The most obscure contribution is by Professor Stuart-Glennie on the classification of the sciences; a sociology which takes in such topics treated in such a way is certainly yet ill-defined in scope. The usual discussions are appended and form, in some ways, the most interesting part of the volume. In general the style of the papers is similar to that of the first series, and subject to the same criticisms.

The remarkable progress of the social reform movement in India is shown by a memorial, signed by 100 prominent Indian gentlemen, calling the attention of the Bombay Government to the prevalence of the custom of dedicating young girls to a life of immorality by marrying them to Hindu gods. The girls are prohibited from contracting another marriage, and are known as Muralis. Though a ruling of the Bombay High Court has made these sacred marriages illegal, they are still notoriously frequent, the memorialists assert, and prosecutions are extremely rare. They suggest that the illegal character of the procedure should be prominently advertised at the various temples, and that the priests should be informed that in permitting the ceremony they make themselves accessories to crime and punishable as such. The memorialists recognize the intimate connection between the propagation of Christianity in India and social reform by asking that the young girls who are rescued from a life of prostitution should be placed in the care of proper guardians or mission orphanages.

"Citizenship and the Schools," by Professor Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell University (Henry Holt & Company), comprises a group of addresses and essays prepared for various occasions during a period of fifteen years past, and connected by their common relation to the general subject of education. With one exception the different chapters have all been in print previously or have been delivered before public audiences. The exception, entitled "Free Speech in American Universities," was inspired by the resignation of President Andrews from Brown University in 1897, a case in which the traditional precaution of nine years seclusion has been at a considerable cost in timeliness and force.

In his "Socialism: a Summary and Interpretation of Socialist Principles" (Macmillan), John Spargo, already well known as the author of "The Bitter Cry of the Children," professes only the modest pur-

pose of stating in simple language, and from the point of view of a "convinced socialist," what socialism is and what it is not. The historical survey is both fragmentary and slight, being limited mainly to an account of Owen's life and work, a discussion of the origin of the "Communist Manifesto," and a brief sketch of Marx. For the rest, we have a chapter on the materialistic, or economic, conception of history, the fundamental limitation of which theory the author does not, apparently, perceive; and a well-put analysis and defence of the main positions of Marxian socialism. The statement of the socialist position, while frank and pointed, is in good temper, with a minimum of denunciation of the evils of capitalism, government by injunction, and the like; save, however, in its recognition of difficulties in the way of early realization, the exposition is without novelty. If such affirmations as some of those contained in Mr. Spargo's final chapter, on "The Socialist State," are generally accepted by socialist leaders of the present day, we may at least congratulate ourselves that socialism has somewhat moderated its claims.

The latest addition to the series of "Selections and Documents in Economics," edited by Prof. William Z. Ripley, is a substantial volume of over eight hundred pages, compiled by Prof. Thomas N. Carver, of Harvard, and entitled "Sociology and Social Progress" (Ginn). Like the other volumes in the series, this is intended primarily to serve as a convenient selection of significant extracts to accompany lectures, or supplement a textbook, or form a basis for classroom discussion. Thirty-five pieces, varying in length from two pages to ninety-six, and representing twenty-seven authors, are presented. The writers range from Aristotle to Max Nordau, the list including such contrasted names as Comte, Buckle, Machiavelli, Adam Smith, Mill, Darwin, John Fiske, Macaulay, and Tarde. Professor Carver gives warning that the passages presented do not necessarily embody his own views, and are not to be regarded as "invariably sound and accurate"; the aim has been, rather, to choose extracts which by experience have been found to be "the most instructive, the most stimulating, and the most thought-provoking." The volume does not, accordingly, show us much of its compiler's personal opinions, and can hardly, we think, be of great usefulness to the general reader. Professor Carver's brief introduction, however, is distinctly interesting. To the theory of the "economic interpretation of history," as set forth by Professor Seligman and others, Professor Carver opposes, "as a challenge," the thesis that "every great historical epoch and every variety of social organization must be explained on the basis of factors and forces now at work, and which the student may study at first hand." Sociology, therefore, while using the method of economics, passes beyond the field usually cultivated by the economist, and seeks a theory of social progress through a study of "those factors and forces which govern social phenomena and the relation of cause and effect among them"; while its relation to history may be likened to that between dynamical and historical geology. Professor Carver's position is too briefly

stated to warrant a general judgment upon it, but it has the merit of bringing sociology to a place where the historian and the economist can comprehend its nomenclature and judge its processes.

Le Mounier, Florence, has issued a revision by Giovanni Mestica of the authorized edition of Leopardi's works, both poetry and prose, which was originally published by this house in 1845, eight years after the poet's death. Mestica prepared this text with great care, making use of the original manuscripts. He intended to add full, critical notes, but unfortunately his death prevented the execution of this plan.

"Étude comparée de la Versification Française et de la Versification Anglaise: L'Alexandrin et le Blank Verse" is a thesis for the doctorate at the University of Grenoble, written in French by a Scot, Thomas B. Rudmose-Brown. It is published at Grenoble. Confining itself almost exclusively, as the title indicates, to the consideration of the French Alexandrine and of the so-called decasyllabic line in English, it is necessarily incomplete and inadequate as a comparative study of the prosody of the two languages. Nevertheless, it is a treatise by no means to be ignored by French or English students of versification. Its most Gallic characteristic, after a habit of bluntly calling other authors wrong, is a tendency to substitute assumption for demonstration, and to mistake assertion for proof. Because of this it presents less cogently than might be the author's ideas, some of which are original. The most notable of these appears on page 63: "Rhythm and metre are two distinct entities." Apparently (from pages 8, 65, 66, 176, 184, and others) by "rhythm" is meant prose-rhythm and by "metre" verse-rhythm. This distinction and the conception of the two as coexisting in poetry seem valuable and original.

M. Madelin, who a few years ago produced an excellent work on Fouché, now publishes a thick volume entitled "Rome sous Napoleon" (Plon). The title explains itself, and the book will maintain the author's reputation, though the interest is hardly equal to that of his earlier work.

Dr. Hugo von Tschudi, the director of the Berlin "Nationalgalerie," has put students of German art under obligation by publishing what may be called a monumental illustrated catalogue of the great Menzel exhibition, held at Berlin in the spring of last year. The large quarto volume, entitled "Adolph von Menzel. Abbildungen seiner Gemälde und Studien—Auf Druck von der Kgl. Nationalgalerie im Frühjahr 1905 veranstalteten Ausstellung" (München: Bruckmann), contains, in 661 zinc etchings and 25 photogravures, reproductions of the best of the master's oil paintings and water-color sketches, chronologically arranged, with brief descriptive comments on each individual piece. The impression produced by this condensed conspectus of the life work of the great German realist is truly astounding. One feels at a glance that here there is a man full worthy to be placed by the side of Dürer and Holbein, and one cannot help wondering how it was possible that there should have been a time when his work was overshadowed, in the

public estimation, by the glittering stage effects of a Kaulbach or Piloty. An interesting supplement to this volume is afforded by another publication, also by Dr. von Tschudi, entitled "Aus Menzels jungen Jahren" (Berlin: Grote), largely consisting of reproductions of Menzel's early works and containing some fifty letters of his, written between 1836 and 1853. Here we see the young artist struggling, practically all alone and surrounded by a world of conventionality and platitude, for that mastery of nature and that grasp of every form of the visible which finally, after he had found his hero in Frederick the Great, won for him the position of the greatest artistic interpreter of Prussian character. Dr. von Tschudi's own observations on the peculiarity, the power as well as the limitations, of Menzel's art belong to the best things that have been said about him.

The work of preparing new quarters for the Vatican picture gallery has been going on for some two months, and may be finished by the end of this year. Ever since his accession the present Pope has cherished the design of building a new gallery in the Vatican, over the long wing of the Galleria Lapidaria, both on account of the insecurity of the present gallery, and because this part of the palace is needed for other purposes. It was found, however, that this plan involved too great an expenditure of money and time, and an easier solution of the problem has been found. The new gallery will occupy a part of the long wing on the west side of the Cortile del Belvedere, on the street leading to the entrance of the museum, and opposite the Vatican gardens. Each of the great masterpieces of the present collection—the Transfiguration, the Madonna di Foligno, and the Communion of St. Jerome—will have its own room, and in the new gallery will be placed all the pictures by the old masters that are now scattered in different parts of the palace, besides those in the present collection. No modern pictures will be hung here. It is with something of a shock that we hear that the new gallery is to be equipped with all modern improvements in heating, lighting, and ventilating.

The little book entitled "Our Common Wild Flowers," by Alice M. Dowd (Richard G. Badger), is a reading-book for common schools. It has grown out of the writer's needs as a teacher, and has been prepared with loving care for her own pupils. But it is likely to meet the needs of other teachers who desire to give their students a glimpse of some of the outside relations of plants, and especially the interesting folk-lore. No one must expect to find in this book any key to names of plants or any means of strictly identifying even the round hundred with which the author deals; it is simply to serve as a pleasant introduction to a wider knowledge of certain phases of the life of our common plants. We do not feel quite sure that the writer is a safe guide in matters of teleology, or the doctrine of final causes, if we can take the following extract as an indication (page 19): "Jack" (that is, Jack-in-the-pulpit) "is related also to the skunk-cabbage and to the calla-lily. Both of these plants have the same general plan of flowers that Jack

possesses. They have worked from the same pattern, but one has developed disagreeable traits, *while the other has made itself pure and beautiful.*" Of course, the italics are ours.

Miss A. M. Clerke's "System of the Stars" (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: The Macmillan Co.) is a second edition; but it has been subjected to such drastic revision, that scarce a page has escaped material modification, and it may be considered as substantially a new production. It first appeared in 1890, when the present system of astronomical observation, which almost revolutionizes the work, had hardly come into use. In 1890 the direct optical observation of the heavens was the rule, and scientific observation of photographs was the exception; while at present, at all the great observatories, it is the photographs that are mainly relied upon in physical astronomy, and direct observation is only resorted to exceptionally. Miss Clerke thoroughly understands the work of observatories, their problems and their methods; but the peculiar merit of her writings lies in the judgment with which she selects the topics which will be the most interesting to the auditory that she addresses. Although the present publication followed soon after her "Problems of Astrophysics" (a book of which a well-worn copy will be found in every observatory), it does not traverse the same ground. The object of the present work is to instruct the general reader, while that of the "Problems" was rather to suggest to astronomers the manner in which the frontier of their advances might best be rectified. Upon one point a note of warning may be sounded. Regarding all those problems toward the solution of which astronomy is advancing by well-settled methods, Miss Clerke's representation of the present state of its siege-operations is in every way admirable; yet on certain questions so much remains doubtful that no definitive answers to them ought now to be attempted. One such question is whether the visible universe occupies but a finite region of infinite space. There are indications which seem to point to such limitation; but sound logic must still counsel a suspension of opinion. Miss Clerke writes as if it were quite certain that we see only to a limited distance. The volume contains beautiful new plates, reproductions of some of the best of the celestial photographs. Of course, they cannot show all that is to be seen upon the originals. The index is excellent.

In "Morgan's Cavalry" (Neale Publishing Company) General Basil W. Duke, who fought under John Morgan, gives some account of various raids in which he took part. His point of view is that of a Kentucky man who went South; and what is of most interest in the volume is the description of the straits to which the Kentucky secession regiments were driven in the last period of the war, especially after the surrender of Lee and Johnston.

—A rivulet as it flows to the sea is lost in a great river, so that to follow its course involves a survey of the mighty flood. That exactly illustrates the History of the Twentieth Massachusetts Volunteers, a matchless regiment of the Second Corps in the Army of the Potomac, as prepared

by Col. George A. Bruce (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Col. Bruce, who, "although serving in the same army, never even saw" the regiment, justifies his selection by its Officers' Association as its historian, by developing an admirable account of the minor organization into a clear and fascinating exposition of the great operations in Virginia in which it took part. The Seven Days, Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, especially Gettysburg, and the long year of attrition that closed at Appomattox, live again. The forceful but unexaggerated accounts of those great conflicts, of why they occurred, and what followed, make a distinctly valuable contribution to military history, useful and interesting to survivors and to non-participating students alike. The experience of the field illuminates where a writer in the closet might fail to see the situation. Thus, after the salient at Spotsylvania was carried, there was no mounted staff to rectify the line disorganized by victory and to lead supports to it, for every officer had necessarily gone in on foot. But the "men on horseback were swiftly flying to various parts of the [Army of Northern Virginia] to bring up fresh and organized troops to meet the greatest danger that had ever yet threatened it" (p. 371). Lights like this flash across the whole story. There is no pretence of describing more than was done by the Second Corps, of which the Twentieth Massachusetts was an organic part, but within that limitation the illustrations are vivid. Examples of such sidelights are the forcing of the Rappahannock and the fight on the right at Fredericksburg, Pickett's repulse at Gettysburg, the negative Mine Run campaign, the operations beyond Deep Bottom, the Ream's Station disaster in August, 1864, and the just eulogy of Warren—who saved the day, perhaps the nation, when the key of Little Round Top was held by the heroic soldier whose genius and courage later preserved the Second Corps at Bristoe and upon whom fell so sad and undeserved a fate when victory was in sight in 1865.

—In all this turmoil the regiment is not lost sight of; it is a constant figure in the kaleidoscope of war. So many of its original officers were recent graduates of Harvard that locally it was known as the Harvard regiment. That the nobility of letters compelled to daring is seen in its bloody distinction of being fifth on the roll of those that suffered the heaviest losses of the war. Fifty-five officers and seven hundred and ten men were killed or wounded in action, and at one time but one officer and ten men were left with the colors. It is not invidious to say that it developed a superb military showing under the leadership of Palfrey, Revere, and Abbott; that, besides losing heavily of its young officers in the earlier campaigns, eleven attained the grade of brevet-general, nor to remind the reader that the thrice-wounded Justice Holmes of the Supreme Court was mustered in at its formation. This volume deserves large folded maps to replace the meagre ones it offers, and it is too valuable to remain, like a novel or a fairy tale, without an index.

—As volume v. of the "Documentary History of the Constitution" (Department of State, Washington) contains an appendix

and a bibliography, it may be assumed to be the final volume. As such it again raises the question of the purpose and performance of the undertaking. Undoubtedly, the "documents" relating to the framing and adoption of the Constitution and its amendments would make an interesting and valuable compilation, and those documents are, for the most part, in the Department of State. But by seeking to include what mention of the instrument was to be found in the various collections of private correspondence on deposit in the Department, the editor changed the nature of the work, and has failed to give even what was fit and proper. It is not a documentary history, because a large part of it is composed of extracts from private letters, and documents play a secondary part. It is not a complete history, because it is confined to material found in the Department of State, other sources being entirely ignored. It is not even a final use of this material; because the extracts, torn from their context, mislead rather than instruct, and the form of publication is awkward, even if an index is to follow. It is to be regretted that so costly an issue was not better considered at the outset, and some of these defects obviated. With certain useful features, the five volumes must take their place among the long list of Government undertakings that have failed to show the qualities that make for permanent value.

Ole Bang, the Norwegian actor, who has been much praised for his interpretation of Ibsen's characters in the vernacular, is to play here in English next winter. He is not altogether unknown in this city, having appeared in "Peer Gynt" in the Manhattan Theatre. His English repertory includes a one-act comedy, "Love by Compulsion," "Peer Gynt," and "The Lady and the Burglar." In this last piece he is to play the heroine. It is doubtful whether experiments of this kind are ever worthy the attention of a serious actor. In the Ibsen piece Agnes Mapes will be Solveig and Miss Talcott the Troll.

The indisputable dramatic power displayed by Miss Margaret Anglin in the interpretation of certain phases of emotional excitement has excited curiosity as to the range of her ability. Hitherto her most successful achievements have been mainly along one line of character, and have left the extent of her versatility a matter of uncertainty. Manifestly if she can play other parts as well as she does those of repentant, agonized, and passionately protesting sinners, her artistic value, already considerable, will be much increased. Her programme for her approaching season at the Princess Theatre has the merit of variety. She will be seen first in a piece by Prof. William Vaughan Moody of Chicago, called "The Great Divide," but apparently identical with "A Sabine Woman," which has already had a provincial trial. The main interest lies in the conflict between two strongly contrasted natures and the eventual triumph of love. Here is the ancient "Ingomar" theme with modern variations. Next Miss Anglin will produce "The Eternal Feminine," a romance of antiquity, in which she will be seen as an Amazonian queen; and this will be followed by a revival of "Mrs. Dane's Defence," in which she made one of her

earliest hits. After this she proposes to essay the character of Lady Teazle in an elaborate reproduction of "The School for Scandal."

Louis James has almost completed the cast of "The Merry Wives of Windsor," to be presented in various cities of this country the coming season. He himself, of course, will play Falstaff. Aphie James will be the Mrs. Ford; Charlotte Lambert, Mrs. Page; Lillian Lancaster, Anne Page; Nellie McHenry, Mrs. Quickly; Norman Hackett, Master Ford; J. Arthur Young, Pistol; and William Chrystie Miller, Master Shallow, the part he played with Hackett forty years ago.

The new comedy upon which J. M. Barrie is at work is expected to be ready next spring. As it has been secured by Charles Frohman, New Yorkers are likely to see it early. Hall Caine is to provide a new version of "The Bondman" for the autumn season at Drury Lane Theatre, London. Arthur Pinero's latest comedy, which is said to be written in his lighter vein, of which he has been too sparing lately, will be produced probably within a year's time. Edmond Rostand has written a comedy drama in blank verse for Miss Eleanor Robson. The piece is to be called "The Lady of Dreams," and the English version is to be made by Louis A. Parker, who has had much experience in such affairs.

Shakspeare will be fairly represented upon the London stage next season. Arthur Bouchier expects to produce "Much Ado About Nothing." Mr. Tree, as already reported, is to give "A Winter's Tale," with Ellen Terry as Hermione, and, a little later on, is to undertake the trying character of Macbeth. There is to be a Macbeth also at the Adelphi Theatre, where the guilty Thane will be impersonated by Oscar Asche, who has shown potentialities of a great tragic actor.

The London dramatic season, which ended with the month of June, was not at all a good one for managers in general. About one hundred plays were produced in the twelve months, and of these, if the local chroniclers are to be believed, less than one-third paid expenses. Only about half-a-dozen productions returned very large profits, and among these, "His House in Order" and "Captain D'ew on Leave" are reported as the most successful. Among the plays which had but a brief existence, six—"Clarice," "The Jury of Fate," "A Gilded Fool," "The School for Husbands," "The Lion and the Mouse," and "Shore Acres"—were by Americans; and four—"The Conqueror," "The Bond of Ninon," "The Lonely Millionaires," and "The Macleans of Bairness"—were written by English women; while two—"The Gay Lord Vergy" and "The Whirlwind"—were of French origin.

George Wright of Halifax started, some time ago, a crusade against the use of profane language upon the stage, and has written letters to many newspapers in Canada and the United States, asking aid in making protest against a vulgar and offensive practice. Every decent playgoer will wish him success; though it is to be feared he is not engaged upon a very hopeful task. But, after all, it is not the occasional use of a profane or coarse expression that is the chief offence of the modern stage. Probably less bad language is uttered behind the

footlights to-day than a generation ago. In any case, the injury done by it is not very serious. What does do harm is the exhibition of a cynical disregard for the laws of elementary morality, the presentation of vice in an attractive light, and the exposure of abnormal abominations as fair examples of that human nature to which the theatre is supposed to hold up the mirror.

The Wagner festival opened at Bayreuth on Monday. Many Americans and many European notables were present. Herr Mottl was the conductor. Alfred Bary sang the part of Tristan and Maria Wittich that of Isolde.

Two of the notable musical festivals in England this autumn are the Hereford, September 11 to 14, and the Birmingham, October 2 to 5. The programme of Hereford includes a new work by Dr. H. W. Davies, "Lift Up Your Hearts"; and one by Sir H. Parry, "The Soul's Ransom." At Birmingham a new work by Sir Edward Elgar, entitled "The Kingdom," will be produced. London will hear it on November 17, at a concert of the Alexandra Palace Choral and Orchestral Society.

Miss Elizabeth Dodge, an American soprano, made her first appearance in London at Æolian Hall a fortnight ago. Her best successes were with French songs. In the same week Miss Irene Ainsley, a native of New Zealand, a protégée of Madame Melba and a student of Madame Mathilde Marchesi in Paris, also made her début in London. Although she has not yet completed her studies, she displays a fine contralto voice.

In the first week of August four concerts are to be given at Asbury Park by the Besses o' th' Barn band from England—a band which takes its name from a quaint old Lancashire village of that name, and which consists of men who have been employed as laborers in factories and coal mines.

Unable, or unwilling, to pay American prices to musicians, the Royal Opera at Berlin is losing all its leading artists. Miss Farrar and Miss Destinn went a short time ago, and now it is Muck. Thus the *Tageblatt* announced the engagement of Dr. Muck for the Boston Symphony Orchestra:

While it is still uncertain whether the Royal Opera can retain Felix Weingartner as conductor of its orchestra's concerts, another hard blow has fallen on this institution: Dr. Karl Muck, who is, by the side of Richard Strauss, the most prominent and competent conductor of our royal stage, and one of the best in Germany, leaves us to conduct the symphony concerts in Boston. It is true that Dr. Muck has taken the Boston position only for one year, and has been allowed leave of absence by the Kaiser for the remainder of the period covered by his Berlin contract. But as this contract expires in the autumn of 1907, and the Bostonians will doubtless make great efforts to win the distinguished conductor for their orchestra permanently, we must, alas! count on his absolute loss to Berlin. It is an exceptionally heavy loss that the Royal Opera is thus to suffer, and it is doubly painful because it is an open secret that it is not for artistic reasons that Dr. Muck leaves Berlin, but solely because the material advantages he enjoys here are inferior to those offered him in Boston. The Dollar has once more won a victory.

Dr. Muck is at present in Bayreuth, con-

ducting some of the festival performances.

The Germans assert that the late Carl Lautenschläger was the first who made use of electric light on the stage. He certainly was the most ingenious "Theatertechniker" of his country. His name first became known in the eighties, when rumor told of marvellous things he did to carry out the extraordinary scenic plans devised by King Ludwig II. of Bavaria for his "Separat" performances in Munich, at which the King was the sole spectator. Without Lautenschläger's aid Mr. Conried could not have surpassed Bayreuth in the scenic presentation of "Parsifal" in New York. He was the inventor of the "Drehbühne," or rotary stage, which made it possible to present changes of scenery with unprecedented quickness. He died of cancer, aged sixty-three years.

Max Reger, whose first orchestral work, the "Sinfonietta," was one of the most widely discussed novelties of the past season in Germany, has completed another work of symphonic dimensions, a serenade in four movements. Reger belongs to the same class of Germans as Richard Strauss and Mahler, men who, since the divine gift of originating new melodies is denied them, vainly seek to atone for that by indulging in complexity, cacophony, and eccentric orchestral combinations. Regarding Reger's new serenade we are informed that the wind and percussion instruments (flutes, oboes, clarinets, bassoons, trumpets, horns, and drums) are restricted to two each, while the strings, with the exception of the double basses, are divided into two orchestras, which are to be grouped to the conductor's right and left, one of them playing *con sordina* throughout.

Hans Richter's successor in Vienna, Franz Schalk (who is favorably remembered by music-lovers here through his engagement by Mr. Grau to succeed Anton Seidl at the Metropolitan Opera House), gave some interesting information regarding music in Vienna to a London journalist the other day. He is the conductor of the Vienna Philharmonic, which, as he pointed out, is really the Court orchestra of the Emperor, by whom the organization is maintained at a yearly expense of over \$125,000. The Emperor also defrays the cost of new instruments. The members of the band are mostly Austrians, but there are a few Czechs, Hungarians, Serbs, and Dutchmen, as well as some North Germans, who excel as brass players as the French do with the woodwind. The principal players are professors at the Conservatory.

To the question: "Do you rehearse a great deal?" Mr. Schalk replied: "Not so very much. For a concert we have generally three rehearsals, but when there is a very hard programme, five or six, and group rehearsals besides." Mr. Schalk also pointed out "the significant fact that so many of the great conductors of the day—Sucher, Richter, Nikisch, Mottl, Mahler—have come out of the Vienna school." He thinks that on the whole the conducting of concerts is not so exacting as that of operas, which requires great presence of mind and coping with a multitude of forces and accidents which cannot be foreseen. "The concert conductor marches up the hill, so to say, free; but the opera conductor has several loads on his back."

Vienna had, last season, four performances of Wagner's "Nibelung Trilogy," and a dozen of "Die Meistersinger," all of which Mr. Schalk conducted.

Putnam Griswold, the American basso, who distinguished himself in Mr. Savage's performances of "Parsifal," is making a good record in Berlin. The correspondent of the *Musical Leader and Concert-Goer* says:

His leading rôles are those of the King in "Lohengrin," the Landgrave in "Tannhäuser," King Mark in "Tristan," and Pogner in "Meistersinger." He has a well-rounded, well-schooled voice and only needs more dramatic accent in his diction and singing to make him one of the leading Wagnerian basses. He was singled out for royal distinction during the recent festivities connected with the silver wedding celebration of the Kaiser and Kaiserin. The order, which is designated as a "Souvenir of the Silver Wedding," is hereditary, and not to be returned to the crown, as is the case with most German orders.

The extraordinary influence of Liszt on the creative musicians is becoming more and more obvious. Reviewing the latest *Tonkünstlerfest* at Essen, in the *Etude*, Arthur Elson writes: "At present all the ambitious young men indulge in symphonic poems"; and he gives the names. It was Liszt who invented the symphonic poem.

London has a String Quartette consisting of young women players—Mes. Henriette Schmidt, Marie Rodriguez, Jeane Levine, and Hélène Dolmetsch—whose playing is praised in the *Musical Times*. We may perhaps be permitted patriotically to doubt whether this quartette is as good as our American Olive Mead Quartette, for the simple reason that this is excelled by very few male organizations of the kind on either continent.

The most irrepressible Wagner crank in the world is Ashton Ellis of London. Some years ago he began to translate the last edition of Glasenapp's "Life of Wagner" into English. That work promises, when completed, to make up seven or eight huge volumes. Soon, Mr. Ellis began to show signs of dissatisfaction. Glasenapp was as thorough as any German professor, but he was so foolish as to throw away the litter that had accumulated in his workshop. This broke Mr. Ellis's heart. His idea of a biography is a series of volumes containing everything ever written or spoken by a man, or about him. No laundry list must be left unprinted. Accordingly, he soon parted company with Glasenapp, and began to shovel in loads of data about Wagner, rubbish and all. His fourth volume included a period of only two years. The fifth, just out, covers less than one year—the year 1855, in which occurs the London episode which Mr. Ellis himself calls "little more than a waste of time on Wagner's part." Why, then, waste a whole volume on it? Wagner died in 1883. That leaves twenty-eight more years to cover, and it is needless to say that the period from 1855 to 1883 offers much more choice and abundant material to a biographer than the period 1813-1855. Are we to assume, therefore, that Mr. Ellis's "Life of Wagner" will ultimately comprise at least thirty-three volumes?

Although Gluck's opera "Armide" was produced in Paris 129 years ago, it was given in England for the first time this month—at Covent Garden, London.

VOLTAIRE.

The Life of Voltaire. By S. G. Tallentyre. With Illustrations. Third edition. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3.50.

Voltaire is, to critics imbued with the spirit of the English people, a character all but incomprehensible. Nor is the cause hard to discover. English or American readers form their estimate of men upon the tacit assumption that no person, however great, deserves admiration or even moral toleration, who does not possess the qualities of a gentleman; any hero must be distinguished by moral dignity, by self-control, and, above all, by truthfulness. The mountebank, the slave to passion, or the liar is not a gentleman, and hence he cannot be in any sense a hero. Now Voltaire fell as conspicuously short of the gentlemanlike standard as did Napoleon, and, to many Englishmen and Americans, never seemed deserving of high place among men who have benefited mankind. He was, for example, from boyhood deficient in self-control. After reaching the age when passion might have been restrained by experience and by the sense of what was due to his own eminence, he still yielded to childish and furious anger. Some one had tampered with the acting copy of his play. He thereupon fell into a rage which lasted twelve hours. He forced his niece to confess her share in the outrage, and pushed her into a chair, or into the arms of her lover. He then sent for D'Argental, and, when his old friend arrived, abused him. He finally ended up with humble and generous apologies. This is pretty well for the greatest of living French writers at the age of eighty-four.

But the violence of his emotions had nothing to do with senility. His vehement restlessness, which was the weak side of his superhuman energy, was his most marked characteristic. Voltaire, whether kissing the hand of Turgot, "who has signed the salvation of the people"; whether lamenting the death of Madame du Châtelet and at the very same moment insulting her worthless lover, Saint-Lambert. In language too coarse for repetition; whether adoring or vilifying Frederick the Great—is always the man of strong and (to Anglo-Saxon taste) undignified emotion. In nothing is he cool but in his arguments and in his lucid and simple prose. Nor is it possible to deny that he exhibits too often a touch of the mountebank. Napoleon himself did not know better how to keep himself before the world. His life was a long conflict—and to win victory he needed to hold the eyes of Europe constantly fixed upon the intellectual contests in which he invariably came out victorious. Nor was this the worst that could be said of him. His piercing glance betrayed to him the weaknesses of courts and of kings. Louis the Fifteenth was the most contemptible; yet Voltaire sought for the favors which Louis could give, and felt the rebuffs which the most despicable of the Bourbons could inflict. When in old age he had become the acknowledged leader of European thought, he was troubled because Joseph II. passed through Ferney without calling upon him.

Add to all this that Voltaire habitually

told lies; Napoleon was not a more fertile and reckless liar. Voltaire printed hardly a book of which he did not deny the authorship. The denial, made with a view to avoid official suppression of his writings, became at last what lawyers call a "common form." It was nothing else than the advertisement that Voltaire had published a more than usually pungent attack on folly or superstition. Even the war with intolerance, which was the business of his life, was marked by singular concessions to the bigots whom he detested. To build a church, or to scandalize even free-thinkers by brazen-faced confessions, followed by the solemn taking of the sacrament, may be regarded as methods of insulting the priesthood and religion; but his obtaining for one of his plays the patronage of the Pope, and still more his astounding readiness to make confession to a priest on his deathbed, were acts which, though they deceived no one as to Voltaire's sentiments, deprived even the hour of death of its dignity.

No, it is impossible for any sophist, however ingenious, to prove that Voltaire was what Englishmen mean by a gentleman. But, if this concession be made, have we advanced a step towards showing that the writer who for twenty years or more was the intellectual sovereign of Continental Europe, lacked all the elements of greatness? Whoever feels inclined to answer this inquiry in the affirmative would do well, under the guidance of Mr. Tallentyre, to consider with care the splendid sides of Voltaire's singularly mixed character.

Voltaire was born with a genius for friendship; he was a man of heart and of feeling. The strange and even repulsive relationship between him and Madame du Châtelet has an element of pathos. To her he made constant sacrifices. He was faithful to her in spirit after she had deserted him for the most undeserving of lovers. Every word he wrote or uttered after her death showed deep respect for her talents. Few could have tolerated the stupidity and egotism of Madame Denis, but to her he was the most kindly and good-natured of uncles. The admiration and the enmity which linked together Voltaire and Frederick the Great by a bond too strong to be broken by either betrays on both sides a capacity for affection which few men, whether despots or scribblers, possess. No one again can be a hero to his valet, yet Voltaire earned the admiration and the affection of secretaries who curiously combined the character of amanuensis and servant. He stood the test of the closest domestic scrutiny, and all his secretary-servants—Longchamp, Collini, and Wagnière, by far the most deserving of the three—while they recognized his faults, have recorded their conviction of his goodness and kindness. With two of these defenders he parted because of their gross misconduct towards him, and this at a time when their misbehavior exposed him to grave peril; yet in parting he loaded them with favors. It is, indeed, one of the most curious traits of character that the man who sometimes pursued his foes with relentless hatred, exhibited towards friends, even when, as in the case of Thériot and La Harpe, they had betrayed his confidence, a spirit of forgiveness.

In his lenient judgment of his friends' vices you may, if you like, trace a certain contempt for human nature. But surely it is fairer to say that cynicism passed gradually into charity. Here, however, we come across a characteristic to which Mr. Tallentyre has given deserved prominence, namely, Voltaire's practical devotion to the actual service of mankind. He was no prating philanthropist. He took a low, some might say a true, view of human nature, but he constantly sought to relieve miseries of humanity. His home at Ferney was the refuge of the destitute and the oppressed. His fatherly adoption of Marie Cernille was a noble tribute to a writer whom he profoundly admired, but it was also an act of loving humanity. Made-moiselle de Varicourt was not descended from any illustrious author. She was nothing but the niece of one among six poor gentlemen whose estate Voltaire had reclaimed from a body of Jesuits. He took her to his heart and home, he named her "Belle-et-Bonne," adopted her as a daughter, and received from her to the day of his death the reward of a daughter's love. But, though individuals attracted his affection, whole classes received his sympathy and his aid. The watchmakers and weavers of Ferney owed their prosperity to the genius, the energy, and the benevolence of Voltaire.

Philanthropy itself, however, was with him exceeded by the rarer and nobler sentiment of irreconcilable enmity to injustice. Whoever was wronged found in Voltaire the terrible advocate whose words could arouse Europe so that wrong-doers dared not face the shame of his indignation. The names of Lally, of La Barr, of the Sirvens, and, above all, of Calas, demonstrate the power of his invective, and, also, the zeal with which he performed the prophetic function of denouncing oppression. To appreciate his energetic discharge of a duty which most of us neglect, is of the more importance because it goes far to explain, if not to justify, that attack on religion which has most shocked the conscience of devout Englishmen, and is summed up in the famous watchword, "Écrasez l'infâme." The exact significance of this war-cry is matter of dispute. "L'infâme," writes Mr. Tallentyre, "cannot be translated by any single word; but if it must be, the best rendering of it is Intolerance." Our author nearly, but not quite, hits the mark. To Voltaire's opponents we must admit that his watchword meant at the lowest: "War to the knife with superstition," and that "superstition" in Voltaire's mouth included beliefs which now-a-days command the respect of all persons imbued with the sentiment of Christianity. But, when this is fully admitted, two considerations go far to explain Voltaire's position, and may entitle him to the sympathy of many who abhor language which outrages Christian feeling.

The first is, that the object at which Voltaire aimed was attainable and justifiable. On June 3, 1760, he writes to Frederick: "I want you to crush *l'infâme*; that is the great point. It must be reduced to the same condition as it is in England. You can do it if you will. It is the great-

est service one can render to humankind." All that he demanded was religious liberty, as it existed in England under George III. No man can say that the demand was unreasonable. The second is, that Voltaire saw with a clearness denied to most men the terrible and close connection between superstition and injustice. This connection is neither transitory nor accidental. Fanaticism is in every age the ally of fraud and oppression. The Dreyfus case proves that the spirit which in the eighteenth century murdered and tortured Calas might revive in full force towards the end of the nineteenth century; and Zola's defence of Dreyfus shows also that Voltaire did not labor in vain.

The attack upon oppression was the true work of his life. In this he was absolutely sincere. He told lie after lie, but he never descended to that most insidious form of falsehood under which a man forsakes his own convictions. The queer rumor, apparently credited by Mr. Tallentyre, that Voltaire was to be silenced by receiving a cardinal's hat, must have been a grim jest, though men with all his vices and none of his virtues have been cardinals. But the joke showed a complete misapprehension of Voltaire. He never deserted the cause to which he was devoted. Hence he handed down to French men of letters the inspiring tradition which has lived on till our own day, that it was their duty and glory to defend innocence against tyranny and bigotry. From this point of view Voltaire's triumphal return to Paris has a significance that is often forgotten. It was indeed a theatrical affair; its showiness seems all the more ghastly because the applause of adoring crowds caused the death of their hero. Yet the triumph was something more than a show: it was more even than the recognition by the French people of the services rendered by Voltaire to mankind. It was the public celebration of the triumph of justice and enlightenment. Yet Voltaire's last days exhibit, as did every hour of his life, the hardly explicable combination of bad and good, of pettiness and of magnanimity. The miserable attempt, which would be purely laughable were it not so mournful, to impose upon the priests and obtain a decent burial by impudent and unreal confessions, shocks every serious reader. But then, side by side with this buffoonery, we can place Voltaire's one solemn statement of his belief, written in a firm hand, at what he believed to be his last hour: "I die adoring God, loving my friends, not hating my enemies, and detesting superstition. February 28, 1778. VOLTAIRE."

JACKSONIAN DEMOCRACY.

Jacksonian Democracy, 1829-1837. [The American Nation: A History. Volume xv.] By William MacDonald, LL.D. New York: Harper & Bros. \$2 net.

"The American Nation" was first announced as a history "from original sources," a statement which in fact is printed on the title-page of each volume. The phrase doubtless conveys different meanings to different people; but in the strictest sense a history written from the

sources is generally understood to be one based upon an exhaustive analysis of all the original material, one in which no statement of any importance is made on any other authority. A twenty-seven volume history of the United States written from the sources in this strict sense would prove certainly a difficult and protracted undertaking. The very rapidity with which "The American Nation" has been published might lead one with some justice to suspect that the terms of the editor's prospectus had been rather liberally construed. Strictly speaking, the present volume is doubtless not written from the sources, nor would the author, we suppose, claim for it the merit of an original contribution. Nevertheless, Professor MacDonald has for the most part gone straight to the sources, his knowledge of which, as the footnotes make abundantly clear, is extensive if not exhaustive; the examination and use of the Van Buren and Jackson MSS. furnishing an example precisely of his care in this matter. The result is a book that is no mere compilation, but a thoroughly well-considered product of first-hand knowledge, likely to remain, we should say, for a long time to come, by far the most useful exposition of the eight years of Jackson's Administration anywhere to be found.

In preparing for a general series of this kind a single volume of which the conditions have been rather rigidly prescribed by the editor, the problem of unity, one can readily conceive, must be a difficult one, whether considered from the point of view of the series or of the single volume. How successfully the work of Professor MacDonald articulates with the succeeding volumes we are not able to say, as these volumes have not yet appeared; indeed the problem of unity in this respect is more particularly the concern of the editor. Considered apart from the series, the work of Professor MacDonald strikes one, at a first reading, as being a series of essays, chronologically arranged for the most part, rather than a coherent exposition of Jacksonian Democracy. After the two preliminary chapters on "The United States in the Thirties" and "Early Public Life of Jackson," the subject is broken up as follows: "Election of 1823," "The Beginning of Personal Politics" (1829-1837), "Tariff and Nullification" (1816-1829), "The Great Debate," "The Bank of the United States" (1823-1832), "Internal Improvements" (1796-1837), "Nullification in South Carolina," "Indian Affairs" (1825-1837), "Election of 1832," "Foreign Affairs" (1829-1837), "Removal of the Deposits" (1832-1837), "Changes and Reforms" (1829-1837), "The States" (1829-1837), "Public Lands" (1829-1837), "The Election of 1836," "The Personality of Jackson." Obviously there is here little effort to maintain a strict chronological sequence, and if unity be achieved it is not through continuity of narrative. In spite of the topical method, a certain unity of effect nevertheless emerges, the element of coherence being furnished by the personality of Jackson and the democratic revolution which he embodied so perfectly—a revolution founded in the new ideas which Western influence was bringing prominently forward to be embodied eventually in the new Democratic party. If, therefore, the reader passes from a consideration of per-

sonal politics to the tariff and nullification, from the great debate to the Bank and internal improvements with a certain abruptness (an abruptness which the author, indeed, does little in his chapter transitions to soften), he feels, after all, that these various matters are but the concrete forms which embody the new spirit; the masterful personality of Jackson contriving to inform them all with a significance that is much the same.

Nevertheless, the comprehensive treatment of the subject as a whole is not Professor MacDonald's strong point; his forte is in the management of the particular topic, nearly every chapter being an admirable presentation of the subject with which it deals. It would be difficult to imagine a better summary of the early career of Jackson, a clearer discussion of the election of 1828, a more skilful disentangling of the interwoven threads of the tariff and nullification controversies. Having isolated his topic, as it were, the author exhibits an unflinching instinct for selecting what is essential, marked lucidity in exposition, and a certain artistic neatness in the use of minor details, which serve to give to his work an excellence of form too often wanting nowadays in "scientific history." To these qualities must be added those which make for excellence of matter as distinguished from excellence of form. Professor MacDonald has in a pre-eminent degree that mental attitude which may properly be called historical. One feels that all of the evidence has been carefully weighed; the conclusions, uninfluenced by any preconception whatever, are such as one rarely feels inclined to dissent from. The most searching test in this respect likely to be put to the author of any book on Jacksonian Democracy has been met by Professor MacDonald in a way that leaves nothing to be desired. He is obviously no worshipper of Jackson, never having experienced, we dare say, anything of that enthusiasm which Old Hickory still sometimes arouses. But that his sympathies are clearly for a different type of man altogether does not prevent Professor MacDonald from fixing, with a sure hand, upon the real importance of Jackson in history, his real greatness as a man.

Yet one cannot but feel that, however unformed or contradictory his theories or his actions, Jackson nevertheless had hold of the right end of the matter in every one of the great issues of his administrations. His attack upon the Bank was brutal, but the Bank was nevertheless a gigantic monopoly whose abatement was of inestimable benefit to the political and economic life of the country. His notions about hard money were visionary, but the paper-money situation was a grave menace. . . . His treatment of France was brusque, but the claim of the United States was just, and there was but one language that France could understand. His acquiescence in the aggression of Georgia upon the Cherokee was a direct encouragement of nullification in South Carolina, but the maintenance of the Indian pretensions was impossible. In his mental processes Jackson showed the intuition of woman rather than the reason of man, but what he saw he saw directly, and from his main course he never varied (p. 310).

To hit the mark in this fashion is the rule rather than the exception throughout the entire volume.

Careful investigation, sane conclusions, clear and orderly presentation, are thus the very solid merits of Professor Mac-

Donald's work; and if the brilliant or striking phrase, profound insight, highly suggestive or illuminating idea is rarely in evidence, the fatal omissions and faulty logic which so often accompany these qualities are also absent. There is one pervading characteristic of this period in our history which one might have expected would be brought out—which the Webster-Hayne debate, indeed, furnishes altogether the best opportunity of bringing out prominently; which a statement of the author regarding Webster's speech nevertheless leads one to suppose has not been appreciated. Though giving Webster all due praise, certainly, in respect to his answer to the arguments of Hayne, Professor MacDonald concludes that, after all, he missed "the only vulnerable point of his opponent's position," which was, he goes on to say, "the failure to recognize the inevitable supremacy of the central Government, the inevitable subordination of the States in all matters over which the central authority had control, wherever such authority was not directly restrained by the letter of the Constitution" (p. 110). In supposing that Webster might have urged this point, it seems to the reviewer that something of the modern notion of evolution has been read back into the age of Jackson. That age was one in which men realized but little or not at all the "inevitable tendency"; one in which they concerned themselves much with the letter of the law, their eyes being steadily fixed upon what Burke might have called "rags and tags, and paltry blurred shreds of paper." It would hardly have strengthened Webster's position in his day, however it might have strengthened it in our own, to have used arguments that were not implicit in the Constitution. To fit the Union to the Constitution was what seemed both to Webster and to Calhoun to be the whole problem, different as were their respective interpretations of that Constitution; and their contemporaries were not yet prepared to listen to one who, like Lincoln, should speak of making the Constitution fit the Union. To solve all problems in the light of the Union as it was made, rather than in the light of the Union as it was making, was that pervading characteristic of which we have spoken—a characteristic which serves to explain much in the middle period, and one of which more might well have been made in the present volume.

All this, however, is a small matter, and if the coming volumes of the series measure up to the level of the one on Jacksonian Democracy, "The American Nation" will indeed have been a notable achievement.

A GERMAN VIEW OF MILITARY OPERATIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

The War in South Africa: the Advance to Pretoria After Paardeberg, the Upper Tugela Campaign, etc. Prepared in the Historical Section of the Great General Staff, Berlin. Authorized Translation by Col. Hubert Du Cane, R.A., M.V.O. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. vii., 374. With Maps and Illustrations. \$4 net.

The object of the Great General Staff at Berlin in undertaking this history of the

war in South Africa was the instruction of German officers, and the criticism which is embodied in this and the preceding volume, which was published in 1904, not only points out British faults and errors in tactics and manœuvres, but emphasizes what in the opinion of the Great General Staff ought to have been done in the situations which confronted the British commanders. While the book is written primarily for military purposes, it serves admirably as a history of the war for more general reading.

The authors of the work obviously regard war as a business, and a business always highly scientific. Consequently they adhere closely to what might be described as the business side, and ignore much that newspaper correspondents would dwell on. They tell the number of killed and wounded, with no sentiment, and no attempt to describe sufferings and horrors. But shortcomings in this respect, if shortcomings they are, are more than made good by graphic descriptions of the terrain; the clearness with which position of opposing forces is indicated; the careful balancing of the advantages and disadvantages of these positions, and the accounts of the engagements and their results.

These were the characteristics of the first volume, which was translated by Col. Waters, R.A. They are equally those of the second, which carries the narrative from the surrender of Cronje, at Paardeberg, on February, 1900, down to the flight of Kruger from Lorenzo Marquez, in September, 1900, and to the beginning of the guerrilla warfare which went on for a year and a half after there had ceased to be a permanent Transvaal Government or an organized Boer military force. This second volume contains the narrative of Lord Roberts's march from Kimberley to Bloemfontein; of Buller's desperate three months' campaigning on the Tugela before Ladysmith was relieved; and of Roberts's march from Bloemfontein to Johannesburg and Pretoria, as well as the story of the operations in the southeast of the Free State, of those to the northwest and southwest of Pretoria, and of those in the eastern Transvaal, between Middleburg and Koomatipoort, which immediately preceded Kruger's flight from Machadodorp, and Steyn's association with the guerrilla warfare in which De Wet, Viljoen, Louis Botha, Delarey, and other Boer commanders so long harassed the British forces.

Except as regards Lucas Meyer there is throughout this second volume a tone of restrained admiration for the Boer commanders. Their tactics are at times as freely criticised as those of Buller or Warren; especially in the series of fights that preceded Buller's final success in relieving Ladysmith, they are criticised for not acting on the aggressive or for failing to follow up the reverses of the British troops. The Boer military organization, in its lack of discipline, and the easy conditions under which the men were held to service, does not, of course, commend itself to officers of a conscript army like that of Germany; but for the resourcefulness, the mobility, and the courage of the Boers, and for their ability to handle their rifles, the authors of this history make no attempt to conceal their admiration. "It was,"

they write in a very brief résumé of the guerrilla warfare, "only the complete exhaustion of the Boers, the melting away of their forces, their want of clothing, ammunition, and food, the limitation placed upon their freedom of movement by the blockhouse system, and the destruction of their homes, which, after they had made a heroic fight of it, induced the commandos still remaining in the field to accept the British terms of peace."

Buller, among the British commanders, comes in for most criticism for his handling of the campaign in Natal. Each of his three failures to break through the Boer lines and relieve White is criticised in detail. In the fighting about Hussar Hill and Hlangwane, on the 14th of February, 1900, Buller refrained from pushing an attack on account of the great heat; and his conduct in this matter is contrasted unfavorably with that of Lord Roberts, who, on the same day, also in the burning heat, did a march of some thirty-two to thirty-four miles. According to the German conception this showed that Buller was wanting in energy; for "he could not though in an extremely critical situation bestir himself sufficiently to call on his troops for a special effort." Roberts also comes in for some criticism; for the criticism which in this and the preceding volume is directed against British commanders who persistently avoided risks rather than have to report long lists of casualties. The occasion for the criticism of Lord Roberts was the engagement at Sand River, which was one of the episodes of the march from Bloemfontein to Pretoria. An energetic frontal attack was here necessary, according to German ideas of war, "but in this, as in most of the subsequent actions," write the authors, "was exemplified the frequently adopted plan of holding the enemy in front while an enveloping movement was in progress. The object in view was to cause the enemy to evacuate his position merely as a consequence of a threat on his flanks and rear—a procedure which, though it tended to the reduction of the 'butcher's bill' could never culminate in the delivery of a knock-down blow."

Again and again the British commanders are criticised for this caution. The criticism is no doubt in order from the German point of view; but political conditions and considerations at home could not be overlooked by the British commanders, and they are never likely to be overlooked so long as the people of England from whom the rank and file of the army are drawn have the power of making protests immediately felt in the House of Commons. The German critics are on safer ground when they condemn the too close adherence of British commanders in actual warfare to tactics which have been rehearsed at Aldershot, or on Salisbury Plain, or when they condemn commanders for detaching too many men from their divisions for protecting transports and supplies and other minor services. All this criticism, however, is expressed with much restraint. Most of it is in chapters, specially devoted to criticism, and thus it does not detract from the value of the splendidly told narrative,

even for readers whose sympathies were not with the Boers.

TWO RECENT NOVELS.

The Awakening of Helena Richie. By Margaret Deland. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A Discrepant World. By the author of "Through Spectacles of Feeling," "The Haggard Side," etc. New York: Longmans, Green, & Co.

Mrs. Deland's latest novel opens and proceeds with a firm tread which has not always characterized her larger books. At the same time the accustomed fine inlay work that marks all her dealings with Old Chester and its inhabitants is here peerlessly present. Here is her Dr. Laven-dar at his richest; here the child David outdoing even her own admirable record in child portraits—a creation and a treasure. There is always in relation to the lovable Lavendar a haunting sense that he is at moments a thought too ostentatiously unprofessional. His superiority to cant is estimable and delightful, yet once and again he speaks as might a mathematician who did not believe in the efficacy of logarithms. But he is a fine old fellow. May Mrs. Deland never feel impelled to assert his mortality! It is with quite a pang that we find him in the present chronicle using a muffler and thinking "the seasons are changing." Yet great hopes lie in his maxim, "As soon as you feel too old to do a thing, do it." Dr. King and his wife, Martha by name and by nature, here stand out prominent human likenesses. The longestranged Benjamin and Samuel, father and son, with "Sam's Sam" in the third generation at once a battle ground and a link, are modelled with great skill; such violent personalities that they might only too easily have been burlesques, under Mrs. Deland's moulding, they wear their exaggerations with positive dignity, even as in their long quarrel "the very lack of seriousness in the cause made the effect more serious." Helena Richie, the heroine, in her grace and sweet febleness is as winning as the men-folk of Old Chester found her; and the history of her development under strained conditions is as little morbid and irrational as such a theme could well be.

Mrs. Deland has before this made laborious solutions of impossible problems. But her problem here though tangled is not unthinkable, and she has solved it in terms of high philosophy, deep religion and broad common sense. How did old Benjamin learn Helena's secret? She never knew. The reader can only wonder if it was by that searching look which is the subject of one of Mr. Clark's illustrations.

"A Discrepant World," sub-entitled "An Essay in Fiction," might be called, but for the correction of punning, a good many little essays embedded in fiction. The scene is a Scottish village; there is a real story; there are several real characters from a lord to a pussy-cat that purred "three threads and a thrum"; there are incidents as startling as a murder, and there are many deaths. Indeed, the reader asks if the mortality may not be caused by a lack of resource. The author puts his folk into promising dilemmas, then, like the heart

in the madrigal, "cannot disentangle," and has recourse to nature's method—always ready. Fortunately, the story is told with nature's own simplicity, and the resultant for the reader is a vast cheerfulness in woe.

But when all is said, the essays, sentiments, and reflections which the story flecks are the thing, and a pithy thing. Pith, as we understand it, is a central and ultimate fact, but at the same time a slight, delicate, and fleeting affair. Several pungent pages are given to the matter of bringing a railway to a village; the questions of whether and where it shall be built, the heartburnings of the rival villages, the dark methods of the promoter, give chance for spicy paragraphs on bribery and corruption. The small field and close range of village dimensions are as a microscope. Through it larger affairs may be studied and yield admonition. The provincial way of "graft" illuminates greater operations. Even he who runs may read a lesson written in words of one syllable. The story, too, flows in one syllable with excellent definition for several characters and with many bright glints of wit and wisdom.

"Why they should have chosen the word 'natural' in Scotland to describe a person of defective intellect, it is for national pride to discover"; "A certain amount of shrewdness is not incompatible with hopeless mental incapacity"; "It is only the wise that are kind"; to an unwelcome visitor, "The sooner you go the more I'll think of your visit," give an idea of the writer's way of putting things. It is a way that suggests a pair of keen eyes looking out from under shaggy eyebrows, with a twinkle and a softening—not quite a tear.

Vues d'Amérique, ou La Nouvelle Jouvence. By Paul Adam. Paris: Société d'Éditions Littéraires et Artistiques.

Paul Adam is the best fitted by temperament, probably, of all contemporary French men of letters to interpret to his compatriots the prosperity and power of the United States. He admires force for its own sake, without regard to its uses. Of martial ancestry; he aspired as a boy to a military career. During his young manhood he was desirous of becoming an explorer and colonist, and was at one time on the point of embarking for Australia. Indeed, it is his pet lament that circumstances have made him a man of thought instead of action. He wrote a eulogy of the anarchist assassin Ravachol, because, in his view, Ravachol symbolized the latent force of the downtrodden proletariat; and he threw himself heartily into the Boulangist movement because the general of the black charger symbolized force of another order. Among his best-known romances are a trilogy of "the marvellous wills" ("les volontés merveilleuses"), and a tetralogy glorifying the Napoleonic legend. The first number of this latter series, entitled "La Force," Jules Lemaitre characterized as "the debauch of a scribe dazzled by the magnificence of material force." In other words, Paul Adam's admiration of force comes very near being a monomania. He early developed a great reverence for the United States, because of her uncommon display of force; and, long before he visited

this country, he wrote admiring *chroniques* about our captains of industry.

"La Nouvelle Jouvence" is primarily an apotheosis of the force of America. Several Frenchmen who have written about this country during the last decade or two have observed the details of our life quite as accurately as M. Adam, who makes some natural and a few inexcusable blunders. But no Frenchman has succeeded in portraying so impressively the bigness of our civilization. Although satirizing some of our brutalities and idiosyncrasies, he insists that the very aspects of our life which many of us deplore as cruel or crude are not only not inconsistent with what is best in us, but are splendid expressions of it. He sings pæans to our skyscraper, which he holds to be the architectural symbol of our genius for synthesis, pronouncing it high art because it stands the test of his own formula: "L'art est l'œuvre d'inscrire un dogme dans un symbole." He believes that our painting and sculpture will ultimately be as successful in discovering their appropriate symbols.

Our speculators, small and great, it seems, poets. Says M. Adam:

In America the wildest enterprises succeed because they attract the greatest subscriptions. They appeal more strongly than more conservative enterprises to the imagination of these feverish, adolescent crowds who want their risks to be recompensed in a fairy-like manner. If an unexpected proposition is launched by rash men already conquerors of semi-legendary obstacles which have been exaggerated by the press, national pride waxes hot for this undertaking which it loves to call "typically American." . . . Furthermore, if the prudent demonstrate that the affair in question has four hundred chances of disaster to twenty-five of success, this proportion, instead of discouraging the small speculators, procures them a formidable and delightful excitement. . . . Thus the zouaves of Magenta were kindled to heroism by learning that they were fighting one against five, and they captured the now famous line of rails. Every Yankee desires to be admired by his neighbors for "le courage à la poche." He desires it as our old soldiers desired to be commended for taking a flag, as our littérateurs desire to be applauded for having written an immortal work. The yearning for military and literary glory which used to set the hearts of our collegians beating was less enthusiastic, less delirious, less sincere than the yearning for financial triumph which sets vibrating the fibres of these Yankee citizens. . . . Like all heroes, these heroes are chasers of chimeras. They are poets.

"La Nouvelle Jouvence" has little of the classic simplicity and directness we associate with French literature. It is sadly lacking in unity and symmetry. It abounds, however, in suggestive passages; and when it is borne in mind that the volume is merely a collection of newspaper letters, supplemented by a report to the French Government on the "Æsthetic Evolution of the Present Time," the wonder is that it possesses as much unity and symmetry as it does.

Manual of Oriental Antiquities. By Ernest Babelon. New edition, with a chapter on the Recent Discoveries at Susa. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1906. Pp. xix. and 352. \$2.50 net.

This is a reprint of Evett's translation of Babelon's little work, with the addition of a chapter on de Morgan's discoveries in Susa. Seventeen years ago Babelon's

"Manual of Oriental Antiquities" furnished a welcome summary of what was known about the antiquities of Hither Asia. It was, as the writer himself described it, "a modest abridgment" of the four volumes of Messrs. Perrot and Chipiez, dealing with the architecture, sculpture, and industrial arts of Babylonia, Assyria, Persia, Syria, and Asia Minor. The theory at the bottom of Babelon's treatment of his theme was that in the old Eastern civilizations, which antedated the civilization of Greece and Rome, "only two streams of artistic influence are really to be traced—that which rises in Egypt and that which issues from Assyria." At places these were combined, as in Phœnicia and Judæa, but in general the art of Hither Asia was Assyrian in origin; and "leaving Egypt on one side, it is the Asiatic, or, more strictly, the Chaldæo-Assyrian stream, that we have undertaken to study exclusively." The last seventeen years have profoundly changed our views with regard to Oriental history and archæology, and a volume dealing with the antiquities of Hither Asia which was timely seventeen years ago, and abreast of the information then existing, is hopelessly out of date to-day. It is just seventeen years ago that the University of Pennsylvania commenced its excavations at Nippur. These, with the later French excavations at Tello, the American excavations at Bismya, and above all the extensive and long-continued excavations of de Morgan at Susa, have carried back our knowledge of history and art in the Babylonian field some two thousand years, and greatly modified our conceptions of the origin and development of Babylonian civilization. The systematic excavations of the Germans at Babylon and Ashur in the last ten years have further added largely to our knowledge of the art and architecture of later periods in Babylon, especially of the period of Nebuchadrezzar. It is precisely during the last seventeen years, the period not covered in the body of this volume, that the principal work has been done in the field of Babylonian and early Assyrian exploration. Indeed, so far as Babylonia is concerned it may be said that until within the last seventeen years no scientific and systematic excavations had been conducted at any Babylonian site.

Similarly in Palestine scientific excavations commenced seventeen years ago, with the first exploration of Tel Hesi by Flinders Petri. That was followed by the excavations of Bliss at the same site, at Jerusalem and various points in the Shephelah, of Macalister at Gezer, Sellin at Ta'anach, and Schumacher at Megiddo. While no architectural monuments of great importance have been laid bare at any of these places, much light has been thrown on the origin and early development of civilization in Palestine, on culture-practices and domestic art. In particular the development of the ceramic art in Palestine has been traced, and its history so written that we are to-day able to date antiquities by the pottery remains found with them, whereas seventeen years ago absolutely nothing was known about the pottery of Palestine, and we might even say that nothing was accurately known about its antiquities.

Within the same seventeen years falls a considerable portion of the discoveries in

Egypt affecting the earliest periods, which are of peculiar importance for comparison with the earlier Babylonian and Sullan remains, or which throw light on the relations existing at various periods between Egypt and Palestine and other Asiatic countries. Within the same period fall the discoveries in Crete which have thrown an interesting side light on the general field of Oriental antiquity, confirming conclusions obtained from other sources, that the history of ancient Eastern art before the time of Greece and Rome is by no means so simple as Babelon imagined. We now have knowledge of the existence of ancient and apparently independent civilizations of which no one even dreamed seventeen years ago. To use only one illustration, the French excavations at Susa and the American excavations at Nippur revealed in some of the lowest strata a civilization characterized by a high development of the ceramic art. The pottery of that early period is more nearly akin in color and design to the pottery found in the Ægean regions than to any pottery belonging to the latter strata in Babylonia or Persia. For some reason unknown to us, this civilization was destroyed, and the art of making this pottery altogether lost, so far as the East was concerned, somewhere apparently before 3000 B. C.

The only recognition of recent work in Hither Asia and of the important discoveries made in recent years which we find in this volume is the additional chapter, already referred to, entitled "Archæological Discoveries at Susa." To retain the body of the book unchanged and merely add this supplementary chapter was but to patch an old and worn-out garment with a new piece at the bottom. (Unfortunately, by the way, the new piece is not of very good material, even although it is new.) This added chapter only makes more evident the need of a revision or rewriting of the whole work.

Industrial Efficiency: A Comparative Study of Industrial Life in England, Germany, and America. By Arthur Shadwell. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$7 net.

This work presents the results of an investigation into the conditions of efficiency in international competition for the markets of the world. Although commenced before the outbreak of the present (shall we say, late?) fiscal controversy in Great Britain, it deals with the fundamental problems involved in that discussion, and should prove of interest to all the disputants, without reference to the views they may entertain concerning tariff reform. The author undertook systematic researches in leading centres of the textile or metal industries in England, Germany, and the United States, and supplemented personal observation by a careful study of the usual printed sources of information. The results of his labors, here presented in attractive form, show him to be a shrewd observer of men and affairs, who has cared more to gather facts than to spin theories about them. The "advocacy of reforms" he declares to be no part of his present purpose, believing it "a more than sufficient task to ascertain a few facts with approximate accuracy." "I have sometimes thought," he remarks, "that

something of the kind might, perhaps, be a useful preliminary to reforms; but that view has never been popular, and I do not press it."

An introductory chapter deals with the difficult and dangerous subject of national traits, American, German, English. If our author has little that is new to say upon the topic, his remarks are always intelligent and occasionally illuminating—as is his distinction between "saving time" in the United States and "saving trouble" (p. 20). Then follow valuable chapters upon the chief industrial districts of the three countries under consideration. The American reader will learn much from Mr. Shadwell's vivid pictures of industrial conditions in Germany and England; he may learn even more from the striking account of the manufacturing towns of New England, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Ohio, and Illinois. We venture to reproduce a description of scenes in our American "Black Country":

If Pittsburg is Hell with the lid off, Homestead is Hell with the hatches on. Never was place more egregiously misnamed. Here is nothing but unrelieved gloom and grind; on one side the fuming, groaning works where men sweat at the furnaces and rolling-mills twelve hours a day for seven days a week; on the other, rows of wretched hovels where they eat and sleep, having neither time nor energy left for anything else. Nor is there anything else for them to do if they wished. I was not surprised at the English workman who told me that if any one would give him five dollars a week he would go home and live like a gentleman in—the Black Country. Five dollars a day are no uncommon earnings at Homestead, but they are dear at the price. The output is enormous and there is an appearance of great efficiency, but such industrial conditions as these are not stable. The human element demands recognition and will obtain it.

This general description of the three countries and their working people is followed by a dozen or more chapters upon factory laws and conditions, hours of labor, welfare institutions, housing, wages and the cost of living, pauperism, social conditions, trade unions, and education—elementary and technical. Although not always of equal value, these discussions are the most important portion of the book. With a keen eye for what is essential and typical, Mr. Shadwell undertakes a series of international comparisons which must challenge the attention of all students of modern industrial problems. Dealing with large subjects and covering a wide field of observation, his work cannot be always accurate, and sometimes fails to strike far below the surface; but no writer, so far as our knowledge goes, has ever essayed the task with greater success. Some German investigators might have gathered more statistics, and cumbered their pages with more footnotes; we can think of French writers who could have delighted us with more dazzling generalizations; some American economists have dealt well with certain aspects of these questions; but we recall no one who in breadth of view and genuine insight can compare with Mr. Shadwell.

The conclusions offered in the final chapter are intended chiefly for English readers. That England has been overtaken by Germany and the United States, and is in danger of being outstripped in competition for the world's markets, is the fact

which is at the bottom of the fiscal controversy. Mr. Shadwell shows clearly that the difficulty is far more deep-seated than the tariff-reformers imagine, and is due to the simple fact that Germany and the United States have worked harder and worked to better purpose. While he is disposed to concede—mistakenly, we think—that some aid may be derived from retaliatory tariff duties, he lays chief emphasis upon the necessity of a general industrial awakening from slothful habits induced by the great prosperity of the past. Of such an awakening he is already able to see many signs. The English nation, he believes, has not lost its energy; and Necessity will prove an efficient, if hard, teacher. "For these," he concludes, "and the like reasons, I think we may rely on the steady pressure of economic conditions to correct the functional disorder brought on by repletion in a still healthy body, but not yet advanced to an organic disease." To this end, such a work as Mr. Shadwell's will contribute not a little.

The Electoral System of the United States.

By J. Hampden Dougherty. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2 net.

As a basis for a proposed amendment to the Constitution, Mr. Dougherty has prepared a comprehensive historical sketch of the working of our system of electing the President and Vice-President, from 1789 to the present day. Most Americans who have reached or passed middle life are well aware that the defects of the system entailed serious danger in the election of 1876, and a few besides United States history pupils in the schools could name two other elections involving considerable trouble; but Mr. Dougherty's book will very rarely find a reader to whom the aggregate of difficulties because of these defects will not come as a surprise. The details of this sketch cannot even be summarized here, but it should be said in passing that their relation is increased in value and constantly enlivened by apt quotations from the leading statesmen of the time, as each difficulty arose. As to the Electoral College, the author is hardly correct in saying that it quickly lost the attribute of independent judgment which it was intended to possess, for in no single case from the very beginning did it ever attempt to exercise such judgment. The existence of a foreordained candidate for the first two terms took away the chance for even a temporary trial of a theory which could in no event have survived Jefferson's organization of the anti-Federalist elements into a coherent body. By one of those annoying slips which occasionally escape even the most careful, a statement on page 135 exactly reverses the political complexion of the Senate and House portions of the Electoral Commission of 1877.

Constructively, Mr. Dougherty would eliminate the Electoral College root and branch, as not only useless, but potentially harmful as well. The ratio of State representation in the choice of the President he would leave as it is, but in the allotment of votes to the respective candidates he advocates a radical change. Public opinion has long ago declared against election by Congressional districts, and, even if it had

not, it would be unwise to adopt that method because of the premium which it puts upon gerrymandering. The present method of allowing a mere majority to carry the entire electoral strength of a State is too great an incentive to fraud when, as in New York in 1884, the whole contest hinges upon the outcome in one close State. And both the district and State methods, our author urges, are objectionable in the absolute futility which they entail upon the ballot of every minority voter. Divide the Presidential votes of each State, then, he urges, in absolutely mathematical proportion to the total number of ballots cast in the State by each contending party, and thus give each individual voter the satisfaction of knowing that his ballot has exercised a positive and definitely calculable effect on the result, when it shall be finally declared.

Mr. Dougherty has great faith in the educative influence of this consciousness of positive effect in the casting even of a minority ballot—a faith so great, in fact, as to suggest the wheedling leadership of a pet theory rather than a careful study of human nature. The average voter considers only the general result, and, if defeated there, it is small consolation to him that he had something to do in making up the electoral minority. If the proportional method were applied to the election of Congressmen in each State, the boon to the minority would at once assume a positive value, but Mr. Dougherty's proposed amendment does not extend to Congressional elections. Space forbids the details by which he would eliminate the defects and dangers of the present system of certifying and counting the Presidential votes, and provide safely against all possible mishaps in the succession. He is obliged to admit that he is baffled when it comes to the question of competitive returns from dual State governments, and unfortunately that is just the point at which the most dangerous crisis has arisen. His suggestion that a State under such circumstances might by general regulation be deprived of its right to participate, loses sight of the fact that in an era like the Reconstruction period it might put a heavy premium on the setting up of rival State governments. If the volume helps to arouse interest in the subject, both in Congress and out of it, the author will deserve sincere gratitude. Unquestionably a revision of the Constitution at this point is needed, and it can come only through the arousing of general interest.

Idola Theatri: A Criticism of Oxford Thought and Thinkers from the Standpoint of Personal Idealism. By Henry Sturt. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1906. Pp. xvii., 344.

When Bacon dubbed "Idols of the Theatre" the favorite fancies of the philosophic schools, he was doubtless indulging his sly humor with the suggestion that the solemn personages who expounded them were only acting a part, strutting about their petty stage and mouthing their technical bombast in order to impress spectators unable to distinguish illusion from reality. Now the spectators, for the most part, are content to watch the play and to enjoy the illusion, but there are always some among them who are so stage-struck

as to desire in addition to go behind the scenes, and it is to these that Mr. Sturt offers himself as a competent and willing guide.

In philosophic matters, the Oxford "theatre" is one of the oldest, largest, and most noted in the world. And so, though it does not always possess the best actors nor produce the most stirring pieces, it cannot but be interesting to watch its performances and to make the acquaintance of its chief performers. For the past thirty years, the Oxford play called "absolute idealism" has occupied its boards, and Mr. Sturt has set himself to explain, and perhaps to explode, its vogue. He takes his task very seriously, and does his work very thoroughly. He shows us everything behind the scenes, with the most pleasing zeal—the green room, the adapters of plays, the prompters, the properties in all their hollowness, nay, the very rouge-pots. They are very terrible fellows, these Oxonian sages, when you come to understand them, and the play they are engaged upon is something quite appalling, nothing less than the systematic suppression of Truth! To effect this, they have recourse to a trinity of errors, yclept Intellectualism, Absolutism, and Subjectivism, all fused together into one great "Passive Fallacy," which, nourished by the unhealthy, segregated lives of over-specialized students and "the anti-practical spirit fostered by the close out-of-the-worldliness of an ancient seat of learning," ignores the activity in the human self, and the personality which, as a voluntarist and the whilom editor of 'Personal Idealism,' Mr. Sturt is anxious to see recognized. Of the triple forms taken by this fundamental fallacy, intellectualism, which in Hegel rises to "panlogism," is the oldest and most important, and expunges the volitional side of personality; absolutism denies the validity of personality altogether (p. 18); and melts down all things mystically into the One. Subjectivism, lastly, if held consistently, would culminate in solipsism, and so (though it is not made quite clear) prove incompatible with activity, like the others.

Mr. Sturt proceeds to trace out the ramifications of these fallacies in all their details, patiently, lucidly, readably, but inexcusably. He takes his examples from F. H. Bradley (who is complimented with the lion's share of the criticism), T. H. Green, and Professor Bosanquet, though he sometimes refers also to the lesser lights, and adds a chapter on German idealism (mainly on Hegel). His criticisms are always telling and often unanswerable, and even where they seem somewhat deficient in profundity they generally get home. Indeed, it is quite amusing to watch him tackling one of the terrible tangles of vague thinking and obscure writing which occur so frequently in his victims. Instead of puzzling such things out and getting himself confused in the process, his practice is simply to suggest that the meaning must be something quite commonplace and intelligible, and to pass on his way. Now one may feel morally sure that the writers criticised did not mean anything as despicably simple as the meaning Mr. Sturt attributes to them; but it is still more certain that they will never succeed in refuting him by making clear what precisely they did mean. And so a hasty

world will probably compel them to dance to his tune, by taking them to mean what he says they mean; nor will this be an altogether undeserved reward of their studiously cultivated obscurity.

There is, however, one secret motive vital to the understanding of the philosophic situation in Oxford which Mr. Sturt has not dragged quite out into the daylight, and that is the theological. German idealism, as Mark Pattison was wont to point out, was originally imported into Oxford in the interests of obscurantist clericalism, as an antidote to the wave of naturalism which swept over England in consequence of the great scientific movement of the nineteenth century. Kantian "categories" and Hegelian dialectics had indisputable advantages in combating science, in that they disported themselves on treacherous ground unfamiliar and unintelligible to the ordinary scientific worker, on which he blundered and stumbled and could easily be afflicted with a show of defeat. And indirectly also this fashion of philosophizing could serve as a protection to theology, in that it might drive the human mind to admit intrinsic difficulties and mysteries in its secular thought, compared with which those of the Athanasian Creed paled into insignificance. And like those of theology, these mysteries of the higher truth were safe from the intrusions of the vulgar. But latterly it has dawned even upon the less discriminating theologians that their alliance with Hegelism did not yield them what they wanted; that an Absolute was not a God, that the thesis, antithesis, and synthesis of Hegel were not an unexceptionable deduction *à priori* of the Trinity; that "idealism" left no room for any real personality, but rendered freedom an illusion and immortality a despicable craze. Thus the three great Kantian "postulates" are all rendered nugatory. And, on the other hand, as in Germany sixty years ago, the "left wing" got the upper hand in the Hegelian school itself. Its literary exponents, from F. H. Bradley downwards, are more or less openly anti-clerical, though none has attained the candor of the Cambridge Hegelian, Dr. McTaggart, in avowing himself an atheist. It is no wonder, therefore, that the theological alliance is tottering to its fall, and that Oxford theologians were found willing to contribute to 'Personal Idealism,' though they will find it hard to trust the religious instincts of man sufficiently to commit themselves to a frankly empirical philosophy accompanied by a psychological theology. It is quite intelligible, however, that Mr. Sturt should have preferred to glide over these aspects of philosophy, which it is so hard to deal with in an outspoken manner.

What, now, we may ask in conclusion, is the effect of Mr. Sturt's work on our estimate of Oxford philosophy? Has he uprooted or decapitated it? Hardly that, though he may reduce the swelling of its pride, and do much to check its obfuscations for the future. For despite the scrupulous urbanity of his tone, he manages to convey a very distinct impression that the days of its dominance are numbered, that it cannot stand translation into plain English, that it is woefully lacking in originality, and shockingly uncongenial to the native bent of the British mind, which is groaning under the abstruse dogmas

made in Germany and laboriously purveyed by "Anglo-Hegelian" imitators. In what direction, then, shall Oxford look? There are many signs that her next fashion will be Transatlantic. The philosophic movement known as "Pragmatism," which is by far the most important and original contribution of America to the history of thought, has already taken as strong root in Oxford as anywhere in Europe. Nay, it has already bettered its name by there calling itself "Humanism." And even if "Anglo-Hegelianism" should continue to linger in the cloistered seclusion of Oxford, this would only show once more that Oxford was still content to play the rôle of a home for lost causes.

Mr. Sturt's position in this matter of pragmatism is not quite easy to unravel, mainly because his own positive convictions are very slightly sketched. He calls himself a personal idealist, but in practice he is hard to distinguish from a common-sense realist—to whose views, by the way, their manifest pragmatic value should restore much of their lost prestige. He is indubitably a voluntarist, but he is hardly a thoroughgoing pragmatist. Indeed, he somewhat suspects pragmatism of the taint of subjectivism (p. 142), even though he immediately gives the right answer to this charge by suggesting that the apparent "making of reality" is mainly a methodological conception. There can be no doubt, however, that, as an inside view of the present state of philosophy in Oxford, Mr. Sturt's work is worthy of all commendation. And in condensing so much and such crabbed material into so interesting a form he has achieved a considerable feat. His book deserves to be read, and doubtless will be.

How Ferns Grow. By Margaret Slosson. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1906.

Full-grown ferns have naturally attracted to their study enthusiasts of all sorts, who have described more or less accurately the graceful as well as the stately fronds. Many of the writers have indicated the clear relations which these survivals of a remote geological past bear to our existing vegetation; and the more interesting story of the birth of a fern has been many times well told by writers on popular science, who have been almost bewitched by the surprising double life of the plant in its earliest days. But, so far as we are aware, no one has hitherto devoted, as the present author does, a whole book to a readable account of the youth of ferns.

It is a familiar fact that innumerable species of plants undergo strange metamorphoses during their early life, that is to say, during the days which elapse between the seedling stage and the dawn of maturity. Some of these metamorphoses are so strange as to baffle belief. For instance, there is a New Zealand tree, called *pseudopanax ferox*, which, shortly after sprouting from the seed, becomes a straight unbranched stem with drooping leaves, each more than a foot long. These leaves are thick and rigid. Every leaf has a notched margin with hooked teeth "capable of inflicting a severe wound if incautiously handled." The straight stem is thirty feet high, and presents the appearance of a staff on which small scimitars are hung.

Between the ages of twenty and thirty years the simple stem begins to branch at the apex, and the branches at once bear short ordinary leaves which are erect instead of pendent, and would hardly attract attention from any singularity. The old sword-like leaves all fall off. Here then is a case of prolonged youth. Of course, this is an extreme example, but there are thousands of other plants which exhibit marked peculiarities during the stage of development referred to. Professor Robert T. Jackson, well-known on account of his studies in regard to fossils, has published an interesting paper concerning certain of these metamorphoses, and he has pointed out some reasons for believing that these striking and sudden changes in form may throw light on the ancestral line. In this way, it is sometimes possible to gain more than a hint as to the early history of a species or genus.

Now, although ferns do not possess true seeds (but "spores" instead), they pass through stages which are comparable to the early stages of the seed-plants, and it is these early but not the very earliest days which the author considers. With great pains she has studied the various metamorphoses and has recorded in good photographs her interesting results. The transformations are all well shown by the engravings, but she has supplemented these engravings by clear text. It is to be regretted that through no fault of her own the nomenclature is open to criticism, but aside from this matter of names, the book can be heartily commended. No one must expect to find in it such descriptions of species as would enable the reader to determine the identity of a given specimen; the work is chiefly for the use of those who care to watch the marvellous manner in which ferns spend their youth. It is to be hoped that the author will continue her studies in other fruitful fields and bring before us the results of careful investigation.

String Figures, a Study of Cat's-Cradle in Many Lands. By Caroline Furness Jayne, with an ethnological introduction by Alfred C. Haddon. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$4.50 net.

The author of the introduction to this altogether original book is lecturer in ethnology in Cambridge University, England; an enthusiastic explorer, possessed of the art of inspiring others with the interest that he finds in the study of savage life. He was a member of the British Association excursion to South Africa in 1905, and whiled away many hours of the abundant time on the voyage by teaching those who cared to learn some of his curious tricks, so that the group which gathered round him on deck came to be known as "Haddon's string band." The year before, on the occasion of one of his visits to this country, when his interest in Australasian savages was for a time replaced by the pleasure of making acquaintance in Philadelphia with some of our most civilized Americans, he initiated his new friends into the mysteries of the wild-cat's cradles that he had learned in the Far East; and the most expert of his disciples took up with his suggestion of visiting the St. Louis exposition for the purpose of learning from

the various tribes there gathered such new figures as they might know. A fascinating book on "String Figures" is the result; an admirable piece of work, from the charming frontispiece to the accurate index. Of the ninety-seven string figures here presented from many parts of the world, seventy-one are described for the first time, some from the Caroline Islands in the Pacific being contributed by Dr. William Henry Furness, 3rd, brother of the author, and all being set forth with the minuteness and precision that might be expected from the daughter of the editor of the "Variorum Shakspeare." Practically every position of the fingers taken in making each of the ninety-seven figures is separately illustrated, with the result of introducing 867 outlines of graceful hands and twisted strings.

A monographic work of this kind has a value quite independent of the small inherent importance of string figures, which represent merely the light pastimes of savages. The value of the book comes from the faithful portrayal of the figures, as examples of savage customs. The figures are, like the details of basketry ornamentation and the various methods of arrow release, facts in the natural history of man, and as such deserve patient study. That these trifles, in the opinion of experts, are well worthy of observant attention is shown by the liberal measure of space given to the methods of studying and recording them in the ethnological section of a recent German manual for explorers, prepared by Professor von Luschan of the great Ethnological Museum in Berlin. But besides professional ethnologists, there are two other classes of readers who may well give attention to Mrs. Jayne's book. Of one class are those who find enjoyment in novel and gentle ingenuity; and for these we can well imagine that "String Figures" will be an entertaining companion on the summer porch or by the winter fireside. Their friends will at first laugh at such trifling; then they will say, "Do that figure again, won't you?" and the next moment they will be asking for another loop of string, to have a try at the figure themselves. A good example for beginners to practise on is the Apache "Door"; another, somewhat more difficult, is the "Many Stars" of the Navajos, in which a very peculiar twist is introduced. "A Rattlesnake and a Boy" of the Klamath tribe will require more patience, as twenty-five cuts were found necessary to give it full illustration.

Of the other class of persons who should learn at least half-a-dozen string figures are intending travellers in distant lands, even though they be mighty hunters of big game; for a few string tricks will not only enable one to discover any new figures known to such savages as may be met with in the wilderness, but the exhibition of the tricks will serve admirably, as is known by experience, in introducing one's self to the good graces of simple and somewhat mistrustful folk. With the incentive to the cultivation of this amusing art that so excellent a book must give, it is to be expected that much material for a second volume will be gathered in a few years. To all who come upon novel patterns, we urge that their discoveries should be sent, with as full detail of native methods as possible, to the writer of "String Figures."

The Personality of Jesus. By Charles H. Barrows. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25 net.

There are books on the founder of Christianity one can dismiss without ceremony, wordy paraphrases of the Gospels with a bit of Josephus here and there, mediocre homilies on texts from the evangelical tradition purporting to constitute a "Life of Christ." There are others, though not so many, which require attention and command respect as serious and conscientious endeavors to interpret the personality which has so dominated the Christian centuries. When a man of evident culture, who finds frequently a phrase of Plato or Pascal ready to his hand, sets out with reverence of purpose and enthusiasm of affection to declare the secret of the Master of his heart, we cannot hurriedly dismiss his work even although we find on the first dozen pages that he suffers under severe limitations. This is the case with Mr. Barrows. His book is far too good to toss aside: it is reverent, thoughtful, original at many points, and of a certain winning graciousness that accords well with its subject. Yet as a portrayal of the personality of Jesus it is well nigh a failure, and one closes its pages with the feeling that one has witnessed a tragedy, having seen a man face a noble and mighty task in brave spirit and with many of the essentials of success, and yet for lack of one essential accomplishing nothing.

Mr. Barrows essayed a task in history, and took no pains to be an historian. True, the subject requires something more than skill in historical research. The supreme requirement is just that warmth of religious feeling, that purity and fire of faith, which attract one in this essay. But if sympathy with the religious message be a necessity, the historian's skill in sifting evidence and arriving at facts is still primary and fundamental. It has become a commonplace that the founder of the Christian faith is known only at second-hand, that his parables and sermons have come down to us only through the medium of friendly tradition. One may hold the tradition to be good and reliable, and still the necessity remains of going behind what the believing community of disciples a generation or so after *thought* Jesus said and did to what Jesus actually said and did on the hillsides of Galilee. When Von Ranke was asked why he wrote such good history, he replied it was because he went "behind the documents."

Because Mr. Barrows has failed to do this, but concluded rather at the outset that appreciation of the gospels is "ground upon which the learning of the schools gives no particular advantage," blunders thrust themselves into his chapters with sad frequency. He asserts that Jesus was a Rabbi, evidently following the title used in the fourth gospel and ignoring the testimony of the Synoptists that Jesus was regarded as a carpenter, the son of Joseph, and that he forbade the Rabbinic title in his little society. Again following the fourth gospel, the author places the cleansing of the temple at the opening of the ministry, and maintains that there was a "clash of wills" between Jesus and the Baptist, passing in silence over the deep spiritual sympathy between the

two. As to faith in a future life, we find the assertion that "at the right time there did come in, to sustain his faith, and like a sort of heat lightning below the horizon, the consciousness of his power to rise even from the dead" (p. 30). Historical criticism shows that confidence in his power over death was an enthusiasm of Jesus, animating his hope and courage, and thrilling him with expectation. It was never "below the horizon." but flashed constantly before his eye as he spoke of the Son of Man returning on the clouds of heaven.

In short, this essay sketches the Christ of the Church, let us say the Christ of the most vigorous and devout Churchman, but it does not sketch the Christ of history. It contains a reverent examination of Jesus from the point of view of modern psychology and modern piety; it has

not one word of Jesus as the successor of Amos and Isaiah, the opponent of Pharisaism, the poet who applied to himself the terms of the materialistic dreams of his countrymen and made them spiritual and divine. The author has done as well as any one could be expected to do without the aid of criticism; his failure is a demonstration of the need of criticism, not only of its right to be, but also of its necessity for the answering of questions which faith is bound to ask.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Guide to Paris. Brooklyn Daily Eagle. 15 cents.
Call. William Timothy. The Little Grammar. Hawthorne, N. J.: C. M. Potterdon. 50 cts.
Clinton, George and James. Letters of George Washington. George H. Richmond.
Benton, Myron B. Songs of the Webutuck. Poughkeepsie, N. Y.: The A. V. Haight Co.
Biting, William C. The Ministry of the Eternal Life. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.

Burkett, Charles W., and Clarence H. Poe. Cotton, Doubleday, Page & Co. \$2 net.
Burrage, Champlin. The True Story of Robert Browne. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d. net.
Crouzet, Paul. Maitres et Parents. Paris: Armand Colin.
Davis, Charles Gilbert. The Philosophy of Life. Chicago: The D. D. Publishing Co.
Dickerson, Mary C. The Frog Book. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$4 net.
English Catalogue of Books, 1905. The Publishers' Weekly.
Flaubert, Gustave. Salammbô. Edited by E. Lauvrière. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d. net.
Fry, Sir Edward. The British Academy. Henry Frowde.
Gautier, Théophile. Trois Grotesques. Edited by H. J. Chaytor. Henry Frowde. 2s. net.
Gordon, William Clark. The Social Ideals of Alfred Tennyson. The University of Chicago Press. \$1.50.
Hart, Albert Bushnell. Slavery and Abolition. Harpers. \$2 net.
Harvey, Richard Selden. A Hand-Book of Corporation Laws. The Bleyer Law Publishing Co.
Hugo's Notre-Dame de Paris. Edited by Léon Delhos. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d. net.
Keen, W. W. The Services of Missions to Science and Society. Boston: American Baptist Missionary Union.
King, Henry Churchill. Letters to Sunday-School Teachers. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. \$1 net.
Knuth, Paul. Handbook of Flower Pollination. Translated by J. R. A. Davis. Vol. I. Henry Frowde. 21s. net.
Lamartine, A. de. Jocelyn. Edited by Emile Legouis. Henry Frowde. 3s. net.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 2, 1906.

The Week.

Congress could not remove a single tax for the benefit of the Filipinos, but it managed to clap an odious new tax upon them. The legislative record of it is briefly this: A bill imposing a tax of 100 per cent. upon the cheap grade of cottons which the Filipinos most use was reported to the House on January 25; on February 9 it was called up and "explained" by Chairman Payne, and passed without a division; in the Senate, it was sent to Lodge's Philippine Committee, and on February 22—fitting day!—was reported out and passed without question or division. Now, who originated this legislation, and with what motive? It was not proposed by the Philippine Government. It was stoutly opposed by our own collector of customs at Manila. But certain cotton manufacturing "interests" of New York asked for it. On what ground? Frankly and brutally, on the ground that they could not compete with Englishmen in making this particular kind of cotton, as their looms were not adapted to making "splits"; therefore, the poor Filipino must be forbidden, practically, to buy this material, and compelled to purchase the more costly American product. No meaner, greedier piece of legislation has ever been enacted, but Congress passed it without debate, and the President signed it without a protest. Yet we know, of course, that we are treating the Filipinos with a generosity unparalleled in the history of colonization—or of cant!

William J. Bryan proposes that the reception in his honor when he returns from abroad be conducted on the principles which good citizens of both parties would like to see applied to political campaigns. He would accept no contributions from corporations or "questionable sources." No gift over \$50 will be taken at all. All over \$5 will be entered in a book subject to public inspection. Prompt as Mr. Bryan is with his suggestion, it comes four days after the appeal for small subscriptions from Chairman Sherman of the Republican Congressional Committee. "We desire to maintain the work of this campaign," he says, "with popular subscriptions of \$1 each from Republicans." If every man who voted for Roosevelt in 1904 should really contribute one dollar, the party would have an enormous fund. What Mr. Sherman will actually get, nobody knows. This is to be a year of meagre campaign funds. Party managers, local

State, and national, are planning to get along with less money. In various parts of the country rival committees are forming agreements "to abstain from the use of money or other valuable things to control elections." To some extent, this is merely making a virtue of necessity. It is small hardship to agree not to spend money when a party has not got it. Democrats who have enjoyed but few large corporation checks of late years find it easy to renounce them now. Yet there is another motive, a genuine and widespread desire to see our campaigning put on a cleaner basis. The fact that so many party helpers have been receiving money for services has in itself discouraged enthusiastic and disinterested help. But that the American people have not lost their capacity for giving joyous and unselfish aid to a cause in which they believe is abundantly proved by the story of such organizations as those of Folk, Jerome, and Colby, and the Philadelphia "minute-men."

If Mr. Bryan really intends to force a fight on the tariff this autumn, he will pursue the wisest possible policy. Only a stupid general would fail to take advantage of an enemy's weaknesses; and the tariff dissensions in the Republican ranks in Iowa and Massachusetts are plain. There is also a growing uneasiness in other States over the decision of the leaders in the conference at Oyster Bay to "stand pat." Issues are not made by party leaders but by the people. Whether any one likes it or not, the tariff is going to be in this campaign. The Republicans could not prevent this by their foolish pronouncement, but they have virtually challenged the Opposition to bring the question to the front. Mr. Bryan has a magnificent opportunity before him when he returns, and if he can reveal clearly the protectionist idol's feet of clay to a long-deceived people, he will render a great and patriotic service.

Though the American Federation of Labor has not yet published an official blacklist of the Congressmen marked for defeat as "enemies of labor," Mr. Gompers asks for a contribution from the impoverished toilers of \$2,000,000. The Federation is openly aiming to strike down some of the ablest men in the House. Beginning with Speaker Cannon, who has been charged with more "deviltry" than any one else in opposing labor legislation, the attack is to be directed at all the Republican members of the Judiciary Committee. Among them are Messrs. Jenkins of Wisconsin, Parker of New Jersey, Palmer of Penn-

sylvania, and Littlefield of Maine. These gentlemen had the effrontery to set up their notions of good law and sound public policy against those of Mr. Gompers. Members of the Committee on Labor, including Vreeland of New York, Eartholdt of Missouri, and McCall of Massachusetts are also doomed. In a way, organized labor is consistent in opposing such vigorous and independent men. It would apply unionist standards to Congress, and allow no room for exceptional merit, but reduce all to a dead level of mediocrity, ready to take orders from walking delegates. But we shall be much surprised if the courage and character of men like McCall and Littlefield are not fully recognized by their constituents.

The Texas primary serves to call attention anew to the progress of the movement for the extra-legal popular election of Senators. Senator Bailey, who carried Saturday's primary without opposition, is the seventh man to receive a party nomination for a Senatorial term beginning in 1907. Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Oregon, Tennessee, and Virginia have already acted. Senatorial primaries will also be held either under party rule or State law, in Alabama, Illinois, and several other States, while in another group, including, probably, Idaho and Nebraska, the parties will simply nominate candidates for Senator along with their State officers. The result of these various makeshifts is that at least a third of the thirty vacancies occurring in the Senate next year will be filled by a virtually popular election. Some six years hence, when all the States with up-to-date primary laws applying to the Senatorship have filled their Senatorial seats, it is going to be interesting to compare the members chosen by the old and the new method.

The gunboat *Bancroft*, after only thirteen years of service, has been transferred from the Navy to the Revenue Marine. Built as a practice ship for the naval cadets at a cost of over \$300,000, this little vessel proved unsuccessful whether as a training ship or cruiser; and to avoid further heavy expenses for repairs it has been given away. The *Bancroft* is the third ship of the "new navy" to go off the active list, the *Philadelphia*, built in 1889, being the first and the battleship *Texas*, which dates from 1892, the second. Of these, the *Philadelphia* cost about one and a half millions and the *Texas*, always a "lame duck," over three millions, exclusive of repairs. The disappearance of these ships clearly illustrates how short-lived the modern steel vessel is as compared

with the wooden warship, and also how wasteful governments are. Had these vessels been privately owned, their life would have been fully three times as long, even in the exacting merchant trade. For example, the Cunard liners, *Umbria* and *Etruria*, put in service in 1885, are still making regular trips from New York to Liverpool. They are soon to be withdrawn, but not because there is any falling off in their engine power or because of any excessive expenditure for repairs, as in the cases of the *Bancroft*, *Texas*, and *Philadelphia*. Giving place to more modern vessels, the *Umbria* and *Etruria* will still perform valuable service for many years on other routes. Fashions in men-of-war change more rapidly than in ocean liners; and the government service is costly and wasteful since nobody has a care whether its *matériel* is well looked after. The theory is that Uncle Sam has an inexhaustible purse for repairs and renewals.

The new meat-inspection regulations issued by Secretary Wilson certainly deserve the name of "comprehensive." For each specific criticism that has been made of the handling and packing of meats there seems to be a new provision. Inspectors are to follow every stage of the processes of packing. The crux, of course, lies in the penalties the withdrawal of the Government label and the exclusion of the offending firm's goods from interstate and foreign commerce. This penalty is not only adequate, but exactly suited by its character to the particular offence. An especially praiseworthy provision is that the penalty is imposed for failure to "tank" condemned carcasses. This simply means that the city of Chicago and the State of Illinois will no longer be dumping grounds for products which it would be illegal to sell anywhere else. It now remains for the packers, aided by the new Government tag of such enormous value that long-sighted business men should have prayed for it long ago, to build up their shattered trade in canned meats and by-products.

Nothing more swiftly arouses the resentment of the American public than a rise in the price of ice. This has been once more shown in several of our cities. It is a characteristically American attitude, for in European countries, even in those like Italy and Spain that have summers warmer than ours, there is hardly an ice question at all. The natives probably do not consume as many pounds as we do tons. Our use of ice for all imaginable purposes is, indeed, one of the things that most strike visitors from Europe. The alpha of our every day, they note with astonishment, is a glass of ice-water placed be-

fore us the moment we sit down to breakfast; the omega, a pitcher of ice-water sent to our bedrooms. For preserving meat and all such uses, ice is undoubtedly one of our greatest blessings. But whether our extraordinary craving for iced beverages makes for well-being, is another question. It is an astonishing thing, this craze of our men and women for arctic summer drinks, this crowding of the drug stores, where people stand two or three deep, waiting their turn to order a glass of ice-cold soda water—a cruel maltreatment of the stomach. In Berlin there is a law punishing liquor sellers for serving beer below a certain temperature; with us, beer is almost invariably sold so cold that it is not only injurious, but deprived of much of its agreeable taste. Of course, it is useless to preach; we cannot expect human beings to be as rational as animals—an ass, for instance, who refuses to drink water when too cold or too hot. But those missionaries who cater to the craze for ice among the poorer classes, could certainly do much good by teaching moderation.

Judge Calloway of Augusta, Ga., unquestionably spoke for many of the thinking planters when he said recently of the attempt to introduce white labor in the South:

I prefer first to experiment with an effort to improve the negro as a farm laborer, cropper, and tenant. I believe that our present labor can be greatly improved. At least it is well worth our while to make a tremendous effort in that direction. If the negro is not a successful farmer, it is not altogether his fault. He has been working our lands and ploughing with our mules and hoeing our cotton all his life, and we owe it to him, as well as to our own interests, to teach him the best methods of farming.

From Mississippi, on the other hand, it is reported that the newly arrived Italians are having an excellent effect in toning up the negro workers. But whether this competition makes a certain amount of white immigration desirable or not, it is obvious that the best investments the South is making to-day are the sums spent to render the negro worker more intelligent and more industrious. A prominent North Carolinian land and mill-owner is building schools and model cottages for his colored workers, whom he describes as the "best labor in the world"; and in their devotion and loyalty to him and their willingness to work hard for long hours he finds an ample reward. It is literally dollars in his pocket to aid his employees in this way; and the envy of his business rivals is proof that others besides himself realize the wisdom of his plan.

English Imperialists, we knew, were much harrowed by the proposal to re-

store local government in the Transvaal, but we were not prepared for such a *Miserere* as Kipling has emitted on that subject. Nothing, we should say, could plunge Englishmen into profounder dejection than Kipling's poem except one of Alfred Austin's. Two of the six stanzas—presumably the best, though it is hard to see how the others could jog-trot in drearier commonplace—have been cabled from London. The unofficial laureate is seldom happy in this kind of political verse. "The Truce of the Bear," "The Sin of Witchcraft," and the rest—one Barrack-Room Ballad or the "Dirge of Dead Sisters," is worth the lot of them. Some one ought to paste on the wall of Mr. Kipling's bedroom, or wherever his eyes roll in a fine frenzy, the couplet apropos of Scott's poem on "The Field of Waterloo," as a warning against further ventures into a dangerous field:

Of all who fell, by sabre or by shot,
Not one fell half so flat as Walter Scott.

The woman question in all its aspects is occupying more and more space in German newspapers. On one point all are agreed: that it is high time to legislate for the protection of married women employed in factories. Of more than a million women thus engaged in the Empire, nearly one-third are married. These wives average seventeen hours of labor a day, eleven of them in the factory, the others at home, doing domestic work. In addition to this they are expected to rear children. They age soon; anæmic, apathetic, they fade away and end their lives mostly as invalids, often a burden to the community. The infant mortality, which, throughout the Empire, averages 20.7 per cent., rises in the manufacturing centres of Saxony to 49.3 per cent.—a figure which, to put it plainly, is an accusation of wholesale murder. The simplest remedy for these evils—prohibiting married women to work in factories—is said to be impracticable, because the factories need the workers, and the women need the wages. In a pamphlet written by Dr. Friedrich Schomerus, the suggestion is made that the conditions could be greatly ameliorated by encouraging the plan of engaging married women for half-days only. Many of them would thus be able to earn what they absolutely need, while the manufacturers would be able to pay these women higher wages, because two sets working five hours each would be more efficient than one set working ten hours or longer.

German university circles have been deeply stirred by the suicide of Prof. Paul Drude, the successor of the famous Von Helmholtz in the chair of experimental physics at Berlin. Only forty-two years of age when called to this

position, Professor Drude was looked upon as one of the most distinguished of Germany's numerous men of learning. He shot himself without leaving a word to explain his action; his most intimate friends are confronted by an "inexplicable psychological puzzle," as four of his colleagues have declared. They admit the possibility of Professor Drude's having been mentally overtaxed, but they point out that if he had asked for aid the University would have been quick to supply him with another assistant, precisely as the authorities came to the aid of one of their number whose health temporarily failed. From the beginning, Professor Drude seems to have feared that he might not prove equal to following in the footsteps of Helmholtz, and probably he took his life in a moment of despondency. Either the high standard he set himself or the renown of his predecessor has therefore deprived Germany of one who should, as the entire press declares, for twenty-five or thirty years more have added to the nation's fame and to the sum of human knowledge.

The property in Zion City and its industries did not, according to a judge of the United States Circuit Court, belong to John Alexander Dowie; a receiver has been appointed for the whole enterprise; and later the people are to vote for a new general overseer. Thus this extraordinary industrial and political community enters upon an entirely new stage, no less interesting than that through which it has passed. There have been a hundred or more communistic societies in America. They have differed in every external particular, but the only ones which have been able to keep going are those founded on a religious basis. The Fourier "phalanxes," with all which held their members by a purely economic tie, have either died or lost their coöperative features. Dowie's community, with six or eight thousand people, is now something like four times as populous as the largest and most successful communistic body in the world, the Amana Society in Iowa. How, if at all, it can sustain itself, is the question to be solved. One peculiar feature is that money received from contributors all over the world is being applied to the well-being of those on the spot. The residents of Zion City are getting the benefit of much more than they put in. This certainly gives the new overseer one advantage from the start.

The city judge of Yonkers who sentenced an automobile owner to jail for two months on the ground of criminal liability, although the owner was not himself operating his car when the crime occurred, lays down a principle which, whatever the courts may finally

say about it, appeals to all who use the roads for walking and driving. If the owner is to go scot free where there is a wilful misdemeanor, we shall soon see chauffeurs taking their punishment in the spirit of the European editors who are hired merely to go to jail whenever their newspapers commit *lèse-majesté*. On grounds of public policy, there is every reason why the owners of machines should be made to feel a proper responsibility. There will, however, be serious miscarriages of justice unless judges discriminate between avoidable and unavoidable accidents. In the Yonkers case there seems to have been no excuse whatever: the persons injured were sitting in a carriage which was not in motion when it was run into and overturned. The driver and owner of the automobile are therefore open to the severe punishment they have received. Had the collision been due to a sudden defect in the steering apparatus or to failure of the brakes the aspect of the case would have been changed. Upon the reckless and inhuman motorists—of whom there are still far too many—the Yonkers decision should have a beneficial effect.

A movement back to the farm has begun. Prof. L. H. Bailey of the Cornell Agricultural College sets forth in the current number of the *Century* the results of an inquiry among students who intend to take up farming. He finds 261 such young men, 68 of them town or city bred, and 193 country bred. Presumably they represent a much larger class distributed through colleges and schools all over the country. Farming, having become a branch of applied science, has for a long time been pointed out as offering great opportunities for educated men with capital. Yet one of the striking points about the replies to Professor Bailey's inquiry is that, while all intend making a living off the farm, few speak of monetary profits as one of the inducements. Sixteen of the town-bred suggest that "there is money in farming," while thirty-nine of the farm-bred call it "a profitable occupation." Yet not a member of either group includes financial profit among the "personal desires" that brought about this choice of vocation. Both with the city and country-bred, the "love of out of doors and of nature" and the "independence" of the farmer's life are the commonest reasons. No less than fifty-nine, and this is an unexpected revelation, profess a love for farm work. But above all it is the "simple," outdoor life that calls. Thus it may be fair to say that what economic inducements alone could not accomplish, nor yet the mere interest in scientific agriculture, has been achieved by the combination of these two with the rekindled fondness for getting back to the soil.

Another tragedy of Pittsburgh sudden wealth passed to a new act this week in the decree of divorce, undefended, granted against the President of the United States Steel Corporation. When the full story of the "steel millionaires" comes to be written, it will need no Juvenal to point the moral of human vanity. The sordid details of weak heads turned and characters as unstable as water swept away to ruin; the heaping up of money, meaning the heaping up of scandal and sorrow and crime; the rush of the new rich into the vices which they seem to think must be as vulgar and flaunting as their wealth will bear—all this will bite in its own truth, as old as Solomon, as new as the latest transcript from the criminal court. An incidental evil of this moral upset was rather strikingly disclosed in the melancholy Corey trial. In asking for the custody by the mother of the sixteen-year-old son, Mr. Corey's sister said that her brother was not a fit person to bring up the lad. Then she added: "I do not think any New York man is fit to have charge of a boy of his age." "Do you mean all New York men?" "I mean wealthy New York men." Allowing for the excusable personal bitterness of the saying, there is enough clear truth in it to give the reflecting pause. Even when there is no occasion to shudder at the associates of a rich man, it is patent that he has an uncommonly fine chance to add his son to our collection of *jeunesse dorée*—silly, incapable, lavish, offensive, noisy. This spoiling of sons by wealthy fathers is peculiarly a habit of the newly rich. Where money has been long in the family, the possession of a few millions does not constitute an irresistible temptation to rush out and join the herd of swine.

With the possible exception of devastating fire, the greatest enemy of our forests is the insatiable demand for wood pulp. One is bound to welcome, therefore, the promise of any relieving invention, such as the manufacture of paper from the fibre of the cotton stalk. This is now announced as having passed the experimental stage—though we are bound to state that there are doubters. It is a suggestive coincidence that it is in the forest-State of Maine that a company has been organized for exploiting this method. All grades of paper can, it is said, be manufactured from cotton stalks, and by-products, such as alcohol, nitrogen, material for gun cotton and smokeless powder, can also be secured in paying quantities. About 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 tons of raw material, it is estimated, could be obtained in the cotton fields of the South, increasing their value by nearly \$10,000,000. That would represent the saving of many a square mile of valuable forests. The pros and cons are eagerly debated in the Southern press,

TRAINING IN PATRIOTISM.

How shall nations be trained in patriotism? The question always seems to press upon Anglo-Saxons immediately after they have tasted war. Here in the United States patriotic societies have flourished prodigiously since the victory of 1898; and the cult of military forebears is carried on with fierce enthusiasm. It has become an offence to remain seated when the national anthem is played, and a crime to use "Old Glory" as an advertisement. Our school-houses now have each their stars and stripes. The excuse is that we must neglect no opportunity to foster patriotism. There seemed to be sufficient to go around in 1898, and there was even more in 1861. Yet there never is enough to suit those who can measure devotion to country only by readiness to fight for it.

Just now Lord Roberts, Rudyard Kipling, and the London *Spectator*, a formidable trio, are wrestling in England with the momentous question. Lord Roberts mourns because all Englishmen are not made to imbibe patriotism while serving for two years as military conscripts. The *Spectator* is "anxious to see every boy trained to arms," but, strange to say, it has doubts if this is sufficient to make a patriot of him. Patriotism, it explains, "demands above all things seriousness, and its one enemy is frivolity." Logically those who believe that patriotism can be manufactured by legal enactment should frame a statute to banish, expel, and forbid frivolity and its twin, levity. No such easy way out for the *Spectator*. It says:

How is patriotism to be taught? The first step is to recognize it as one of the chief ends of education. No new curriculum, no special subjects, are required. It is the spirit in which the teaching is given that matters. History will cease to be a dry catalogue of dates and persons if the child is once inspired with the magnificence of the past, and is made to feel himself a sharer in the heritage. So, too, with literature. English literature is the finest manual of patriotism in the world, and many a boy who is insensible to literary beauty is not insensible to the practical lessons at the heart of it. It is the same with the special sciences, with geography, with economics, which acquire a direct practical interest when brought into connection with the State of which all are members.

But would even this counsel of pedagogic perfection produce the end the *Spectator* desires? In Russia, of late years, all its conditions might have been fulfilled and yet the conventional type of patriotism would still be sadly to seek. A share in the glories of Catharine and Peter has surely kept no Russian student from treason to the Czar, and to the present organization of the empire. The magnificence of the past has made no Russian mujik a whit more ready to die in Manchuria at the hands of a lit-

tle known enemy for a still less understood cause. So long as the Russian flag stands for what it does, it will inspire precious little of that kind of patriotism which seems dearest to the Society of Colonial Wars and other organizations for ancestor worship. All possible teaching of history, literature, science, geography, and economics, all playing of national anthems, and all appeals to present an unbroken front to the enemy, could make no liberty-loving Russian less "disloyal" than he is to-day. Indeed, the more educated the Russian, the more he knows of history and economics, the more certain is he to be disaffected toward the present Government. Contrast his situation with that of the thousands of German and French and Irish-Americans who fought for the North during our Civil War. The ardor of these men in our cause proves that the finest type of battlefield patriots may be found among people with only superficial education in the history and language of a recently adopted country.

The truth is, that love of country, in the high and proper sense, cannot be taught. It is commanded by the country which deserves it. Mere readiness to go to war is often not patriotism at all, but a survival of those savage, animal passions which always lie too near the surface. Give men justice, freedom, and equal treatment before the laws, and you do more than all possible schools and schoolmasters to intensify their national love for land and kin. Try to stimulate this by hot-house methods, and you make patriotism artificial and false, an idle name; you stifle the noblest kind of love of country, now exemplified in Russia—the readiness to overthrow duly constituted authorities who betray their trust. It is not shouting for the old flag and an appropriation, it is not grabbing special favors under cover of a tariff law that kindles the pure white flame of patriotism. It is doing justice and loving mercy.

More than a century before Lord Roberts, Kipling, and the *Spectator* favored the world with their profound views on this topic, the greatest political philosopher that ever used our tongue spoke the final word about it. It was in 1775, when Parliament was sorely troubled by the unpatriotic conduct of the Americans. "My hold of the colonies," cried Burke, is in the close affection which grows "from similar privileges and equal protection." "Let the colonies," continued Burke, "always keep the idea of their civil rights associated with your government—they will cling and grapple to you, and no force under heaven will be of power to tear them from their allegiance." And what Burke says of the colonies is equally true of individuals. Patriotic songs and declamations, flag-railings and the drilling of militia—these are all well enough in their way.

But they are purely superficial. They are nothing and worse than nothing unless they rest on the firm foundation of "similar privileges and equal protection."

The patriotism thus developed transcends the petty bounds of city, State, or country, to embrace mankind. It hates injustice and oppression wherever they exist. It makes cause equally with the tortured negro on the Congo and the massacred Jew in Bialystok. This wider patriotism was urged in an eloquent address by William Everett a few years ago. It is urged again by Max Forrester Eastman in the last *International Journal of Ethics*. Justice, he points out, has overshadowed the interest of the individual or even the community. Of late "the custom of just thinking has begot international law," but until every nation subscribes itself as a part of the constituted governments of the world, there will continue wars and international rivalries, largely because of conceptions of patriotism as something national instead of international. The patriotism that is taught as a dogma can only retard the progress of the world; for instilling a narrow patriotism into a good citizen is merely, as Mr. Eastman points out, giving him "an additional quality, and that quality is injustice." It provokes in him an exaggerated military enthusiasm and spirit of belligerency. It opposes international arbitration simply because arbitration requires each nation to refrain from those "patriotic" hysterics which are dear to many of its rulers and citizens.

NEW YORK CITY'S BOND SALE.

The announcement of the bids for the New York city bond issue of \$12,500,000 is one of the striking incidents of the year in the light it throws on the financial situation here and abroad. The loans placed by the city during 1905, at 3½ per cent., the rate then usual, sold so low that it became doubtful whether another issue of 3½ per cent. would bring par. Consequently, when \$20,000,000 of bonds were offered last February, the rate was advanced to 4 per cent. Those bonds brought 108—a fairly good margin over par, but a price making the annual cost to the city the highest on any loan in more than a decade. Since then, the finances of the municipality have been much discussed. Mayor McClellan, in his message of May 29, took as cheerful a view as circumstances admitted. He pointed out the margin of \$83,000,000 left for borrowing within the constitutional debt limit, 10 per cent. of assessed real estate valuation; and he referred to the plan of issuing bonds against uncollectible taxes, in order to enlarge the scope of borrowing. But he ended by a warning that the policy of extending the

debt on the basis merely of increase in the ratio of real estate assessment, was a hazardous expedient.

At about the same time, Frank A. Vanderlip, vice-president of the National City Bank, speaking to the Savings Bank Association, made the prediction that within ten years the 4 per cent. bonds, which had just sold at 108, would command not less than 125. Yet last week's bids for a second 4 per cent. loan averaged less than 101. Under the Greater New York Charter, corporate stock may not be sold for less than par, nor may it pay a higher interest than 4 per cent. Clearly, with so small a margin, it is time to take thought.

Naturally, this outcome of the city bond issue is contrasted with the recent success of the United States Government's bond issue of \$30,000,000 in 2 per cents, at an average price of 103.95. The parallel, however, is unfair. The market for national bonds, always artificial, has been made unusually strong by the special terms offered by Secretary Shaw to the national banks, the only customers for the loan. When a United States bond can be used as a basis for bank-note circulation, when the Treasury guarantees that one-third of the purchase money will be left with the banks in the form of public deposits, and when outstanding issues are practically exhausted, it is manifestly unjust to compare the price obtained by Secretary Shaw with that at which Comptroller Metz must place the city loan. A glance at other public securities, however, will reveal more than one parallel to the situation of New York city. Notably British consols, quoted seven or eight years ago at 113, have sold this week below 87. This decline has been generally ascribed to the enormous load of new British Government securities, placed on the market, first by the Transvaal war, then by the Irish Land purchase. English economists have argued that the market for high-grade securities with a small yield is necessarily limited, and that a sudden and great increase in supply can hardly fail to depress the price. This argument is equally applicable to New York city. The \$430,000,000 net indebtedness is not, relatively, large for a municipality of 4,000,000 people. But that is not the only point. The question is simply one of demand and supply; and New York has been manufacturing securities too rapidly for the market to absorb.

The question naturally arises, What will the city do? During recent years the average annual increase in the debt, has been \$50,000,000; the actual issue of long-term bonds was \$37,960,934 in 1905, and \$78,428,337 in 1904. Since \$31,000,000 in bonds, including last week's allotment, have been issued this year, the annual average has already been nearly reached. The city must then

pause, if possible, until the bonds already issued have found permanent lodgment. New York can borrow in anticipation of its revenues without being subject to the restrictions on long-term loans; but these revenue bonds are by law based on tax receipts for the ensuing year, and must be promptly paid from the proceeds of such taxes. There remains only the very limited recourse of purchases by the city itself for its sinking fund.

Present conditions in the investment markets should not be permanent. While the large issues of bonds by New York are one great cause of the city's present situation, exactly the same process has been going on—especially during the past two years—with every borrowing government and corporation in the world. This phenomenon became particularly noticeable a year ago, and, coinciding since then with the immense absorption of capital in this country, it not only explains, in part at least, the present scarcity of capital, but indicates a state of affairs which may be merely temporary. Until a change occurs, however—either through liquidation of some of the present enormous commitments of capital, or through the gradual increase of a supply—municipal governments will have to move cautiously. We should regard it no misfortune if New York city were compelled to economize. Sometimes nothing short of a crisis will drive a public body to serious consideration of that duty.

SIR ROBERT HART AND CHINA.

If, as was recently reported, Sir Robert Hart is to retire from office, the Chinese Government will lose its most useful servant. For forty-seven years this remarkable Irishman has been identified with the administration of its customs service; during all the great popular upheavals of this long period he has held his place with unshaken fortitude. Neither Taipings nor Boxers could drive him from his labors. But when the Chinese Government last May subordinated Sir Robert to two Chinese officials, it became probable that he would soon complete his work and retire to a rest to which his seventy-one years alone would entitle him. If his withdrawal is prompted by what seems like rank ingratitude, he has at least the satisfaction of knowing that his admirable achievements have been recognized throughout the world. He is pointed to as an example wherever publicists discuss the White Man's Burden.

Indeed, the London *Times*, in an obituary of Sir Robert when it seemed probable that he had been killed by Boxers, merely repeated the common opinion in declaring that the Inspector-General of Chinese Customs combined "a wonderful faculty of organization

with a retentive memory, complete mastery of detail, and sound judgment." His grasp of Chinese ways of thought amounted to "intuition, while his personal tact and Irish warmth of heart have been ever constant features of his administration." "These qualities," it concluded, "combined with limitless capacity for work, considerable ambition and love of power, are the foundations upon which Sir Robert Hart has built up his own great reputation and the customs service; in the latter, posterity will doubtless recognize one of the most striking monuments ever produced by the genius and labor of any individual Englishman." This tribute was the more remarkable because the *Times* frequently charged Sir Robert with being too fond of the Chinese; and even hinted that, like other Europeans long resident in the East, he had undergone a subtle transformation of mind which made him regard events entirely too much from the Chinese point of view.

Whether this was or was not a correct criticism, some future historian must decide. To us it seems probable that Sir Robert Hart's ability to sympathize with the Chinese was one great cause of his extraordinary success. The *Spectator* has recently found it necessary to chide English colonial administrators for not treating the natives "at least as well as a British officer would treat British soldiers." Had Sir Robert Hart been like the too familiar type of European civil servant abroad, he would have carried a chip on his shoulder. The frequent refusal of the Mandarins to communicate with him save through minor clerks would have been a deadly insult, calling for diplomatic negotiations. Fortunately, he has been too broad to take such an attitude, and he has found satisfaction not in the few honors and emoluments bestowed upon him, but in doing his duty quietly and modestly. The Englishmen in the Chinese customs service sometimes complain that Sir Robert is kinder to the foreigners in his employ than to them; but this impartiality, this ability to ignore national lines, is surely as much the explanation of his long continuance in so trying a position as his rare financial ability and foresight.

It was in 1861 that the "collectorate" of the treaty Powers—Great Britain, France, and the United States—was given authority to collect the Chinese Imperial revenue. Mr. Hart, as he then was, became almost immediately the acting head. Two years later, at the age of only twenty-eight, he became Inspector-General. Under his guidance, the maritime customs service speedily became not a local Shanghai affair, but a complex organization, collecting and administering the one substantial revenue of the Government. With a staff of only 200 foreign employees, he be-

gan his work. By 1899, 503 Englishmen, 490 other foreigners, and 4,611 Chinese were under his orders, and instead of 14 ports, he had 32 under his control. With his force he undertook the lighting of the coast and inland waterways, controlled a fleet of revenue cutters, and established a European university at Peking. After the war with Japan he also took in hand the reorganization of the postal service. Not the least of his achievements was the elaboration of his plan for subjecting to foreign control the collection of inland duties in the Yang-tsze provinces, which became collateral for the loan of 1898. The maritime customs alone made it possible for China to meet the Japanese war indemnity; they, with the native customs administered by Sir Robert Hart, are the main security for the Boxer indemnity of \$320,000,000. The annual charge on all debts secured by the customs is now \$28,850,000, and had there not been this security in addition to the railways, the four great foreign loans placed since 1895 would hardly have been feasible. How the Chinese will get on without the man who was security for this security remains to be seen. In all important matters affecting the nation he has wielded enormous influence. If the Empire has been so modernized that it can now dispense with Sir Robert Hart, it can only be because it has learned and applied the administrative lessons of his long and faithful teaching.

SPELLING REFORM IN FRANCE.

They simplify their spelling better in France. The reasons are manifold. There is a French Academy, from which all the lettered take the declaration of good usage. On the official side, the Minister of Public Instruction has great power, but he is bound to exercise it with discretion; for the good sense of the people, with their deep conservatism under surface radicalism, and their love of language as a fine art, would make it impossible to *légiférer* any sweeping changes. Thus France is guarded against the furibund and fantastic reformer of spelling; while she stands ready to hear and weigh the arguments for cautious and helpful improvement.

Matters came to a head the other day when M. Briand, the new Minister of Public Instruction, in an address before the *conseil supérieur*, took strong ground against the extremists. About two years ago it was that the question became somewhat acute. Root-and-branch reformers then first got the ear of the Ministry; and Premier Combes, with his zeal for destroying everything, saw no reason why the accepted orthography should be spared any more than the accepted orthodoxy. Under him, a commission was named to propose a plan of reform. In due time it brought out what most Frenchmen would con-

sider a monstrous scheme. By it, French would be made to read something like this:

Cète fatuité de quelques fames de la vile, qui cause en èles une mauvaise imitation de cèles de la cour, est quelque chose de pire que la grosièreté des fames du peuple et que la rusticité des vilajoizes: èle a sur toutes deus l'afectacion de plus.

And this was only a beginning. There were to be new symbols; the Greek epsilon was to replace mute "e"; there was to be a terrifying array of diacritical points, etc.

The chairman of the commission, Ferdinand Brunot, in laying his revolutionary report before Minister Briand, evidently counted upon a favorable reception. Was he not addressing a radical? Indeed, he put in some fine words about his confidence that the present Minister of Public Instruction was not a man to be frightened at the thought of "grammatical Socialism." But Briand's reply was chilly. He remarked that the innovations proposed were very "complex"; that the decisions requested of him were extraordinarily important; and that, for his part, he was not ready, until after much more study, to give his assent to changes so far-reaching. Hence the chagrin of the spelling-reformers; the joy of their opponents; the satisfaction of Academicians, who are saying that Minister Briand, in refusing to exert his official power in a matter beyond the proper competence of government, has but followed the sound example of Charles X. It was he who said, when asked to interfere with the management of the Théâtre Français, "In theatrical affairs, I have only my seat in the parterre."

While earthquake spelling reform is thus put out of the question in France, slight and sensible variations from the old orthography may be introduced from time to time. In March of last year, the Academy printed a list of about 100 words of which the spelling might be simplified, or rationalized, without incurring the anathema. Of course, the Academy never undertakes to decree; it merely registers good or permissible usage. Undoubtedly, however, its way of slow and tentative change—the new forms first knocking for admission, then being kept waiting for long scrutiny in the hall before being invited to the table with the family—is the method which is more and more approving itself everywhere as the only one by which we shall get any spelling reform at all.

Prof. W. W. Skeat's recent address on "The Problem of Spelling Reform," which has just been published by the New York branch of the Oxford Press, admits that the early schemes of Dr. Sweet and others were doomed to failure because too daring and comprehensive. "Here a letter and there a letter," is the only sure rule. Professor Skeat

naturally places great faith in phonetics. If English-speaking students were only taught to pronounce Latin correctly, there would, he believes, be more hope of their doing something for their own language. Yet even phonetics is no royal road to accurate spelling. Spanish is, we suppose, as nearly phonetic a language as exists, but its misspelling by natives is as ingenious and ludicrous as anything English can display. Under any system, some minds will remain refractory. Want of close observation, or precise hearing, or both, will make bad spellers as long as the world stands. And while habitual bad spelling indicates a certain mental defect, it is not necessarily fatal. A former Minister of Public Instruction in France, Léon Bourgeois, showed common sense in directing school examiners not to reject a student for a few errors in spelling, provided that, in other respects, he gave evidence of application and intelligence.

CANCER RESEARCH.

Progress in cancer research was announced a few days ago in dispatches from London. According to a report from Dr. Bashford, superintendent of the laboratory maintained by the Imperial Cancer Research Fund, the prospect of finding out the mystery of the disease is brighter than ever before. One of the terrible things about cancer has been the obscure nature of it. Large sums of money and much time have been spent in investigation, but the experts have thus far confessed themselves baffled. Dr. E. H. Nichols of the Harvard Medical School conducted a long series of experiments, but he succeeded chiefly in disproving several theories that had been propounded. His evidence showed, for example, that cancer was probably not, like tuberculosis, caused by a bacillus. These so-called negative results are not to be disparaged; they are really positive, and of great value in that they narrow the field of inquiry and point the way along which experimentation may be conducted most profitably.

"Four years ago," says Dr. Bashford, "there seemed little hope of acquiring any new knowledge of cancer." In the interval the advance has been so great as to enable physicians "to reproduce at will all the features of spontaneous cancer in mice and to protect healthy mice from all consequences of inoculation with experimental cancer." Without explaining the means of protection, the dispatches declare that, whereas in ordinary mice ninety out of one hundred developed tumors after inoculation, no tumors occurred in protected animals. Moreover, the body fluids of protected mice, when injected into mice with experimental cancer, have retarded the growth of well-established tumors. With thus much achieved, the outlook is that

further study "will ultimately yield results having a direct bearing on the nature and treatment of the disease." By breeding cancerous mice, it may be possible to determine whether cancer in man is or is not hereditary. Dr. Bashford, however, utters a distinct warning against exaggerated expectations. The process of retarding experimental tumors is not yet certain, "far less the cure of the disease when it occurs naturally in mice." Furthermore, the application of these methods to human patients has still to be worked out.

The brief cable dispatches do not indicate whether the report of Dr. Bashford is based on any of the experiments of Dr. John Beard, lecturer in comparative embryology in the University of Edinburgh. The work of Dr. Beard was described by Dr. C. W. Saleeby in *Harper's Weekly* of March 3. In still another article on the same subject, "Cancer: Can It Be Cured?"—printed in the August *McClure's*—Dr. Saleeby treats the topic more fully, and with still more confidence. He believes that Dr. Beard has not only come very close to the secret of cancer, but that he may actually have found in what is called trypsin a remedy.

The theory of Dr. Beard, adopted and expounded by Dr. Saleeby, is the fruit of elaborate studies of the embryology of lower orders of beings, vertebrates and invertebrates. For the full details, we must refer the reader to *McClure's*. In brief, Dr. Beard believes that cancerous tissue is the product of a misplaced germ-cell. In the case of the skate, he has found many germ-cells "lying in the tissue immediately outside the embryo and preparing to enter it." Many of these cells, however, never reach the proper position. "They wander along what is called the germinal path, but may find themselves misplaced in all parts of the body." Their common fate, he says, is to degenerate, though apparently they do not always do so. He maintains that the original cell (of bisexual origin) from which the skate develops gives rise, on the one hand to the embryo itself, and on the other to these wandering, immature, and undeveloped "twin" brothers and sisters of the embryo. "There are a host of instances in the lower animals, if not also in man, of the development of these aberrant germ-cells into tumors which show distinct signs of the attempt to produce a second individual."

These misplaced cells, survivals of a primitive state—"embryonic residues"—seem to remain dormant in the body for years, until some special cause excites them to action. Then they multiply by reproducing cells of an "extremely low order," asexual, incapable of differentiation, characteristic of part of

the structure of the embryo in an early period. In several amphibia and fishes Dr. Beard has observed that the disappearance of these rudimentary cells is determined by the development in the embryo of a new organ, the pancreas, or sweetbread. This "initiates an alkaline digestion," through which the low order of tissue—the "trophoblast"—slowly degenerates while the higher cells progress. Dr. Beard simply applies to the "irresponsible trophoblast," or the "embryonic residues," which are making cancers, the very thing that apparently breaks down such cells in the embryo, a pancreatic secretion, trypsin. His method is local application, injections under the skin, and doses through the mouth.

The results of this treatment, as Dr. Saleeby admits, are far from being well established; yet he speaks of it with the greatest enthusiasm as "the most amazing thing I have ever seen." He mentions two strikingly successful cases: in one the tumor is "killed outright"; in the other "it is expected that in a few weeks more no signs of the tumor will be discoverable." He is convinced that the method, despite important difficulties in administering the remedy, is worthy of immediate trial in behalf of persons to whom it offers a possible escape. This zeal will probably be discounted by cool observers who will note that the report from London, published weeks after Dr. Saleeby wrote the article in *McClure's*, is much more skeptical as to cures. Apparently we are on the road, but still some distance from the goal.

THE CLASSICS AND "PONIES."

An edict against "cribs"—the words "pony" and "trot" are more common in this country—has been issued by the head master of Eton. "The prose translations of the works in use for the Half have been withdrawn from circulation in the School Library"—so runs the chilling decree which has started a lively discussion among the young boys in school and the old boys now out of school and writing for the newspapers.

In all their talk there is a failure to distinguish the two different disciplines aimed at in the study of the classics. The failure is not surprising, for the disciplines are inextricably confused in the minds of many teachers of Latin and Greek. In the first place, the grammars of these languages and the texts of Cæsar and Xenophon are generally treated in practice as a mere mental gymnasium. To master the declensions and the conjugations and the rules for the ablative case and the subjunctive mood, to unravel the mysteries of $\acute{\alpha}\nu$ and $\gamma\acute{\alpha}\rho$, to construe and translate sentences—these are exercises which, like learning the multiplication table, solving problems in algebra, and per-

forming experiments in chemistry, strengthen the memory, cultivate the powers of observation, and develop the reasoning faculty. But it is nonsense to say, as enthusiastic teachers so often do, that this kind of drill-work, whether in high-school or college, gives to boys and girls a fine flavor of classical culture. Gerund-grinding may be useful enough in its way, but gerund-grinding is not reading literature with enjoyment and appreciation. Comparatively few students, even in college, go far enough beyond the rudiments to benefit from the second form of discipline; that is, to proceed rapidly, to get into the movement of an oration or poem, and to perceive that it is something more than a succession of detached and uncommonly dull sentences. The question whether our methods of instruction are faulty, we shall not discuss at length. It is enough to say that certain learned professors, through long devotion to syntax, have come to regard classical literature as nothing but illustrations of rules of grammar. Their pupils are always wrestling with puzzles in philology and sentence structure.

So long as students, young or old, are asked to approach a page of Latin or Greek, not as so much literature to be read, but as a collection of problems to be worked out, "the prose translations" are properly barred. The beginner who leans on a "pony" will not take the trouble to look up and remember words, and thus acquire a vocabulary; he will guess at meanings and he may become incurably slipshod. The objection to translations is, however, in our opinion, often carried too far. When the pupil has reached the point at which parsing ceases to be his primary aim, he may legitimately resort to translations in order to get over ground swiftly and make a complete survey of his author. This is a fact which progressive teachers are admitting far more freely than they did a generation ago. Many men of forty and fifty will probably confess that their deepest impression, say, of Flato's "Apology," is derived from a hasty—and perhaps surreptitious—reading of the whole in translation just before examination. For nearly thirty years there has been on the market an admirable translation of the "Apology," "Crifo," and parts of the "Phædo," with an introduction by Prof. W. W. Goodwin. The unnamed translator has been a benefactor to hundreds, perhaps thousands, of freshmen, who, with this little book in hand, have reinforced their knowledge of the original Greek. At Harvard some of the instructors used frankly to recommend the work, which was less expensive than the volumes of Jowett. If any of our college graduates go about their daily tasks fortified by the conviction that "no evil can befall a good man whether he be alive or

dead," the inspiration is as likely to be drawn from the printed translation as from Plato direct.

Homer, too, is an author whom many nominal Grecians must have enjoyed first and perhaps chiefly in translations—not the artificial and un-Homeric couplets of Pope, or the heavy pages of "Bohn," but the prose of the "Iliad" of Lang, Leaf, and Myers, and the "Odyssey" of Butcher and Lang; or, it may be, Prof. George Herbert Palmer's "Odyssey" in rhythmic prose. Prefixed to the Butcher and Lang translation is one of Lang's best bits of verse, ending:

So gladly, from the songs of modern speech
Men turn, and see the stars, and feel the free
Shrill wind beyond the close of heavy flowers;
And through the music of the languid hours.
They hear like ocean on a western beach
The surge and thunder of the "Odyssey."

Very little surge and thunder is there in it for most lads in high school and college. We venture, however, to say that a student who will read through a good translation may turn back to the Greek with comprehension and discover that the lines through which he had been heavily plodding are something more than a jumble from Autenrieth's "Homeric Dictionary."

Instances of this kind we might multiply indefinitely; but intelligent teachers of the classics will warn us that we are casting our pearls before Sinbad the Sailor; while the unintelligent are hopelessly wedded to their idols—the irregular verbs and the Doric forms. We would not labor the point. The judicious use of translations is, after all, one small phase of the large and pressing question of treating classics not as a cadaver for dissection, but as a living revelation of the human spirit.

THE DECISION OF CONTESTED ELECTIONS BY JUDGES.

LONDON, July 20.

The debate in the House of Commons on the conduct of Mr. Justice Grantham raises a general question, which may well interest any man who watches the tendencies of democratic government: Has the experience of England justified the system, which has now existed for some thirty or forty years, of referring the decision of election petitions to judges of the High Court? The question may be of special pertinence in the United States, where contested elections—notably the case of Senator William A. Clark of Montana and more recently that of Senator Reed Smoot of Utah—have attracted much attention, and have consumed much of the time of your legislators. The short answer to this inquiry is, that the change due to Mr. Disraeli, by which the trial of election petitions was transferred from committees of the House to the judges, has in the main turned out a striking success. The undoubted reform, however, has been accompanied by certain evils. But this reply itself requires justification.

The reform has assuredly attained its object. No one has ever expressed the remotest desire to hand back to Parliamen-

tary committees authority which in past times they often exercised with scandalous partiality, and which they could never from the nature of things exercise without some scandal. The decisions of the judges on election petitions have been accepted with general acquiescence. That the judgment of a court should give universal satisfaction is a moral impossibility. Judges are, after all, men, liable to err; but the recent debate at Westminster proves the deference felt in England for English courts, and betrays the prevalence of a conviction that judges, when trying a political issue, have not only acted honestly, but have all but invariably preserved the becoming attitude of dignity and impartiality. Electoral questions have been decided in accordance with law and not in deference to party feeling. The House of Commons has been freed from the reproach of letting the tenure of a seat depend, in appearance at least, upon the decision of a man's political enemies, or, what is equally bad, of his political friends. The reform has further made it easier to enforce a stringent law for the suppression of corruption.

Yet the change has produced two results which, if not guarded against, may become disastrous. The one is that a judge who tries an election petition is placed in a position, the difficulties of which can be met only by a magistrate of exceptional strength and wisdom. Men such as were Lord Bramwell, Lord Hannen, Mr. Justice Willes, or Lord Justice A. L. Smith—to speak only of the dead—carried with them a mass of experience and a weight of character which placed their decisions above censure and almost above criticism. Many such men always have been found, and will be found, on the Bench; but there are excellent magistrates who, though they handle satisfactorily the ordinary case, are not specially qualified to deal with a matter which excites political passions and which may touch the judge's own political feelings.

Moreover, the judge who is called upon to decide whether a candidate has by his own conduct, or that of his agents, lost the right to a seat in Parliament, must administer a branch of the law, the rules of which are singularly vague and uncertain. Nor is this vagueness accidental. Parliament and the electorate, while in their sterner moments wishing to put down bribery, have never, when in their usual frame of mind, desired to check the growth of the personal and friendly relations between a member of Parliament and his constituents. Hence the extreme difficulty of determining what is meant by "treating." Is a candidate who asks one of his neighbors, or a thousand of his neighbors, in to tea, guilty of illegitimate treating? Everything depends upon the circumstances. Parliament again has desired that a candidate should be responsible for the acts of his agents, but then Parliament has also feared that an honest man who intends no harm may lose his seat by the injudicious zeal, or even by the treachery, of a partisan who offers a bribe, say of half-a-crown, on behalf of the candidate whom he wishes to unseat. How can any judge interpret with certainty a vague enactment aiming at almost inconsistent ends?

This vagueness would be less important but for another peculiarity in the position

of election judges: they fulfil the office both of judge and jury. Hence cases which seem to the public exactly identical may rightly lead to quite different decisions. Jones, the candidate for Little Peddington, gives to a thousand electors a tea, where perhaps there is wine also. Brown, the candidate for Eatanswill, gives a feast of apparently the same kind. Jones is unseated, Brown goes triumphantly into Parliament. It is quite possible that the judges have in each case given a just judgment which, he it remembered, is also a verdict. Various circumstances which the public does not note may have made Jones's tea a case of unjustifiable treating, while Brown's tea may have been as innocent as a school feast. Further, it is more than possible that a weak or a nervous judge may think too much of public opinion, and give the decision which will commend itself to the public, rather than to his own sense of fairness.

The second danger resulting from a genuine reform is that the House of Commons may be unable to abstain from interference in judicial proceedings when they affect a right to a seat in Parliament. The recent action of the House is not of altogether good omen. The House knew that Mr. Justice Grantham had done no act which called for his removal from the bench. The House most rightly declined to pass upon him a formal vote of censure, but it would be vain to deny that the House did indirectly, but none the less certainly, criticise and in effect condemn conduct on which the House dared not pass a vote of condemnation. Many members of Parliament doubtless hoped that their action would lead to the judge's resignation; in other words, they wished, without any evidence before them which a law court would recognize, and though inevitably influenced by party feeling, to drive from the bench a man whom they felt they had no right to remove from it. This indirect supervision of judicial conduct, were it to become usual, is almost the greatest calamity which could befall parliamentary government. Reason and history alike demonstrate that a political assembly ought never to act as a law court. The House of Lords, it may be said, is an excellent Court of Appeal. The reason is that the House, long ago, surrendered its judicial functions to its judicial members. In short, recent events force the reflection that the existing method of dealing with election petitions, successful though it has been, demands the exercise of wisdom not possessed by every judge and of self-control not always to be found in every representative assembly.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

INDEMNITIES FOR MURDERED MISSIONARIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The brief editorial comment in the *Nation* of July 19 on "the protest of Mrs. Mary Schaufler Laharee against the action of our Government in exacting an indemnity of \$50,000 from Persia for the killing of her husband, a missionary, by native religious fanatics," is both pertinent and wholesome. That such a "protest" is

incomprehensible to the Chauvinist, may not be gainsaid; that it also passes the recognition, if not actually the comprehension, of an unfortunately large class of our citizens, whether Christian or non-Christian, is a fact to be admitted with profound regret. It is stimulating that this instance should be duly recognized, and the *Nation* has but honored itself in honoring this good woman.

It is with no inconsiderable pleasure that I am able to submit another instance which affords a most attractive parallel to the noble action of Mrs. Labaree. This clipping from "Bulletin No. 10," Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church, No. 156 Fifth Avenue, New York city, came to me but yesterday and tells its own story:

Four of the Board's beloved missionaries and one child were brutally massacred at Lien-chou, China, October 28—Mrs. E. C. Machle and Amy Machle, Dr. Eleanor Chesnut and the Rev. and Mrs. John Rogers Peale. Mr. and Mrs. Peale had been on the field but a day. The church supporting Mr. Peale resolved immediately to support two missionaries. The Rev. John S. Kunkle was last year appointed to Lien-chou, but, having taken the highest fellowship at the Western Theological Seminary, he was relieved of his appointment and went to study for a year at Oxford, England, Mr. Peale going to Lien-chou in his place. On receiving the news of the massacre of Mr. Peale, Mr. Kunkle offered to give up his fellowship and proceed to Lien-chou. The Rev. Ray Carter, who had just reached India, hearing of the massacre, offered to go at once to Lien-chou. A fellow-student of Mr. Peale at Princeton also offered for Lien-chou. China's challenge to the Church thus received a most heroic answer.

The Board formally voted to take no indemnity for the lives of its missionaries and no punitive indemnity whatever. The following letter from the Chinese minister was read at the meeting of the Board on December 4:

"Imperial Chinese Legation,
Washington, November 23, 1905.

"Rev. Arthur J. Brown, D.D., Sec. Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A., 156 Fifth Avenue, New York:

"Dear Sir: I have just read your letter of the 22d instant, in which you are so kind as to communicate to me the views of your Board on the question of indemnity arising from the killing of your missionaries at Lien-chou, China. I note with special gratification that it has been unanimously decided by your Board not to ask for or receive indemnity of a punitive character. I have lost no time in advising my Government of the conciliatory stand taken by your Board in this matter, which I am sure, will be greatly appreciated by my Government as it is by myself.

"I have read with profound interest the extract from a letter recently received from the Rev. John Rogers Peale, one of the murdered missionaries. His words seem to me to have a prophetic ring. In his untimely death America has lost a noble son and China a true friend.—Very truly yours,
(Signed)

"CHENTUNG LIANG CHANG."

NORVELLE WALLACE SHARPE.

St. Louis, July 26, 1906.

SUMMER SCHOOL OF FRENCH AT MCGILL UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Summer School of French at McGill University closed yesterday, after a session of three weeks. These vacation courses are not so well known in the United States as they deserve to be. They were instituted two years ago, primarily for the benefit of teachers of French in the Prov-

ince of Quebec, where the large French population gives to the knowledge of French much practical importance. But they are open to all who have some acquaintance with the language. There are two sets of courses, elementary and advanced. Instruction is given entirely in French (except just at the beginning of some elementary work), and French is the mother tongue of the whole faculty. Moreover, all the students in the boarding department are required to use French in conversation. The courses include conversation, composition, reading, phonetics, literature, etc.

Towards the end of the session free examinations are held, to which all students are admitted who wish to test their attainments. The Alliance Française of Montreal offers each year two bronze medals as prizes for the best examinations. Expenses here are very moderate, \$6 a week for board and lodging. The fee for all the instruction, lectures, and entertainments is \$10.

HERBERT M. CLARKE.

Presbyterian College, Montreal, July 26.

Notes.

"It is not generally known," say the Funk & Wagnalls Company, "that William Jennings Bryan is a prodigiously industrious literary worker, even while on his travels!" McClure, Phillips & Company have already announced that Mr. Bryan sent them from Suez the MS. of a reply to the "Letters from a Chinese Official," in the form of letters to that friend of the Orient. Now Funk & Wagnalls announce two more works. One is to be his travels, with comments on what he saw, his syndicated articles, no doubt. Besides this, he is to edit, with the assistance of Francis W. Halsey, "The World's Greatest Orations," in ten volumes. This huge work is to include the eloquence of mankind from the days of Athens down through, we presume, two notable recent Presidential campaigns.

F. Berkeley Smith's new book, "In London Town," will come from the Funk & Wagnalls Company's press in September.

"The Heart that Knows," by Prof. C. G. D. Roberts, will be the most important piece of fiction on the fall list of L. C. Page & Co. The tale deals with the fisher and sailor folk of the Tantraman Marsh region about the head of the Bay of Fundy.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce for immediate publication a new volume by Madison Cawein, his first prose work, called "Nature Notes and Impressions." The book consists of moods, fancies, descriptions, with occasional bits of verse, jotted down among woods and fields.

Moffat, Yard & Co. announce as forthcoming a popular work on wireless telegraphy by Prof. A. E. Kennelly of Harvard.

Philipp Spandow, the popular author of "Tyrann Ich!" is hard at work in his summer home near Berlin on a new work, "Ibsen und Idealismus," which he began shortly before the death of the great dramatist.

Henry Holt & Co. announce for the early fall a novel, "In the Shadow of the Lord,"

by Mrs. Hugh Fraser. Mary Washington, mother of George, is the central figure. The same firm will soon issue two text-books: "Everyday Ethics," by Mrs. Ella Lyman Cabot, and McMullen's "Forty Lessons in Physics."

Doubleday, Page & Co. will open their fall publishing season on September 6, with the "Dog Book," in two large volumes. Other books to be brought out on this day are a political novel, "The Leader," by Mary Dillon; "Songs Every Child Should Know," edited by Dolores Bacon and illustrated by B. Ostertag; "Dixie After the War," by Myrta Lockett Avary, uniform with "A Belle of the Fifties" and "A Southern Girl of '61."

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce for publication in the autumn: "John Sherman," in the American Statesman Series, by Congressman Theodore E. Burton of Ohio; and "Ecclesiastes in the Metre of Omar," by the Rev. William B. Forbush, D.D., who has just left the Madison Avenue Reformed Church, New York city, to accept a call to the Woodward Avenue Presbyterian Church in Detroit.

Harper & Bros. announce for autumn publication five novels: "The Call of the Blood," a story of Sicily, by Robert Hichens; "By the Light of the Soul," by Mrs. Mary E. Wilkins Freeman; "Ann Boyd," the scene laid in North Georgia, by Will N. Harben; "The Trident and the Net," a tale of Breton life, by the author of "The Martyrdom of an Empress," and "Sophy of Kravonia," by Anthony Hope Hawkins. The firm will also issue "Certain Delightful English Towns," a companion volume to "London Films," by William Dean Howells; "The Americanism of Washington," by Dr. Henry van Dyke; the autobiography of Gen. Lew Wallace; and "A Japanese Blossom," by Onoto Watanna.

A. C. McClurg & Co. are reprinting in handsome form (the Merrymount Press does the work) six rare books of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries on libraries and their management. They will be in English, several of them appearing here for the first time in translation. Two volumes are now ready: "Concerning the Duties and Qualifications of a Librarian," by Jean Baptiste Cotton des Houssayes (1727-1783), and "The Reformed Librarian-Keeper," by John Dury (1596-1680). The other four volumes, to appear later, are: "An Overture for Founding and Maintaining of Bibliotheks in Every Paroch Throughout This Kingdom," by the Rev. James Kirkwood (1650-1708); "De Bibliothecis Syntagma," by Justus Lipsius (1547-1606); "Life, Written by Himself," by Sir Thomas Bodley (1545-1613), and "News from France; or A Description of the Library of Cardinal Mazarini," by Gabriel Naudé (1600-1653). The whole series is edited by John Cotton Dana, of the Newark Public Library, and Henry W. Kent, librarian of the Grolier Club.

In John Murray's autumn list we note the following titles: "The Army in 1906," by H. O. Arnold-Foster; "Moltke in his Home," by F. A. Dressler, translated by C. E. Barrett-Lennard; "Life and Works of Vittorio Carpaccio, by the late Prof. Gustaf Ludwig and Prof. Pompeo Molmenti, translated by R. H. Hobart Cust; "Queen and Cardinal: A Sketch of the Life

and Companions of Anne of Austria," by Mrs. Coloquhoun Grant; "Recent Advances in the Study of Variation, Heredity, and Evolution," by Robert H. Lock, M.A., fellow of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge; "Storia Do Mogor: or, the Mogul Memoirs (1653-1708)," by Niccolao Manucci, Venetian, translated and edited—under the supervision of the Royal Asiatic Society—by William Irvine, late of the Bengal Civil Service; "The Industrial Organization of an Indian Province," by Theodore Morison, formerly principal at the College of Aligarh; "An Idler in the Wilds," a new volume of essays on bird life, by Tickner Edwardes, illustrated by the author; and two companion series of lectures—to be published for the League of the Empire—entitled "Colonization and Empire," by F. A. Kirkpatrick, M.A., university extension lecturer; and "Empire Builders," by the Rev. W. K. Stride.

Prof. C. E. Norton sends us this correction of the review of Baumgarten's "Carlyle and Goethe," printed in the *Nation* of July 19:

In 1887 I edited, and Macmillan & Company published, the "Correspondence between Goethe and Carlyle," printing the letters of Goethe in their original German and accompanying them with a translation. As an appendix, I printed a translation of the Dedication and Introduction by Goethe to the German translation of Carlyle's "Life of Schiller." The translation had been made under Goethe's auspices. One might infer from the reviewer's words that an Introduction in German by Goethe had been printed in an edition of the "Life of Schiller" in English, and that there were letters by Carlyle, written in German, given in the Introduction, as well as letters by Goethe. This is not the case. In the course of the Introduction Goethe gives a translation of a part of three of Carlyle's letters, but there is no letter of his own.

We have received from F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, an admirable photograph of the late Carl Schurz. It is obviously an enlargement from one taken when Mr. Schurz was at the height of his physical and mental activity. Yet the one criticism would seem to be an appearance of whiteness about the beard and hair. At his death Mr. Schurz had extraordinarily few gray hairs. In other respects this likeness is characteristic and faithful to such a degree as to make it in our opinion the best of the existing pictures of this remarkable man.

The *Atlantic Monthly* for August opens with a story by Norman Duncan, "The Wayfarer," the scene of which is laid on Mr. Duncan's favorite coast of Newfoundland. Admirers of Emerson will be interested in some three pages, probably once part of a lecture called "The Poet," devoted to Father Taylor, the "Sailor Preacher." Stoddard Dewey sums up the political events of the year in France; Henry Dwight Sedgwick offers an elaborate criticism of the novels of Mrs. Wharton, and Prof. A. Lawrence Lowell reviews Winston Spencer Churchill's Life of his father, Lord Randolph Churchill. Wendell Phillips Garrison, in an instructive and entertaining paper, "A Dissolving View of Punctuation," treats of punctuation as a fine art. With a conviction born of long experience in editing copy he exclaims: "How many graduates of our colleges, of both sexes, betray in their manuscripts no evidence of their literary training! How many writers of

learning and distinction need to be edited for the press in the simple matter of punctuation! Our textbooks are palpably at fault—our elementary textbooks; for the study ought never to pass beyond the grammar school."

Northern art bulks large in the *Burlington Magazine* for July. A summary account is given of the finest pieces—in Oiron pottery, ivory, enamel, and crystal—in the Oppenheim collection, which J. P. Morgan has recently acquired. W. H. J. Weale completes his critique of Netherlandish art at the Guildhall. Lionel Cust, Aymer Vallance, and Charles Ricketts discuss various phases of early German art, apropos the current exhibition by the Burlington Fine Arts Club. In "Austrian Colored Pottery of the Renaissance," M. L. Solon introduces a novel subject. The ware, as a colored frontispiece attests, has a curious similarity to Palissy faience. Stoves, frequently of belated Gothic design, are the occasion for the most striking display of tile work. C. J. Holmes continues his stylistic and chronological survey of "Rembrandt as an Etcher," this time dealing with the much disputed prints that fall between 1630-1636. In the American section is a capital reproduction of Botticelli's "Lucretia," in Mrs. John L. Gardner's collection, with an aesthetic appreciation of Botticelli's late manner by William Rankin.

A Fritz Reuter Museum is to be established in Mecklenburg, the birthplace of the great Low-German humorist. The prime mover is the Reuter savant, Professor Gaedertz of the University of Greifswald. The collection of Reuteriana found in Eisenach, where Reuter died, is to be transferred to the new museum.

The new "Allegemeine Deutsche Universitäts- und Hochschul-Kalender," issued by Otto Schroeder, Secretary of the University of Rostock, gives full reports of all the universities, technical institutes, veterinary schools, agricultural colleges, schools of forestry and of mining in the Empire. Among the novel features of this issue for the summer semester of 1906 is the report of the salaries paid the docents, lecture fees, and full statistics of attendance.

In connection with the celebration in the autumn of 1910, of the first centennial of the establishment of the University of Berlin, a monument will be erected to Fichte, who was the first rector of the institution. A committee has been appointed, consisting among others of the Chancellor von Bülow, the Ministers Studl, v. Einem, and Althoff, the Lord-Mayor of Berlin, and the Senior of the University, Professor Zeller. Contributions are now being received by the Deutsche Bank of Berlin and its branch houses at home and abroad.

King Oscar of Sweden and the Swedish Academy are at sword's points. The Academy has only eighteen members. Vacancies caused by death are filled by the votes of the survivors; and membership is the highest honor which can come to a Swedish professor. Last year there died the aged Professor Ljunggren, known for his studies in the history of literature. To succeed him the Academy chose, by a vote of twelve to five, Professor Henrik Schück of

the University of Upsala. To the astonishment of everyone, King Oscar has refused to sanction this choice, on the ground that Prof. Schück, in his well-known life of Gustav III., sinned in failing to take the conventional and official view of this Swedish hero. The fact that Prof. Schück's book found instant recognition at home and abroad is of no weight; he is to be punished for exercising the inalienable privilege of the historian. Learned circles in Sweden and Norway are wondering what action the Academy will take in defence of its freedom of choice.

The "Etymological Dictionary of the Norwegian and the Danish Languages" by Hjalmar Falk and Alf Torp, the first part of which appeared in 1901, published by H. Aschehoug & Co., of Christiania, has just been completed in twelve parts. Both authors are professors in the University of Christiania, and the work throughout bears witness to their comprehensive learning. The greatest unevenness is observable in the treatment of the so-called "foreign" words. Thus of the four words *alkali*, *alkimi*, *alkohol*, *alkove*, the dictionary omits *alkohol*, easily the most important of the group. In spite of some shortcomings the work is a welcome addition to the library of any student of Germanic philology.

John Wellesley Russell's "An Elementary Treatise on Pure Geometry, with numerous Examples" (Oxford: Clarendon Press), is a good book. It first appeared in 1893, and this is a new and revised edition.

Prof. J. Cook Wilson's "On the Traversing of Geometrical Figures" (Clarendon Press) is about that schoolboy's puzzle of drawing a figure without removing the pencil or going over a line twice. The book is not particularly clever. The subject forbade that. Yet it may amuse some hours.

Dr. Charles C. Bombaugh's "Facts and Fancies for the Curious" (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.) is much like his larger and long-popular "Gleanings for the Curious from the Harvest Fields of Literature." A small percentage of its matter is, indeed, substantially contained in that uncritical patchwork.

Prof. E. B. Titchener's "Experimental Psychology" consists, nominally, of two volumes, but really of four; Vol. I., Part i.; Vol. I., Part ii.; Vol. II., Part i.; Vol. II., Part ii. The first part of each volume is for the student, the second for the instructor. The second volume, now sent us by the publisher (The Macmillan Co.), is not for general reading, but for study and reference, preparatory to experimentation. It is from experiments, and not from the book, that the science of psychology is to be acquired. This plan of instruction has here been worked out so carefully that the book is likely to be used in every laboratory where modern psychology is taught.

Dr. Charles Emerson Curry's "Electromagnetic Theory of Light" (The Macmillan Co.), of which Part I. is before us, is a clear mathematical development, according to the views of Maxwell, of the theory of light, in so far as Maxwell's theory seems to meet the facts. It is promised that Part II. shall take up the theory in so far as it seems to require modification. The student is supposed to be acquainted with the theory of electricity and magnetism in

the familiar form in which it is presented in the author's treatise on that subject. The work is purely theoretical, and in some chapters has no obvious pertinency to known facts.

The translation of Drude's "Textbook of Optics," which was published four years ago under the auspices of Michelson, improved upon the original title by calling itself "The Theory of Optics." For, admirable as the presentation of the theory therein is, the experimental side was almost entirely left for the laboratory. Two years later came Schuster's volume, two disconnected books pagged and bound as one. This was of considerable avail, and yet insufficient. Prof. Robert W. Wood of Baltimore now gives us a treatise entitled "Physical Optics" (The Macmillan Co.). Such a work cannot have been begun and completed within four years; yet it would not have been very different if Professor Wood had proposed to himself to fill the lacuna left by the Drude translation and by Schuster's "Introduction to the Theory of Optics." It is full of instruction clearly conveyed, is instinct with intelligence, and is uncommonly interesting, because it is largely about the author's own work. Some day we shall have a better proportioned book, but that it will be a more serviceable one is not so certain.

George P. Humphrey of Rochester has published, in an attractive pocket edition, Field Marshal Viscount Wolseley's tribute to Robert E. Lee, which originally appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine* for March, 1887. Lord Wolseley writes as an eye-witness of some of Lee's operations, and he shares to the full the Southern pride in the most attractive personality of the Confederacy. The edition is limited to 300 copies.

"Whistler and Others" (Scribners) is a collection of twenty-four essays or notes by the veteran editor and print collector, Frederick Wedmore. When Mr. Wedmore discourses on modern prints, as he does in some half a dozen instances, he speaks with much authority. No one who follows his advice in making an anthology of Whistler, Seymour Haden, or David Lucas will go seriously wrong. The discussion of artistic lithography under Whistler, Fantin, etc., may also be useful to the layman. It was, however, an error of taste to pad the volume out with trifling notes which may have served well enough to introduce a temporary exhibition or to characterize a single painting. Such observations as those on Goya, Romney and Lawrence, Watts, Ety, Large Water Colors, and half a dozen similar subjects are simply too slight to claim the honors of large type and buckram. Possibly Mr. Wedmore's rather didactic manner has imposed upon himself. Throughout these papers he has a little the air of a man doing a painful duty imperturbably. In a preface which is the most interesting part of the volume, is discussed the perennial topic of British indifference to art and its criticism. May not the reason be that there is so much merely nugatory writing on these subjects, in which a little special knowledge is made to take the place of accurate appreciation and general ideas?

Two German Rembrandt scholars, W. R. Valentiner and J. G. Veldheer have compiled a kalender for the memorial year

1906: "Rembrandt zu seinem drei hundertsten Geburtstag" (Amsterdam: Meulenhoff & Co.; Leipzig: K. F. Koehler). The table for each month is adorned by a line print of some building associated with Rembrandt's life, while the events that befell him in the month are duly noted in brief. Thus we learn that on March 19, 1659, his collections were appraised at 17,400 florins, while on March 22, 1669, his grandchild Titia van Rijn was baptized. The usefulness of such an array of facts out of chronological order is doubtful. There are, however, an excellent biographical and critical essay, and some twenty-seven well selected illustrations, besides facsimiles of the artist's handwriting. The book is a thin folio, attractively printed, and is quite worth the while of the Rembrandt lover. Lemcke & Buechner are the American publishers.

Ernest Ingersoll's "The Life of Animals: The Mammals" (The Macmillan Co.) is a popular natural history of mammals. In the treatment of this large subject, Mr. Ingersoll follows the accepted classification, and arranges the groups in systematic order, beginning with man and the apes, and concluding with the curious prototheria, the ornithorhynchus, and spiny ant-eater. Two only of the fifteen orders have received scanty notice, the cetacea (whales and allies) and pinnipedia (seals, etc.); the remaining thirteen are fully treated, and the relationships, distribution, and life habits of the diverse members are well discussed. The text is not confined to the animals now living but much has been added regarding those of bygone ages, known to us only by fossil remains. The book is well illustrated. In addition to fifteen full-page colored plates, there are 257 text figures and uncolored plates, many of them half-tones after excellent photographs from life. An interesting feature of the volume is the large number of well-selected quotations which give from leading authorities first-hand information concerning many animals. The text proper is supplemented by a bibliography in which 270 works are cited, and an index of authorities and subjects.

A sketch of the public life of R. M. T. Hunter, by D. R. Anderson, and a series of articles severely criticising Marshall's opinion in the case of Cohens vs. Virginia, contributed to the *Richmond Enquirer* in 1821 by Judge Spencer Roane, form vol. ii., No. 2, of the "John P. Branch Historical Papers," edited by Prof. W. E. Dodd of Randolph-Macon College. The biography of Hunter is not particularly important; the Roane papers, on the other hand, though discursive, rhetorical, and vehement, are valuable as showing the bitter hostility of the Virginia State-rights men to the Supreme Court and to the national theories which Marshall was expounding. The articles now reprinted supplement the account of Roane's life, in the "Branch Papers" for 1905.

Under the title of "Man, the Social Creator" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), Misses Jane Addams and Anne Withington have put together, mainly from unpublished papers and memoranda, the material for a work on religion which the late Henry D. Lloyd had long had in preparation. Naturally, the treatment is somewhat fragmentary and at times vague; as a whole, however, the editors have succeeded in giving to

the exposition both symmetry and connectedness. The author's aim, apparently, is to show in contemporary society the growth of religious ideas and the influence of the religious motive. Present-day religion, with him, subsists in "social love"—in the dependence of man upon his fellows, and the mutual obligations and rights arising from common social relations. Social progress, accordingly, is always religious, because the root of progress is love; even mere social contact makes for spiritual union. "Social love," further, creates new forms of social life, such as coöperation and communism, and a new "social conscience," by which industry, politics, and education are eventually to be transformed. Religion, in other words, is not conventional belief in God, nor yet a philosophy of life based on the acceptance of divine elements in the world, but social altruism founded on labor. All this, of course, is not novel. It does not differ much, at bottom, from the conception of religion as, historically, whatever at any time has most inspired men and determined their conduct. To revolutionary France, the revolution was religion; to the twentieth century world, still mainly dead in trespasses and sins, the true religion is work, social service, combined effort for the common good. Readers of the author's "Wealth against Commonwealth" will expect to find here abundant exhortation of the evils of capitalism, merciless exposure of the sores of modern society, and outspoken criticism of the church; but the book, as a whole, contains deeply suggestive writing in a style which curiously recalls both Emerson and Carlyle. It is a pity that the proofreading should have been so wretchedly done.

A work on Biblical criticism ("Der vorgeschichtliche Jesus"), by a professor of mathematics (at Tulane University), is a somewhat unexpected phenomenon. When we add that the author is an American, William Benjamin Smith, whose name bespeaks unmistakable English origin, and that the book is written in German, and published by Alfred Töpelmann of Giessen, it will be seen that it is phenomenal in more ways than one. Professor Smith writes of himself: "My vocation is mathematics, my avocation is theology." This is his first book on theological themes, but in the *Journal of Biblical Literature* and elsewhere he had already published half-a-dozen articles dealing with questions of New Testament criticism. The theme of this book is substantially that Jesus Christ is, for all intents and purposes, not an historical character; that the name Jesus and the doctrine of Jesus are older than the supposed historical personage with whom they were brought into connection at a later date; that the Jesus of this doctrine was from the outset nothing other than a divinity, who was regarded as Saviour, Protector, or Deliverer; that this is the meaning of the name Nazarene, a name used long before the time of Christ (he brings it into connection with the Assyrian *na-za-ru*), which was afterwards connected with the name of a town, which town, however, did not exist at the time of the birth of the supposed historical Jesus; that this Jesus cult was an extra-Judean esoteric doctrine, with which the Judæan conception of

Christ was brought into connection, forming the complete Jesus-Christ. Professor Smith rightly says that his results will be as amazing to the most radical critics as to the most conservative theologians. The method which he pursues is the very negation of criticism, and in results and methods, to use a phrase which Biblical scholars will understand, he "out-Jerahmeels Jerahmeel."

Classical and Oriental scholars will be much interested in Prof. W. M. Ramsay's monograph on Neo-Phrygian inscriptions. Attention was first drawn to this class of inscription by Mordtmann: *Münch. Sitzungsberichte*, 1862, p. 12. He believed them to be Armenian. Moritz Schmidt, in 1869, was the first to see that they were in a language akin to Greek and to recognize in some of them a formula of execration in the Phrygian language. Eighteen years later, Professor Ramsay collected twenty-nine Phrygian inscriptions. He inferred what subsequent discoveries prove correct, *i. e.*, that the inscriptions were not survivals from ancient and sacred formulæ, but that they sprang from a living language spoken by a non-Christian population, not in the great cities, where Greek-speaking Christianity had penetrated, but in rural districts, *e. g.*, that to the east of Apollonia and round Antiocheia Pisiðia, which other remains show to have been among the most uneducated in Phrygia. Few groups of inscriptions have come down to us so worn or with so uncertain a text as these late Phrygian epitaphs. It was not till last year that Professor Ramsay lit upon three perfect and practically certain examples, along with two of the usual mutilated kind, in a village near the centre of the Axylon. These five are discussed at length in the present monograph. Their date cannot be accurately determined. Probably they fall between 120 and 240 A. D. Professor Sayce, who examined copies of them, contributes many notes and suggestions. Besides this group he interprets other inscriptions, copied in the last twenty years, by Messrs. Anderson, Hogarth, Radet and Ouvré, Legrand and Chamonard, Wilhelm and Heberdey. This paper appeared in the "Jahreshefte des Oesterreichischen Archæologischen Institutes," Band viii., 1905, and is now issued separately. It is a report for the Wilson fellowship in Aberdeen University.

Edith Wynne Matthison has been engaged to play Brangwaine in Comyns Carr's "Tristram and Iseult" in London.

J. K. Hackett has decided to give his own name to the Lew Fields Theatre, of which he has become the manager. He will open it on August 27 with Michael Morton's farce, "The Little Stranger," which was popular with the crowd in London, although some of the best critics treated it with contemptuous severity.

There has been a misunderstanding in the matter of the new play for Eleanor Robson by Edmond Rostand. The play, as a matter of fact, is our old friend "La Princesse Loïtaine" in a new version, specially devised, with the consent of M. Rostand, by that adroit artificer, Louis N. Parker, for Miss Robson.

Mario Majeroni has been engaged to play the leading character in the spectacle, "The Prince of India," which is to be presented in the Broadway Theatre at the end of September. The young man has never been seen on the New York stage, although he is said to have made a favorable impression both in the East and West by his performances in the company of Nance O'Neil. He is the son of the Signor and Signora Majeroni who came to this country with their famous aunt, Ristori, and who will be remembered by old playgoers as actors of uncommon skill and power.

William H. Crane is to open his season in the Garrick instead of the Savoy Theatre. He will be seen at the former house in "The Price of Money" on August 29. Henrietta Crosman will open her season in "All-of-a-Sudden Peggy," the piece which Ernest Denny wrote for Marie Tempest and which had a long run in London. She hopes that this will last until she is ready to present her dramatic version of "The Pilgrim's Progress." J. E. Dodson has been engaged to take a leading character part in the new play written by Clyde Fitch for Clara Bloodgood. Blanche Walsh, it is announced, will be seen as Lady Macbeth next season in a spectacular revival of the Shaksperian tragedy to be made at the Astor Theatre.

John Lawrence Toole, who died in England Monday, was for years the favorite low comedian of the British public. Outside the British Isles he was little more than a name. Both his humor and his pathos were of an exclusively insular type, admirable of their kind, but not likely to be appreciated beyond their natural boundaries. He was not a great actor, but he had a copious vein of broad humor, a merry eye, and a marked capacity for comic exaggeration. Later in life he acquired notable ability to express the simplest forms of pathos. Born in 1832 he began acting in youth as an amateur, but became a professional in 1852. In association with Henry Irving and Helen Faucit, Mr. Toole in his early days performed in many of Shakspeare's plays. In 1862 he made a hit as Caleb Plummer, in "A Cricket on the Hearth," and he was successful in similar plays in which broad humor and simple pathos or passion were blended in almost equal quantities. In this country, which he visited thirty years ago, he had a chilling reception.

As usual at this time of year, Charles Frohman has published a summary of the theatrical bill of fare which he has prepared for the New York public next winter. The document is significant as showing what a large proportion of the amusements of the English-speaking world is provided through a single agency. This enterprise might be a tremendous influence for good if it were conducted with any definite purpose besides financial profit; but it takes no account of any quality in play or player except "drawing power." Nevertheless there are pleasant and interesting features in his programme. One of the brightest is the promise of Ellen Terry's return. In A. W. Pinero's "House in Order" Mr. Frohman is assured of a certain amount of success by the repute of the author and the popularity of John Drew, who is to play

the leading part. The piece itself, according to the best London opinion, is an admirable specimen of Mr. Pinero's handiwork, with much clever characterization, smooth and effective machinery, and excellent dialogue. In England it was the play of the season, and is still running in London to crowded houses. The announcement that Henry Arthur Jones is writing a new comedy for Francis Wilson may or may not be important. It all depends upon whether it is to be a bit of theatrical tailoring, or not. Good entertainment, of one sort or another, may be looked for in the promised new comedies of J. M. Barrie, Augustus Thomas, George Ade, and Capt. Marshall. "Book plays" are nearly always unsatisfactory, but a dexterous stage carpenter like Clyde Fitch, and so clever an actress as Fay Davis, ought to be able, between them, to make something worth while out of "The House of Mirth."

Four of Bach's best church cantatas have just been issued with English texts by Novello, Ewer & Co.

Berlin is looking forward to a visit from Saint-Saëns as the greatest event of the coming season. He will appear at the first of Nikisch's Philharmonic concerts.

The American Organ Players' Club has, during its fifteen years' existence, given 300 free recitals in Philadelphia, playing during that time the entire organ works of Bach, Mendelssohn, Rheinberger, Handel, and Guilman.

The second July number of *Die Musik* is devoted to Schumann. It includes, with other good things, some heretofore unprinted aphorisms; among them: "There were at all epochs bad composers and fools to praise them." "If you are asked to play, do so at once or refuse firmly."

The Festhalle which is to be erected at Frankfurt for the competitions of German vocal societies will be the largest music hall in the world. There will be 25,000 seats, and room on the stage for 4,000 singers. The cost of the building will be about \$1,000,000. It was at the Kaiser's suggestion that it was planned.

Among the new inventions shown at the recent musical exposition in Berlin was one by Frau Antoinette Arntzen—a method of increasing the resonance of the voice by inserting a film under the roof of the mouth, making a sort of sounding-board. The apparatus is intended for the use of orators, officers, sea captains, etc., as well as for singers.

Inasmuch as Dr. Carl Muck has signed a new contract with the Royal Opera at Berlin, beginning in the autumn of 1907, he will not, in any case, preside over the Boston Symphony Orchestra more than one season. Although Dr. Muck will come to America with an experience of twenty-five years, his activity has been confined almost entirely to the opera house. His Boston engagement will give him his first opportunity as a conductor of high-class symphony concerts. In Berlin circles opinions vary as to the success he will achieve.

Karl Goldmark has completed two acts of his new opera, "The Winter's Tale," but, being a slow worker, he does not expect to have the score ready for performance before autumn of next year. The opera

will contain two independent orchestral numbers, serving as contrasting introductions to the first two acts. He expects to complete the sketch of Act III. this summer and then to take up the work of orchestration, which will require much time. Although Goldmark is seventy-six years old, he says he thoroughly enjoys the labor of composing.

In an article on Weber by Gehrmann, printed in No. 18 of *Die Musik*, there is an interesting extract from a letter written by Weber to Kapellmeister Praeger of Leipzig: "There is no slow movement in which there are not passages calling for a faster pace. There is no presto which does not on the contrary demand a retarding in various places, to prevent the impression from being spoiled by precipitation." When Richard Wagner wrote his essay "On Conducting," of which this same doctrine forms the central idea, there was a great outcry among the pedants; but at present the musical world has accepted the doctrine of Weber and Wagner as the cardinal point in musical expression.

The latest contribution to the interesting subject of genius and insanity is a book by Professor Möbius of Leipzig on Robert Schumann's illness. He calls the disease from which that great man suffered *dementia præcox*, and feels sure that it had nothing to do with paralysis, but was an inherited evil, which was bound to show itself sooner or later. The disease was not caused by hard work, but was in all probability accelerated by it. The various symptoms—his fits of silence, his continued melancholy, his dissatisfaction with his work, his frequent inability to compose—were all to be noticed twenty years before the day on which he threw himself into the Rhine.

Italy's leading opera house, the Scala of Milan, is again facing a crisis. The expenses of a four months' season of opera amount to about \$200,000, while the receipts do not exceed \$120,000. This leaves \$80,000 to be supplied by the owners of the opera house—the city and the boxholders. In 1901 the citizens of Milan decided, by a referendum, not to cover the annual deficit any longer. Luckily, a syndicate named "Pro Scala" succeeded in tiding over the difficulty; but only for a few years. The city is again asked to contribute its share, being part-owner of the theatre, but the referendum decision stands in the way. It is feared that the Scala will again have to be let year by year to some speculative manager.

In a late issue of the *Bayreuther Blätter*, Dr. B. Hoffman had an article on the bird music in the second act of "Siegfried." He attempted to prove that Wagner made artistic use therein of the song of four different kinds of birds, including the nightingale. Concerning Wagner's love of the nightingale, an interesting anecdote is related in a more recent publication, "Bayreuth vor dreissig Jahren." The author of this, Richard Fricke, had a friend who was very eager to attend some of the Nibelung rehearsals in 1876. This friend, Dr. Baldamus, had been remarkably successful in acclimating nightingales and other birds in Koburg. Fricke, who knew this, informed him that there was a rigid

rule against the admission of laymen to the Bayreuth rehearsals, but that he would nevertheless be sure to get in if he promised Wagner that nightingales should sing in his garden in two years. The doctor followed his advice, and Wagner exclaimed enthusiastically: "If this man brings nightingales into my garden, he shall attend all the full rehearsals this year and next!"

Reference was made in these columns recently to the remarkable results achieved in Canada by the musical missionary, Dr. Harriss. Similar work is being done in the State of Maine by William R. Chapman, whose festivals are the great musical events of each year. Under various local conductors he has at work a chorus of nearly 3,000 singers. Mr. Chapman lives in New York, where he conducts the Apollo and the Rubinstein clubs; but at regular intervals he visits his choirs to keep things running smoothly. The Eastern division of his large chorus holds its festivals in Bangor, the Western division in Portland. Among the great singers who have assisted at these festivals are Eames, Nordica, Sembrich, Gadski, Schumann-Heink, Blauvelt, Ffrangon-Davies, Campanari, Bishopham. Among the choral works performed in the last nine years are "The Messiah," "Elijah," "The Creation," "The Redemption," "Stabat Mater" (Rossini), "Requiem" (Verdi), "St. Matthew's Passion," "Tower of Babel," etc. Ever since the days of Anton Seidl Mr. Chapman has furnished the chorus for the concerts of the New York Philharmonic Society. A full account of his activity is given in the Boston *Musician*.

SIR WALTER BESANT'S LONDON.

Medieval London. Volume I.: Historical and Social. By Sir Walter Besant. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: The Macmillan Co. \$7.50 net.

This large and sumptuous volume is an instalment of Sir Walter Besant's great undertaking, to which he gave the name, borrowed from Stow, "The Survey of London," a title somewhat inappropriate in the case unless we allow a very extended meaning to the word "Survey." We should have said, to be exact, that the volume is part of an instalment, for it will be followed by a volume on "Mediæval London—Ecclesiastical," completing this section. As the publication of the divisions follows no chronological order, it may be as well to set down what has been accomplished, and what is projected. In 1902 was published "London in the Eighteenth Century." This was followed by "London in the Time of the Stuarts" (1903); "London in the Time of the Tudors" (1904). The two volumes on "Mediæval London" are to be followed by one on "Prehistoric Saxon and Norman London." Then is to come a volume on "The City," and the work will be completed by one or two volumes of "Perambulations"—a "Survey," it may be presumed, in a restricted sense. Thus the whole "Survey" will occupy eight or nine volumes.

This is a gigantic work, which might well have employed the great part of a lifetime. Before his death, in 1901, one or two monographs by the author on London subjects had been published. No mention is made in the present volume of

an editor, and it is understood that the "Survey" was practically completed when Sir Walter Besant died. The execution of "Mediæval London" is unequal. Of its two divisions, "Mediæval Sovereigns" and "Social and General," the former seems the less finished; but parts of the whole volume are suggestive rather of a collection of materials than of the production of a literary artist. The volume shows, as might have been confidently expected, full acquaintance with all sources of information as to Mediæval London. The author has drawn upon the old chronicles, and has, besides, made effective use of the late H. T. Riley's "Memorials of London," as well as of his work in illustration of the rich collection of documents in the possession of the Corporation of the City of London, as *Liber Albus*, *Liber Custumarum*, *Liber de Antiquis Legibus*, *Liber Horn*, and the *French Chronicle*. The works of Dr. Reginald Sharpe have not been overlooked, nor Professor Skeat's monumental edition of Langland's "Piers Plowman."

The chapters "Social and General" are at the same time the more finished and the more generally interesting. To take one point only. The author tells us that there were, between 952 and 1665, no fewer than twenty outbreaks of pestilence in London. But, on reading of the insanitary conditions of life, one wonders that London was not even more frequently ravaged by the plague. Since Roman times the level of the surface of London has risen by twenty feet, and one shudders to think of the nature of this deposit. Sir Walter Besant writes:

The greatest difficulty of cities has always been the disposal of waste matter, solid and liquid. For nearly two thousand years the lower part of the city, the most densely populated part, was dotted with latrines and cesspools. The whole soil of the city was soaked and permeated and corrupted with the pestiferous stuff; the ground gave off a poisoned breath. When the plague came, this poison encouraged it, helped it along, spread it, and strengthened it. We have had no plague for more than two hundred years. Perhaps the reason has been that the fire of London in 1666 not only baked and calcined the ground with its heat for many feet deep, burning up the dead bodies which rested three or four feet below the surface, with the coffins, bones, and deadly poisonous soil of the churchyards, but also choking up the city wells—which were never again opened—and burning the whole of the soil, decayed with the impurities of two thousand years (p. 347).

This contains something of the truth, but it is certain that if the old wells were accidentally closed, they were afterwards opened, or others were sunk. Had Sir Walter Besant ever heard of the famous Aldgate Pump? Even to-day wanderers in London may note disused pumps; not very many years ago the handles, now removed, were chained up. Two such dismantled pumps may be seen in Lincoln's Inn, opposite to the Hall. It is, indeed, only since the cholera scare of 1854 that the use of "spring water" in London has been discontinued. In the Introduction to his "Handbook of London" (edition 1850), Peter Cunningham, after warning the visitor to London against the unwholesome water furnished to the tanks of houses from the Thames—the water, that is, supplied by the Water Companies—continues, "Good

drinking water may be obtained from springs and pumps in every quarter of the town by sending for it." This source of supply is not even yet wholly cut off; a pump in actual use is in Staple Inn, Holborn, and its water is in high repute. But, in comparison with other horrors, the water supply of London was not too bad—in some cases was fairly good, though even to-day London is very far below the standard of ancient Rome. The water of the New River was brought to London only in 1613, but from the middle of the thirteenth century water was brought to the City from Tyburn in leaden pipes.

As we have mentioned Tyburn, it may be observed that Sir Walter Besant, like other historians of London, writes with uncertainty as to the site of Tyburn gallows. There is, however, perfectly good evidence to show that, at least from the time of Elizabeth till the middle of the eighteenth century, it stood, a permanent structure, at the corner of Edgeware and Bayswater Roads. Towards the end of 1759 a movable gallows was erected when required, and this was set up in Edgeware Road, not always in the same spot. Tyburn ceased to be the place of execution in 1783.

Sir Walter Besant set himself to destroy the popular legend of the rise of the low-born apprentice to the Mayoralty. He shows by comparison of names that many great country families were allied to City merchants, and contends that "a younger son of a gentle family, from the fourteenth to the seventeenth century, at least, regarded trade in the City as a desirable and honorable profession" (p. 217). The limitation of date leaves untouched Hogarth's famous series of the two apprentices, a work which presents the tradition in a very definite form. But, granting all that is urged, we must still allow that some young men of talent, energy, and industry must, in these, as in all other times, have come to the front, in spite of all obstacles. The tradition does not represent the successful career as falling to the lot of every apprentice. A few instances amply explain and justify the tradition. A note is given of the origin of 119 Mayors, Aldermen, Sheriffs, and City Officers, from 1579 to 1664. Among these were 75 sons of country gentlemen and City merchants; 5 were sons of parents seemingly poor; the parentage of 39 is not ascertained. Here, surely, is sufficient room for the play of tradition. Curiously enough, though Sir Edward Osborne, Mayor in 1582, is named as the founder of a family afterwards ennobled (p. 224), no reference is made to the story of the origin of his fortune, his marriage to his master's daughter, whom he had saved, when an infant, from drowning. As Osborne is described as a young gentleman, the incident, real or imaginary, might be adduced on either side of the question.

The numerous and excellent illustrations are not the least attractive feature of the book. Many are taken from manuscripts in the British Museum and elsewhere. An incongruous effect is produced by the inclusion of reproductions of two modern pictures; this may be said without in any way detracting from the merit of these pictures as works of art.

A STUDY OF LINCOLN.

Lincoln, Master of Men: A Study in Character. By Alonzo Rothschild. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3 nct.

It was once supposed that a man's life might be definitely written and the gate to further effort in that direction permanently closed. That theory, discouraging to the laudable industry of book production, is now evaded by the discovery that a man does not simply live, but lives in various relations, which are capable, like the cultures of the bacteriological laboratory, of isolation and separate consideration. The new method is evidently sound in its principle, and the question in any application is simply of the importance of the phases selected and the competence of the writer.

As Lincoln himself often humorously questioned his influence with his own Administration, inasmuch as there were always around him men convinced of the need of some one to manage it for him and their own ability to supply that need, and as men have differed ever since in their efforts to strike the balance between the contending forces, it can hardly be said that Mr. Rothschild has selected an unimportant phase of Lincoln's career. After devoting two chapters to his earlier life, Mr. Rothschild centres each of his six remaining chapters about Lincoln's relations with one of six prominent men with whom circumstances brought him into some degree of conflict, namely, Douglas, Seward, Chase, Stanton, Frémont, and McClellan.

The earlier chapters suffer, as we suppose all treatment of Lincoln's early life is inevitably destined to suffer, from an excess of essentially trivial anecdotes. The author, of course, endeavors to select and arrange his forkings from the anecdotal chaff-heap in such a way as to show an essentially masterful nature from the start, but with results hardly sufficient to compensate the effort. It is possible that such real mastery over men as may be proved for his later years developed, under the pressure of need, from germs till then latent. If not, the deductive inference from later events to its earlier presence is more convincing than apocryphal anecdotes, many of which came to light in the myth-engendering atmosphere that naturally enveloped his memory after the tragedy of his assassination. As to the Douglas episode, there was hardly anything left for Mr. Rothschild to do, for in that famous struggle the superiority of the plain, honest country lawyer, fundamentally in the right, to the smooth and shifty politician, patriotic in his impulses, but fundamentally in the wrong, is too clear to demand any further demonstration, even if we had not the striking evidence of Douglas himself passing over from the one trend of thought towards the other in the pathetic and highly honorable close of his career.

But when one passes into the group of chapters treating of Lincoln's official relations with Seward, Chase, and Stanton, the substantial value and strength of the author's study at this point is so evident as to reduce to comparative insignificance any unfavorable impression received at the start. His picture of these three great men, each superior to Lincoln at certain points, each inclined to overrate his own

official importance and belittle both the ability and the constitutional prerogatives of the President, all three possessing flaws of temper which made it hard for them to get along either with their chief, with one another, or with party leaders on the outside, and yet all three held to their posts by Lincoln's unfailing tact and patience, and used for the rescue of the country from its peril—this picture is admirably drawn. And it is drawn, too, without any disposition to minimize the ability of the three men whom Lincoln is convincingly shown to have controlled at all points which he himself regarded as essential. At the same time, Mr. Rothschild does not fail to point out that in some of the instances in which they were effectively overruled, Lincoln was in the wrong as to the merits of the case. Of the three, Chase alone proved incapable of correcting the gross underestimate of Lincoln with which they had entered the Cabinet; and to this persistent blindness was doubtless due the friction which finally broke the official bond between them, not because the President's patience was unequal to the strain, but because he was at last convinced that the good of the service demanded the secretary's retirement, just as it had previously demanded his retention, and continued to demand that of Seward and Stanton.

In the President's treatment of the two military thorns in his side, Frémont and McClellan (we do not imply that there were not others), the thesis of the author finds a less conclusive argument. Seward, Chase, and Stanton were unquestionably great men, held together in such a way as to render tremendous services to the country in spite of friction and misunderstanding which would have shattered the Cabinet of any ordinary President within three months after his inauguration. If Frémont was really a great man, his greatness failed of demonstration. Circumstances for a time gave him a popularity with the more advanced anti-slavery element to which he cannot in the light of subsequent history be shown to have been fairly entitled. After his failure in Missouri, he was offered a chance to redeem his military standing, but he was unequal to the task. He illustrates the President's magnanimity, hardly his mastery. As Mr. Rothschild admits, the controversies swarming around the figure of Gen. McClellan are incapable of argumentative settlement. It must surely be conceded, however, that the President signally failed to control him, or to secure from him conspicuous military service to the country's cause. There are many who believe that McClellan's shortcomings were due to the fact that the President tried to control him. The more general verdict is that McClellan's military genius, however great for preliminary organization and defence, was fatally lacking on the aggressive side. In either case, we do not see that he is an effective illustration of Lincoln's mastery of men. We do not wish to be understood as offering any criticism of the author's treatment of the military careers of these two men, for it is essentially accurate and able. The only point is, that it does not fall in logically with the author's purpose.

The list of books cited possesses a degree of inclusiveness which leads one to note

with some surprise the absence of any mention of the admirable tribute of Carl Schurz, issued from the same publishing house a few years ago. The present volume has been handsomely treated by the publishers in its material make-up, and is provided with excellent portraits of the men considered. For an index of sixty-six columns, we return hearty thanks.

Recollections of Thirteen Presidents. By John S. Wise. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. \$2.50 net.

The list of Presidents whom Mr. Wise has met personally (though not in all cases during their term of service) extends from Tyler to Roosevelt, with but four omissions, namely, Polk, Taylor, Fillmore, and Lincoln. His view of Tyler is, of course, not based on recollection, as he was but a little child when he saw Mr. Tyler, some ten years after the close of his term. The chapter on Pierce is interesting chiefly for the publication of two letters from the author's father, Henry A. Wise; one to Pierce himself, detailing the inner history of his nomination, and the other to Pierce's law partner, Col. P. R. George, making a vigorous declaration of war in case certain Cabinet rumors should prove correct:

If a Douglas man goes into that Cabinet it won't last twelve months. As for me, I can paddle my own canoe. I ask no odds, and if not satisfied will give no quarter. I will not tolerate that Douglas faction. . . . I had rather dig sweet potatoes here at home than be considered an expectant. My name has been allowed to be battered about with that of — and — and such cattle until I feel it is sooty and greasy.

On the whole, the younger Wise is inclined to rate President Pierce somewhat above the general estimate. As to Buchanan, on the other hand, he rather reflects the contemptuous Southern opinion held by such men as his father. "Bah!" said the latter, when asked to persuade Buchanan to take a decided stand on some point, "you do not know Mr. Buchanan, or you would not expect him to take decided ground about anything." "The great crisis which he was called upon to confront," says the son, "found him a weak, vacillating, hysterical old man, with whom everybody, friend and foe alike, at last lost patience."

When Mr. Wise got back home from his four years' residence "outside the United States," it was to find the Presidential chair occupied by one of that "sorry lot" which took the Northern side in spite of Southern residence and antecedents. President Johnson, however, had long been a friend of Hugh Douglas, whose daughter Mr. Wise was destined later to marry, and, in spite of the aristocratic prejudice of Mrs. Douglas, coupled with her strict Presbyterian disapproval of the liquor habit, the ex-President was a guest at the wedding, where "nobody could have been more courteous or punctilious or have borne himself with more dignity or decorum." Mr. Wise acquired a considerable personal acquaintance with President Grant during his Administration. The chief incident of this acquaintance which he has chosen to record relates to his success in securing a pardon for a client whom he had unsuccessfully defended against the charge of violating

the revenue laws. The claim for pardon was based on the plea that a prejudiced judge had browbeaten the jury into conviction on a criminal charge when the same evidence, presented in another court in a suit to libel the man's distillery, had resulted in acquittal. The pardon was easily secured, but Mr. Wise adds: "My poor old client was no doubt guilty. He was of the class, quite prevalent in those days, that believed it was fair to cheat the Government. But a better-hearted creature never lived." The author shares the opinion of most thoughtful men that the Administration of Hayes will stand higher in the estimate of the future than it does at present. He admits a strong prejudice against Garfield because of his social intimacy with the Democratic leaders of the South, "a hypocritical, vindictive, double-faced set," insincerely taking advantage of Garfield's friendship to get their pet measures through Congress.

Curiously enough, the note of warm personal friendship sounds clearest in Mr. Wise's record of his relations with Mr. Cleveland. He is especially indignant toward the slanderers who have made so many vicious stabs in the dark at his private character, both during his Presidency and since his retirement, and quotes him as saying in private conversation, soon after the death of McKinley:

I don't know whether, after all, McKinley's life, sad as was its ending, was not, taking into consideration everything, to be envied. It is true he was struck down by an assassin. But he never was "assassinated" in his lifetime. . . . Somehow he seemed to possess the faculty of evoking charitable judgment and kind treatment. If I could have had that sort of thing as long and as uniformly as he did, I believe I would have been willing to pay the price he has paid.

One could wish that the author's criticisms of the McKinley Administration, in most respects thoroughly deserved, had been kept entirely free from the story of his own disappointment in his candidacy for an appointive office. As to the story itself, however, it is worth while to have at hand so admirable an illustration of the fallacy of Mr. Wise's theory that the political method of filling subordinate offices is better than the merit system. It is very easy to talk about leaving the appointing power free to pick out the fit man as an individual, but that freedom is generally just as seriously hampered in other cases as it was when Platt made it impossible for McKinley to give Mr. Wise the appointment which he desired. Mr. Wise shares the popular admiration for the present incumbent of the Presidency, but deplores an alleged tendency to admit to his councils "men who are not Republicans or even representatives of any political ideas." Unfortunately the parties are not named, but one scents the trail of the "mugwump."

We have said enough to indicate that the book is confessedly partisan rather than judicial in its tone. It is an interesting series of political sketches from a personal point of view, and the intelligent reader will have no trouble in recognizing the point of view and making all necessary allowances. We have noticed few slips of fact with the exception that Blaine's death is referred to as occurring shortly after the nominating convention of

1888, and that in another passage Cleveland's second election is similarly antedated four years. The book is nicely printed, and illustrated with portraits of the Presidents considered, together with a few other eminent personages who are brought into the story.

The New Far East. By Thomas F. Millard. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50 net.

This book purports to be an examination of the situation in the Far East resulting from the Russo-Japanese war, the chief points of the discussion centring about the relations of Japan, China, and the United States to the Far Eastern question. The thesis which the author is constantly suggesting is that Japan has always acted in a way that should deprive her of the sympathy of this country, and that we must view her as a hostile Power with which we shall have to deal in the near future. Even as early as the war of 1894 we can trace the distortion of view that is maintained so consistently. The intervention of France, Germany, and Russia at the close of the war, which the world, until Mr. Millard wrote his book, viewed as the beginning of the policy of grab that led to the events of recent years, is thus described. The Powers—

saw that China was incapable of defending herself, that Japan was ambitious to establish herself on the Continent, and that unless the peace terms were modified by intervention, the dismemberment of China had actually begun. . . . My own opinion, based on considerable familiarity with the questions involved, is that the action of the three Powers was in itself entirely proper and conducive to the good of the world.

What was it conducive to? The seizure of Manchuria by Russia, the seizure of Kiao-Chau by Germany, the expedition to Peking and the Russo-Japanese war. It may be that Japan herself was playing the game of grab, but to condemn her and extol the intervening Powers is hardly convincing. When we come to the seizure of Port Arthur and Wei-Hai-Wei, we get the following misrepresentation. Our author is anxious to produce the impression that Russia was drawn into taking Port Arthur by the circumstances of the time; hence he alters the order of events, making the Germans take Kiao-Chau, then the English Wei-Hai-Wei, and lastly the Russians Port Arthur. "These events came rapidly, and each was largely the cause or result of the others." It is a plain matter of fact that England took Wei-Hai-Wei as a military offset after Port Arthur had been occupied, and only for such term as the latter should be held by Russia.

How trustworthy and anxious to arrive at the truth Mr. Millard is may be judged from the following example. When speaking of the advance of the Japanese armies through Manchuria he says, with the usual insinuation: "For various reasons easily understood, thousands of Chinese, many of them persons of substance, abandoned their homes upon the advance of the Japanese armies." If the reader will pause one moment to consider plain facts, he will doubtless realize that every serious advance of the Japanese from Port Arthur to Mukden was made during continuous fighting, under which the civilian population of any and

every country could obviously not continue, so that a statement of this sort is entirely valueless. Mr. Millard reproduces the complaints of the Russian press as to the violation of neutrality involved by Gen. Nogi's occupation of Hsinmintin. This is a delicate question that would take long to discuss; let it suffice for the present purpose to say that, on our author's own showing, the Russians had previously crossed the neutral line; and, further, that we have it from Russian sources that, on the 25th, two days before Nogi reached that point, Kuropatkin ordered Gen. Bürger with a small division to occupy it; Bürger arrived too late.

In speaking of the preamble of the Anglo-Japanese treaty of alliance, Mr. Millard declares that the first clause "is merely the usual thing and quite meaningless." If by "usual thing" he means common diplomatic form, the statement is not correct; it may further be stated that this first clause has appeared so important to at least one French writer, M. Aubert, whose excellent *Paix Japonaise* we noticed a few weeks ago, that he makes it the text of his book. There is hardly one word of Mr. Millard's comment on the treaties that commands assent; one example more on this point must suffice. Referring to article iii. of the treaty of peace, which deals with the evacuation of Manchuria, we find the following: "Russia declares that she will not in the future claim in Manchuria any territorial advantages or preferential or exclusive concessions, but Japan makes no such declaration, which is significant in view of the fact that it was considered wise to put Russia on record." The drift of the argument and the suggestion are sufficiently obvious, yet the reader may be surprised to hear that the treaty contains nothing of the sort. Subsection three of article iii. deals merely with the situation of Russia before the war and at the time of the signature of peace, and is a disclaimer on her part of holding any concessions or special privileges in the territory that is to be retroceded to China. The clause runs: "The Imperial Government of Russia declare that they have not in Manchuria any territorial advantages or preferential or exclusive concessions to the impairment of Chinese sovereignty, or inconsistent with the principle of equal opportunity."

That we must not expect Japan to pursue an altruistic policy, that she will take all she can, that she may in places injure our commerce, and even that we may eventually come into hostile contact with her, is all true enough; but any such argument as that which Mr. Millard puts forward is unworthy of serious attention.

Constantinople: Painted by Warwick Goble. Described by Alexander Van Millingen, M.A., D.D. New York: The Macmillan Co.

There is a saying in Constantinople that he who once visits her will surely return. This, perhaps, is not true of the tourist or casual visitor; but it is true of all who have sojourned there long enough to feel the real charm of the place; and in the breasts of such fortunate or unfortunate beings, this book will rouse a tumult of yearnings. A large part of the attraction of Constantinople is doubtless due to the beauty of its situation, almost, if not quite

unsurpassed among the cities of the world. Then, too, nowhere is there such a fascinating combination of races and customs, for here Europe and Asia join, producing effects which cannot be paralleled. Moreover, to use Professor Van Millingen's words, "to live in Constantinople is to live in a very wide world" (p. 262). One has involuntarily the feeling that one is assisting in the management of the universe, or at least a large part of it. Now you "assist" in the arrest and deposition of a Grand Vizier, now you are mobbed along with the Minister of Finance, now you sit in council with the Minister of Public Instruction on the education of women, now you are dining in European fashion with men famous in art, letters, finance, or statesmanship, now you are drinking coffee and smoking a *narghileh* in a quaint café, ages ago, in the heart of the unchanged East. You live in many centuries, in many nations, in many religions, many customs and habits: all things are possible, anything may befall you.

We wish we might see Mr. Goble's original color sketches, or paintings, from which the more than sixty colored plates that illustrate this volume have been taken. (The plates, by the way, come out even better in lamplight than by daylight). Color is one of the charms of Constantinople. As Professor Van Millingen says, "the city is generally irradiated by an atmosphere of extraordinary clearness, brilliance, and warmth of color." Opposite a picture of the Golden Horn in the early morning is a description of a sunrise when Constantinople wears a flimsy *yashmak* of mist; "as the sun gains strength, it is beautiful to see the veil gradually rent at different points, and the objects it covered emerge, piece by piece, one by one, now here now there, a dome, a minaret, a palace, a red-tiled roof, a group of cypresses, as though a magician was constructing the city anew in your presence, until the immense capital gleams before you in its mighty proportions and minute details" (p. 104). Such care has been taken to connect the pictures and the text, that one scarcely knows whether the text was made to fit the pictures or the pictures to fit the text, but whichever it be, the harmony is remarkable.

He who visits Constantinople for the first time is apt to feel as though he had stepped into another world, quaint, old, and unchanging. To him who has spent his life in the city, on the other hand, everything seems to be swiftly changing. Since 1888, especially, when Constantinople was brought into direct connection with Europe by rail, the transformation has been very rapid, so that Professor Van Millingen speaks of "the annexation of Constantinople to the Western world. New ideas, new fashions now rule for better and for worse. And soon the defects and the charms of the old oriental city will be a dream of the past" (p. 206). A picture of a fortune-teller in Stamboul shows an old negress in bright blue telling the fortunes of two veiled Turkish women in brilliant *feredjecs*. On the opposite page (200) we read of the new costumes which are rapidly banishing from the streets just such scenes as the one Mr. Goble has here painted. The outer garments of the women have largely lost their color. The dresses of different nationalities are be-

coming assimilated, and all are tending toward the monotone effects in style and color of modern European clothing. This is one of the misfortunes of the advance of civilization.

Born and bred on the Bosphorus, Professor Van Millingen displays a pride of citizenship which at once differentiates his book from the writings of even such enthusiasts as De Amicis. That the author of "Byzantine Constantinople" and Murray's "Guide Book" is a competent cicerone in modern Constantinople, and an expert in its topography, art, and antiquities, goes without saying. We would not leave the impression, however, that this work is either a treatise on art and archaeology or a guide book. It is a gallery of paintings, representing Constantinople as it appears to the artist, through which you walk with one who tells you briefly and effectively the tale of its glorious past, with an incident about this gate, that tower, or yonder mosque which was once an ancient Christian church. You go from St. Irene to St. John Studius, to SS. Sergius and Bacchus, to Santa Sophia, to St. Saviour-in-the-Chora, and finally to such mosques, which were never churches, as the Suleimaniyeh. You follow the development of architecture from the basilica to the dome, and so on to the final realization of "the ideal of Byzantine architects." And as you study this graceful and inspiring type of architecture you wonder why it does not find its place along with the Gothic in the modern development of ecclesiastical architecture in our Western world.

Here Professor Van Millingen stops to read an inscription on a wall or in a cemetery and to tell you a little story of the past; and here in the side streets and cafés of Stamboul you are introduced to the natives of the land. You hear a word about the religion and the customs of today, always sympathetic and always illuminating. You catch a glimpse of cruel persecutions as you meet the porters, or *hamals*, carrying on their backs through the narrow streets their great loads—sometimes it may be an upright piano. Before 1896 the *hamals* were all Armenians; in the massacre of that year the Armenian *hamals* were exterminated, and the business of freight and baggage transportation thrown for a period into hopeless confusion. Now Kurds from the interior of Asia Minor have replaced the Armenians. But you hear also good things about the Turks and their religion, about the dignity and inspiration of the worship at the mosques, the democracy of Islam, which, provided men are Moslems, knows no distinction of race or creed, of high or low.

It is a captivating book, and fills him who knows Constantinople with a sinful desire to embrace her once more. "God will reward the Moslem, who, having beheld the beauties of a woman, shuts his eyes." One may perhaps apply the same proverb to Constantinople.

The City the Hope of Democracy. By Fredric C. Howe, Ph.D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50 net.

This volume is the work of one of the intelligent and well educated men (there have been a number of them) whom Tom

L. Johnson has gathered about him in his attempts to put certain ideas in practice in the government of the city of Cleveland. Mayor Johnson's career has been somewhat picturesque to outsiders, because of certain personal characteristics; but his leading ideas are susceptible of clear statement and argument, which Mr. Howe has endeavored to supply in the volume before us. For good or for ill, Mr. Howe says, we have become a nation of city dwellers, and shall remain so. The allurements of the city are too great to be resisted, and the only thing to do is to accept the situation and make the city a fit place for the improvement of the race, not an engine for its destruction. The admitted corruption in city government as it now exists, he attributes not to the mere failure of the electorate to choose good men to office, but to the practice of granting franchises of enormous money value to private individuals and corporations, thus creating a powerful stimulus to greedy interests to control the government for unworthy ends. An outburst of reform may lead to the choice of incorruptible men for a time, but the temptation is still there, and soon the government is again as deep in the mire as before. Of course, this leads him at once to the theory of municipal ownership and management, which he would limit, however, to cases in which genuine competition in private hands is practically out of the question, such as the supply of water and light, and the street-car service.

In no case, however, would he force municipal ownership upon communities regardless of their own choice. The city, he holds, should be a self-governing unit in all matters which do not seriously concern outsiders, bearing somewhat the same relation to the State as the State does to the Union. This can be fairly demanded, for the problems of city life and administration, under modern conditions, are so peculiar, and so vital to the welfare of the city population, that only local management can be expected to deal with them intelligently and successfully. The State, then, should turn over to the city its own control, with only such restrictions as will safeguard the legitimate interests of the State itself and its other subdivisions. The city should have untrammelled power to select what ones, if any, of its public-service industries it should itself own and administer. It should have power, too, to select its own form of taxation to meet its own expenses. Personally, the author favors land values as the basis for the entire amount of taxation required, but he would not have this imposed upon any city against its will. In short, he would make of our cities a huge series of laboratories, working independently upon the as yet unsolved problems of city government. Cincinnati should have full power to demonstrate the possibility of uprooting Cox and all his works with no further change than the election of honest men to office, while Cleveland might be trying the full length of the programme recommended by Tom Johnson. Thus, by a free use of the experimental and comparative method, we might hope in time to arrive at sound general principles if there are such, or, if not, to adjust ourselves as comfortably as possible to varying local conditions.

It must be said that Mr. Howe does not unanswerably support his belief that the removal of the franchise bait would result

in the practically complete banishment of the sharks of political corruption to other waters. The history of our city governments does not justify the assertion that corruption in matters not connected with public-service franchises is merely sporadic and unimportant. Neither does it justify the belief that the people can be depended upon at once to rise at the polls and rebuke inferior service if that service is rendered by public and not private hands. Our inertia in such matters is proverbial, even in fields where we already have full scope to work reform if so disposed. Nor does the statement that the total number of employees under the municipal-ownership system would in no case exceed 10 per cent. of the voting population free the system of the charge that it would involve danger of the organization of a troublesome political machine out of these employees. One-tenth is no slight weight in the balance when compared with average majorities in city elections. Human nature is not to be seriously altered by a change in the system of street-car management. At the same time, if the people are bent upon experimenting with municipal ownership, we are bound to say that there is no safer method than that outlined by Mr. Howe, that the State Legislatures should give to cities such a real control over their own affairs as would allow of the experiment wherever a majority might be convinced of its wisdom. That American cities should remain permanently the sport and prey of Legislatures either ignorant of their needs or too corrupt to attend to them honestly, is of course unthinkable. There must be a chance to jump out of the frying-pan. Many will believe that Mr. Howe's advice is practically to jump into the fire, but he would deprive no city of any alternative which it might prefer, even that of continuing to fry.

The Principles of the Administrative Law of the United States. By Frank J. Goodnow. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3 net.

The reader of this book finds himself confronted at the outset by a question which will perhaps give him more trouble while reading it than it appears to have caused the author—namely, What is that Administrative Law of which the principles are to be here expounded? Whatever it is, Professor Goodnow teaches it at Columbia, and he is the author of a learned work on Comparative Administrative Law written some years ago, in which the Administrative Law of different countries is compared—a better book, to our mind, than the present one. What he then had to say about the principles of American Administrative Law is the foundation of the present treatise.

The new treatise undoubtedly discusses questions connected with administration, and these questions are legal. The exposition is fortified by cases, and if the result is to be considered as simple description, we should call it a sort of sketch of the working of the administrative part of our politico-legal machinery. We have, for instance, a great deal about the "distribution" of the legislative, judicial and executive powers (the American legal development of Montesquieu's theory); we have a distinction of the author's own be-

tween "politics"—i. e., the policy of the state as determined—and administration; we hear of military affairs, financial affairs, internal affairs, foreign relations, officers and offices, civil-service rules, and even such matters as habeas corpus and quo warranto, but we forever labor under the difficulty that we do not make out the boundaries of American Administrative Law.

Now this is a very serious defect in any attempt at exposition. It is not to be found in any work of authority on Common Law, or Statute Law, or Equity, or Constitutional Law, or Canon Law, or Admiralty. The confines of these are all clearly marked out. Why is it that, in Mr. Goodnow's pages, there is this constant sense of failure in making out exactly what American Administrative Law is? The author himself comes near supplying us with the answer when he recalls the fact that Mr. Dicey, in his valuable work on the "Law of the Constitution," insists that in England, from which country our general principles of law are derived, there is no such thing as Administrative Law at all—that it is a branch of law peculiar to France or other countries deriving their law from Rome (*Droit Administratif; Verwaltungsrecht*), and is hostile to the principles of English Law. Mr. Goodnow, contends, in reply to Mr. Dicey, that the latter is misled by the simple fact that the *Droit Administratif* of France recognizes as one of its fundamental principles two different kinds of responsibility—one the ordinary responsibility of every subject to the law, the other the responsibility when a subject (or citizen) is involved in a question to which the State or a member of its administrative force is a party. In France questions of the latter sort are decided according to a severer set of rules than ordinary law furnishes, and there are separate administrative courts which decide them, and, further, a superior tribunal which passes on the very serious question what cases are administrative, and what are cognizable by the ordinary civil tribunals. But there is nothing of this sort in England, or, for that matter, in America. There is no distinction in general between the legal responsibilities of officials and ordinary citizens, no recognition of two kinds of law.

While admitting this, Mr. Goodnow appears to believe that Mr. Dicey has overlooked the fact that there are a great many other matters involved in Administrative Law besides this one, and that they find a home here as well as in France. But he does not seem to perceive that Mr. Dicey's contention is fatal to the discrimination of such Administrative Law as we have from Constitutional Law and law in general, and we are, therefore (conceding Mr. Dicey's point), left in the position of being forced to refuse to define what the limit of our Administrative Law is. The President cannot be sued for damages for an act done in the course of his official duty, but he does not have to go into a special court to enforce his exemption; the ordinary courts will enforce it for him, exactly as the ordinary courts will enforce the liability of a sheriff or a collector or an assessor in damages. The post-office is, we believe, exempt from damages—unless by statute; but this exemption is enforced everywhere. The Court of Claims, of the jurisdiction of which the

author gives an account, has a special cognizance of suits of a certain class brought against the United States; but the principles of law administered in it are not different from those general principles of Law and Equity which are invoked as between subjects or citizens in any court of justice. Again, there is a great body of administrative rules constantly made by and enforced through the Departments and the civil-service authorities, with the President at their head; but these rules, if reviewable at all, are reviewable by the ordinary courts, in the ordinary way, and constitute no law apart. When the courts say, "This is a political question, this is an executive matter, with which we, as judges, have nothing to do," they are applying a principle of Constitutional, not Administrative, law. The author attempts a distinction between Constitutional and Administrative Law in our system by saying that the former deals with its anatomy, the latter with its functions; but this does not advance matters. It is a figure of speech, not effective analysis.

On the whole, we go back to what we said at the beginning: There is a wide difference between the law affecting our administration and the *Droit Administratif* of other countries, and the difference makes a comparison between the two instructive; but leave out the other term of the comparison, and we do not find within the confines of our *corpus juris* any distinctive body of Administrative Law governed by principles and developed by courts of its own. This difficulty Mr. Goodnow has to contend with throughout his present volume, and for the vagueness and haziness of his analysis it in great measure accounts. In a certain sense he has made the subject his own; but he has not made it ours.

Porcelain, Oriental, Continental, and British: A Book of Handy Reference for Collectors. By R. L. Hobson, B.A., Assistant in the British Museum, etc. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.50 net.

This book disappoints the buyer in a way that he knows well. There is a loss of practical usefulness in the failure to study wares of recent design and manufacture. The historic specimens of any ware, upon which the student is told to build up his knowledge, are inaccessible to him; they are in private collections or in the almost equally forbidding glass case of the museum, which is for most busy people a solid wall, through whose glittering and often dusty semi-transparency only a dim image can be got. For where is the museum whose porcelains are put close to the glass and in convenient corners of cases, so that the light may fall strongly upon them, and so that more sides than one can be looked at close at hand? The chance of study at the repeatedly succeeding exhibitions and at the shops of dealers where authentic wares are on exhibition, should be utilized more than it is. Even in an historical sense modern wares may be instructive, because one can learn from them what is the true character and the exact appearance of painting under the glaze of enamel paint, of grain-of-rice porcelain, and the rest. The processes are so nearly the same in different

lines and in different ages that one can learn a good deal about porcelain in the best shops of the great cities; nor is it much to be feared that the student will be led astray by the misrepresentations of salesmen.

The difficulty of bringing such a study as this down to the author's own time is not to be denied, nor is it to be forgotten for a moment; but then the need is equally great. Mr. Hobson, busy in the British Museum, and occupied even with the very duty which these remarks call attention to, that of cataloguing and comparing ascriptions and descriptions, can hardly have found time to study the greater and the smaller exhibitions which the last twenty years have seen; and yet the need of an immediate knowledge of what has been done within twenty years in Japan and in China, at Sèvres, at Copenhagen, and by the English makers, becomes the more obvious as we look more closely into his book. Thus, the interesting Copenhagen porcelain, which is as popular as a ware with a refined style of decoration can be, and which is to be found in the better shops (which also has been exhibited very thoroughly of late years at great national and international shows), receives only the following notice from Mr. Hobson: "An improvement took place under Hetsch's direction in 1824, and the factory is still flourishing," which is followed by a description of the marks of the factory. It must be understood, of course, that most of this shortcoming is the inevitable result of dealing in so small a book with so vast a subject.

The reader will notice that what we have said has been in the way of protest against omissions—against declaring a book to be a treatise on porcelain and a book of ready reference for collectors, while the collector is left without a suggestion of where knowledge is to be gained. It is to be said now, and in terms of hearty praise, that what is given in the book is generally admirable. The examination of Oriental porcelain, both historical and in the way of critical comment, is as good as a brief treatise with only half-tone illustrations is ever likely to be. The treatment is brief and precise in order that space may be saved, and although one might wish that those terms introduced by Albert Jacquemart, the unlucky *famille verte* and *famille rose*, had not been revived for this book, replacing descriptions by a mischievous because inaccurate name, yet we are told what is meant by those terms, and they probably do save a little space. The different wares and the different decorative effects explored by every busy student of Chinese porcelain are dealt with in a proper tone of enthusiasm mingled with careful inquiry. The extension of some methods of decoration to Persia and of many of them to Japan is treated in a judicious way. A considerable number of the emblems so frequent in the decoration of Chinese porcelain are given in simple cuts and sufficiently explained, and there is a brief sentence which is much needed in this connection, to the effect that "purely Chinese ornament is rarely without some inner meaning"; the character of which is here suggested. One likes the shrewd remark, p. 109, about the possibility that

the Koreans "have gained a spurious reputation for porcelain-making"; and the sham title "Indian porcelain," coming from the talk of dealers in old days before inquiry was critical, is denounced as it should be (p. 110). The account of Japanese porcelain suffers, as do other descriptive passages, from an apparent despair on the part of the author to explain in words the differences between one artistic effect and another. The remarks about the position of porcelain in Japan as relatively less important than in China are very intelligent; and will seem so even to one who cares greatly for that Japanese hard pottery of simple aspect which prevents porcelain from taking its place at the head of the Japanese ceramic world.

The account of the gradual steps taken in Europe to imitate the Oriental ware is good and clear, though of course not very new. The porcelain of Great Britain occupies an undue proportion of the whole work, fifty pages out of two hundred and thirty; but that is natural under the circumstances. From page 216 the reader learns something new about Lowestoft porcelain, based upon a discovery—a real piece of excavator's archaeology. And here is an odd remark (p. 217): "Possibly a few stray pieces of Chinese porcelain were decorated at Lowestoft"; this by way of disproving "the ridiculous theory that hard-paste porcelain resembling the Chinese ware was ever made" at Lowestoft. We are left without explanation of the troublesome problem, often coming up, the presentation to private and public collections of unquestioned Oriental porcelain decorated in European taste and called "Lowestoft." That mysterious attribution is, we are told, in the way of being exploded, or explained, because "the genuine Lowestoft ware is receiving so much attention" at present.

A brief final chapter deals with prices, of fine originals and of more or less gross falsifications, and a few words are said about the collections which are accessible to a student. There is a sufficient index, and the plates, forty-nine in number, and representing perhaps three times as many specimens, are as good as could be expected of the half-tone process on so small a scale.

The Life and Speeches of Thomas Williams, Orator, Statesman, and Jurist, 1806-1872. By Burton Alva Konkle, author of the "Life and Times of Thomas Smith." 2 vols. Philadelphia: Campion & Co. \$6 net.

It was with a certain feeling of surprise that the present reviewer received, some two years ago, a large octavo volume devoted to the "Life and Times of Thomas Smith." This feeling was renewed, and notably accentuated, on receiving the above *two* large octavo volumes, by the same author, on the "Life and Speeches of Thomas Williams." If the "generous recognition" for which Mr. Konkle thanks the critics of his first venture is in any way responsible for the additional volume of the work now before us, the present reviewer at least is almost tempted to regret whatever share he may have had in that recognition. That there is a place for the biographies of second-rate men scarcely enables one to contemplate with equanimity

the prospect of a series of such works, of which the fatness increases either by geometrical progression or inversely as the importance of the subject.

Thomas Williams was a man to whom the adjective "second-rate" would most assuredly apply. Known principally as a fluent speaker, with a taste for ornate phraseology, and as a good lawyer, he was, although widely read, in no sense a profound or even a careful thinker. Nor could the term statesman be applied to one who was at best only a safe councillor. Once only did he attain prominence in national affairs, and then he steered a course marked out by others, which, to say the least, was anything but statesmanlike; as one of the managers of the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, he out-Stevens Stevens—"could not with patience," says a contemporary member of his own party, "hear anything said against the wisdom . . . of impeachment." The perusal of Mr. Konkle's volumes leaves one with this judgment unreversed; on the contrary, confirms it absolutely.

One of two things might possibly have justified an elaborate study of the life and speeches of such a man as Thomas Williams—his being typical of some striking and coherent phase of local or national history, or the possibility of using the events of his life as convenient centres from which to present a careful study of the period in which he lived. Mr. Konkle's "Thomas Smith" is more acceptable than the present work, partly because it is much better executed, but partly also because Thomas Smith represented that conservative attitude which bulked so large in the Revolutionary movement and after. Apparently it has been Mr. Konkle's intention to present Thomas Williams as typical of the "aggressive Whig and Republican" phases of his period. The difficulty is, that the period from 1833 to 1870 is anything but coherent; Radicalism means so many different things in its different stages. Webster and Clay were typical Whigs in 1846; Lincoln and Seward were typical Republicans in 1856; Stevens and Boutwell were typical Republicans in 1866. But Webster and Lincoln, to say nothing of Webster and Stevens, were further asunder than Webster and Calhoun. In fact, no one man can represent this period in its diversity, and Mr. Williams represents nothing characteristically until the Reconstruction era, and to this only a small part of the space is devoted.

The result is a book that is neither very interesting nor very useful. The first volume is almost exclusively devoted to local politics, with which Mr. Konkle is familiar, certainly, but which are of very secondary importance. Until his hero gets into Congress in the second volume—which consists almost entirely of speeches—the author is hard put to it to bring him into any important relation with the great movements of the time. The effort to do so is made, however. An instance, exemplifying both the effort and the failure, is to be found at the close of the first volume. That Williams was "a founder of the Republican party" is heralded in the title-page, and the phrase reappears as the principal caption of a chapter of one hundred pages. Here one looks confidently for a careful study of Republican origins and of Wil-

liams's part in them. The result is disappointing. It transpires that, after all, Williams's share as a "founder" consisted in his being a member of the national committee and the author of the call for the convention of 1856.

Americana: Reiseeindrücke, Betrachtungen und geschichtliche Gesamtansicht. By Karl Lamprecht. New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Americans who like to see themselves as others see them, and especially those who had the pleasure of meeting the distinguished professor of history, Karl Lamprecht of Leipzig, on his tour of the United States and Canada in 1904, will read with considerable interest his latest volume. It is in three parts—extracts from his diary, recording his own impressions, a chapter devoted to hearsay and less independent investigation, and a scholarly review of the historical, literary, artistic and sociological development of our people. The diary is most vivid and will be to many the most interesting; others will find it the least satisfactory, perhaps because of the truth it lays bare, perhaps on account of the peculiar vision of the writer. That the critic is scientific one would know if he had never heard his name; he is the proverbial German *Gelehrter*, and he carries his microscope about with him. The trouble is, however, in its adjustment: he gets it nicely trained on the animalcule, but often can't recover the drop of water in which the pesky insect swam! Like many foreigners, for example, he misses the element of romance on the Hudson, and thinks it cannot compare with the Rhine; he doubts if the great prairies will ever become to their dwellers a real *Heimat*, for their charm, the monotony of loneliness, must give way to progress; he beholds in the Rocky Mountains an area with neither history nor saga, "crying after a great poet as the air playing about them cries after a great painter"; and he looks on the American's destruction of the forests as "most atrocious" (*himmelschreiend*). "In matters pertaining to landscape," he says, "the taste of the average American has not yet been directed to that which is really beautiful, but only to that which is characteristic in the lowest sense: 'big trees,' geysers in the Yellowstone Park and the like; along with this, much liking for beasts and plants, so far as they are useful or good for the hunt: seldom, however, love without selfish interest." This misuse of Nature Professor Lamprecht observes in the laying out, constructing and operating of railroads, where there is a needless waste of wood, and also in the building of houses: in spite of the American's dread of fire, he persists in building in wood when he might use other materials, and deludes himself that his hotels and dwellings are "fireproof." What is odd, also, this widespread use of wood has not evolved a new style of architecture adapted to wood-building.

Here and there Professor Lamprecht comes upon pleasing reminders of the German contribution to America's growth—in Pennsylvania, German villages; in Wisconsin, "Deutsches Farmland, Land deutschen Fleisches"; but, for the mass of his fellow-countrymen here, he has but few

words of praise and many strong expressions of condemnation. The Germans in America have not kept together as they should; they have been won over, absorbed by the younger generation, and have become at last, in current literature and on the stage, the laughing-stock of those once their inferiors. "Whoever has visited the beer-gardens of Milwaukee," says Professor Lamprecht, "and especially the wretched Pabst Park, the model of a childish and stupid resort, a so-called modern pleasure temple, must say to himself that a people that patronizes such places and prizes them in their unsophisticated way, is not fit to compete intellectually with others." One notable exception he found among the *Einwanderer* from the Fatherland, and that is Carl Schurz, whom he saw in New York and of whom he says: "The first meeting was remarkable enough. I was asked in a company: 'What should be the chief characteristic of a biographer?' and as I answered, 'Love for his hero,' someone stepped forward and presented the question: 'What should be the attitude, then, of an autobiographer?' It was Carl Schurz, who was just then writing the story of his own life. Oh, could I but see you again reproduced, ye fruitful evenings that I spent with the Nestor of the German-American world! Verily, Schurz is justified in writing his biography, and his Life would belong, for the historian who lives for the art of his profession, to the fairest themes which the history of the nineteenth century offers." Professor Lamprecht concludes with a comprehensive survey of the intellectual development of America and a discussion of its probable future, in which he proves himself a careful student of our history.

The Cities of Spain. By Edward Hutton. With 24 illustrations in color by A. Wallace Rimington, and 20 other illustrations. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2.

It is a sentimental journey to sixteen Spanish cities, from Burgos to Barcelona, with a dash to Tangier, of which Mr. Hutton here gives us the record. The sentiment is varied: now for landscape; now for architecture; soon for painting; then for history, for religion, for war, for romance. But from allegorized introduction to mystical conclusion, the indirect, the sentimentalized treatment is the author's preference. So much of his narrative is plainly imaginary, and the commonest things are so distorted in his unreal fashions of speech, that it is often hard to know what he would have us take for fancy and what for fact. Possibly he was moved to elect this strange style in the hope of being original where masters had preceded him—Gautier and Amicis and Ford; but we can but think that he is ill-advised, and that either an unmixed rhapsody or a straightforward tale of travel would have been better than his unhappy blending of the two.

When Mr. Hutton drops out of poetry, he usually has a clear-seeing eye. He speaks, it is true, of Burgos "upon her hillside," though nine-tenths of the city, and all of its significant part, is level with the river. The heights with their fortress rise behind; and the general impression is as far as possible from that of a city set on a hill. But most of the concrete char-

acterizations strike one as just. To say that Madrid "apes afar off the logical beauty of Paris," is to hit near the white; and one agrees with Mr. Hutton that the one "splendid gift" of the Spanish capital is the view from the palace across the deep valley of the Manzanares towards the Guadarrama mountains. That other splendid gift, the Prado gallery, he appreciates in several chapters, though his judgment of the paintings does not always seem sure. He is at least original in speaking slightingly of the Sala Velasquez!

But one would look in vain in this volume for either a full account of personal experiences or a close record of observations. Apart from the dutiful copying from the authorities of biographical and historical details, the touch is whimsical throughout; and one rather tires of the forced note and the strained enthusiasm. But compensation is made in the ample store of illustrations. Most of these are excellent, and some of striking merit. Those who have travelled in Spain will be glad to possess such vivid and satisfying reminders as Mr. Rimington's rendering of the Puerta S. Maria at Búrgos, the Alcázar of Segovia, or the mountains of Monserrat from Manresa.

Mountain Wild Flowers of America. By Julia W. Henshaw. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$2 net.

Although bearing an Eastern imprint, this charming volume comes to us from the far Northwest. It is an honest attempt to bring within the reach of lovers of flowers short descriptions of the fascinating vegetation of our American Switzerland. The Canadian Rockies and the other mountains within touch of our railroads are covered, where the snow permits, with a flora of exquisite beauty. Probably many of our readers remember the delightful papers of Helen Hunt Jackson, in which the flowers of Colorado were marshalled in stately procession; and our other mountain districts have received more or less attention at the hands of tourists and of residents, all of whom look upon the flowers as good friends. It must have required some courage to undertake this guide to a knowledge of the mountain flora. Where could the author draw the line? How could she construct a guide-book which would not be repellant to the average tourist fond of bright flowers? She solved the difficulty in regard to the latter point by classifying the flowers, after Mrs. Dana's fashion, according to their color. But she saw that the lines must not be drawn too strictly, and therefore she has given her sections a wider range: "white to

green," "pink to red," "blue to purple," "yellow to orange." This is rather better than having narrower limits of single colors. The discriminations appear for the most part to be accurate, and the matching of specimens ought to be pretty easy.

Eastern students will note the absence of some of the familiar flowers of our White Mountains. It is a far cry from Vancouver to the White Hills, and our plants could hardly lay claim to a place in the present volume, although it is called "Mountain Wild Flowers of America." Perhaps it is well for us to confess with some humiliation, that of the Alpine species growing on our White Mountains we have the right to call only one, or at most two, truly American. The others have come to us from the source which also supplied the same species to the high lands of the Old World, and we have held them only by grace of the Glacial Period. The plants described by Mrs. Henshaw are more truly American, and we are pleased that she has given us so many of them. She was fortunate in securing in her studies aid from Professor Macoun and other eminent Canadian botanists; and the book, thus carefully prepared, is certain to stimulate as well as delight all tourists to the wonderland of our great common Northwest.

Special attention must be called to the extraordinary excellence of some of the photographic illustrations. It is well known that the camera occasionally reveals more than the unaided eye can possibly see. For instance, a manuscript may under the searchlight of the camera confess that it is a palimpsest: the faint lines of the former writing which had practically vanished come back to be read. In some of these engravings, notably those of a few of the blue and purple flowers, the composite ancestral character of the species has been suggestively disentangled. The resources of modern methods of photographic reproduction for printing have been seldom put to much better use than in this volume. Perhaps, however, a subsequent edition may ambitiously and successfully try to utilize one of the three-color processes, and give us also the tints and hues which mountain flowers borrow from their sky.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Beals, May. *The Rebel at Large.* Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
 Burke, Edmund. *The Works of.* Vol. 1. Henry Frowde.
 Delevante, Michael. *Panama Songs.* Alden Brothers.
 Dodd, Lee Willson. *A Modern Alchemist and Other Poems.* Boston: Richard G. Badger.
 Fichte, Johann Gottlieb. *The Vocation of Man.* Translated by William Smith. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
 Fletcher, S. W. *How to Make a Fruit Garden.* Doubleday, Page & Co. \$2 net.

- Gunne, Evelyn. *The Silver Trail.* Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Humor of Bulls and Blunders. Edited by Marshall Brown. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. \$1.20 net.
 Kilbourne, Frederick W. *Alterations and Adaptations of Shakespeare.* Boston: Richard G. Badger.
 Levy, Oscar. *The Revival of Aristocracy.* Translated by Leonard A. Magnus. London: Probsthain & Co. 3s. 6d. net.
 Louginus, Dionysius. *Libellus de Suhlmitate.* Edited by A. O. Prickard. Henry Frowde.
 Maine Insurance Report, 1906. Augusta, Me.
 Mackaye, James. *The Economy of Happiness.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
 McKie, Thomas. *Summer Rambles.* Edinburgh: David Douglas.
 Meyer, M. Wilhelm. *The Making of the World.* Translated by Ernest Unterman. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Mémoires de Madame Campan. Edited by H. C. Bradby. Henry Frowde.
 Oxford English Dictionary. Edited by James A. H. Murray. Vol. VII. Henry Frowde.
 Phillips, A. L. *The Call of the Home Land.* Richmond, Va.: Presbyterian Committee of Publication.
 Pittman, H. D. *The Belle of the Blue Grass Country.* Boston: C. M. Clark Publishing Co. \$1.50.
 Plutarch's Lives of Coriolanus, Cæsar, Brutus, and Antonius in North's Translation. Edited by R. H. Carr. Henry Frowde.
 Powell, Elmer Ellsworth. *Spinoza and Religion.* Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
 Powers, Ella M., and Thomas M. Ballett. *The Silver-Burdett Readers.* 5 books. Silver, Burdett & Co.
 Raper, Charles Lee. *The Principles of Wealth and Welfare.* Macmillan, \$1.10.
 Rappaport, Philip. *Looking Forward.* Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
 Reynolds, Harney. *Out of the Ashes.* Boston: C. M. Clark Publishing Co. \$1.50.
 Roberts, George S. *Historic Towns of the Connecticut River Valley.* Schenectady, N. Y.: Robson & Adee.
 Rodney, Mary. *Four Girls.* Boston: C. M. Clark Publishing Co.
 Staël, Madame de. *De l'Allemagne.* Edited by Henry W. Eve. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d. net.
 Sauter, Edwin. *The Poisoners.* St. Louis: At the Sign of the Leech.
 Smalley, Harrison Standish. *Railroad Rate Control.* Macmillan Co. \$1.
 Smith, Marion Couthouy. *The Electric Spirit and Other Poems.* Boston: Richard G. Badger.
 Spargo, John. *Socialism.* Macmillan, \$1.25.
 Stelzle, Charles. *Messages to Workmen.* Fleming H. Revell Co. 50 cents net.
 Sudermann, Hermann. *The Undying Past.* John Lane Co. \$1.50.
 Sutcliffe, Halliwell. *A Benedick in Arcady.* Dutton, \$1.50.
 Symonds, John Addington. *Walt Whitman: A Study.* Dutton, 50 cents.
 Teichmann, E. *Life and Death.* Translated by A. M. Simons. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
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The Week.

"Campaigning *in forma pauperis*" certainly describes this year's activity of the two Congressional Committees. Chairman Sherman announces with some pride that his one dollar subscriptions have reached "four figures." That is, they must total something like half as much as the single check which the Equitable gave Mr. Babcock two years ago. "We are poor," now rises the voice of Chairman Griggs, "and we cannot afford to chase rainbows." Therefore, if any district is hopeless, it is the duty of good Democrats to tell him so frankly. More modest in its requirements than even the Republicans, his Committee asks the faithful for the present to expend only the price of a two-cent stamp. We offer our sincere sympathy to the manufacturers of banners and torches and regalia. Their occupation's gone, indeed. But the fear that really haunts us in this crisis is that the Populists or the Prohibitionists who are not manifesting any scruples against taking all they can get, and presumably have as big funds as ever, may come forward suddenly, out-bid the poverty-stricken Democrats and Republicans, and run off with the election.

Gov. Higgins's statement of his reasons for refusing to remove Fiscal Supervisor Bender for violating the civil-service laws is queer reading. The tail of it eats up the head. It would almost seem that the Governor asked his legal advisers for two opinions about Bender: one completely exculpating him; the other condemning him roundly; and that then Mr. Higgins used parts of both. His decision begins by declaring that there was really no evidence against Bender, and that it is doubtful, anyhow, if the Legislature had power to pass so stringent an act against gifts to the party campaign fund by State officials; and winds up by showing how "detrimental to the service" is such "a disregard of the spirit of the civil-service law" as "this investigation has disclosed in this office"—that is, in Bender's. But the Governor declines to remove him, though the investigation was by a Republican Board of Civil Service Commissioners, who strongly urged Mr. Higgins to serve notice upon the politicians that this kind of defiance of law must cease. The notice which he has served upon them, however, is that if they make themselves a useful part of the Governor's machine, they have nothing to fear. It seems probable now that

Bender has all along had a promise of immunity from Mr. Higgins. The latter's action completes the display of a character which is the less admired the more it is understood.

A possible explanation of the almost complete failure of the New Hampshire press even to mention Winston Churchill's candidacy for the Governorship is his declaration, in a speech at Conway the other night, that seventy out of seventy-five newspapers in the State are subsidized by the Boston and Maine Railroad. To an audience made up in almost equal parts of "rusticators" and natives, he discoursed on the iniquities of the railroad lobby. He confessed that when he first entered the Legislature, he had confused the lobby and the Republican party of New Hampshire, and that even after enlightenment he had an idea that reform might be effected from the inside without unnecessary publicity. Then, in words that might have fallen from the lips of his own prototype in "Coniston," he declared: "You cannot expect a railroad which is reaping a large annual profit and gaining many inestimable advantages by governing a State to cease governing that State merely because a band of misguided idealists were foolish enough to sign the Declaration of Independence away back in 1776." The presiding officer at the Conway gathering thought it necessary to put an end to one misconception which he feared might be prevalent. A man he had talked with, he said, refused to support Churchill, on the ground that he was "a foreigner, and only a short time ago had been prominent in the British Parliament."

Resumption of dividends on the common stock of the Steel Corporation is a matter of wide interest. That company's dividend policy has from the start been subject to keen discussion. The promoters fixed for the common stock a quarterly dividend of 1 per cent., and announced it from the first as "regular." This they did in spite of the protest of practically all unbiassed critics and accountants that the company needed a larger working balance and very much larger allowance for depreciation, before attempting to pay out anything on this inflated stock. Some of the company's own officers endeavored to word the dividend announcement so as not to commit the company to continuous payment; but they were overruled; the controlling powers announced a "regular quarterly dividend." Hardly two years passed before a moderate trade reaction so far cut into earnings that these com-

mon stock dividends had to be hurriedly dropped. The accumulated surplus, which had reached \$99,809,000 in September, 1903, fell to \$61,794,000 in the ensuing March. But the lesson was not lost. The managers have paid no common stock dividends since that month. They have made much more liberal appropriations for depreciation. But continuance of large profits has now moved the management to resume the common stock dividends, though at only one-half the rate fixed in June, 1901. Under the circumstances, there is an excuse for the action which did not exist five years ago. We think that the management might better have merely announced "a dividend" than have declared "one-half of 1 per cent. for the March quarter and the same for the June quarter"; first, because retroactive measures of this sort are needless and confusing, and, second, because it looks like evasion of the fact that, in reality, the June quarter's entire surplus earnings are used to pay this dividend. Inasmuch as the total surplus, reported by the company itself for December 31, 1905, was less by \$15,000,000 than in September, 1903, there will be some people to argue that the common stock dividend ought to have been at least deferred until the surplus was brought to its former maximum.

Mr. Root's address at the Pan-American conference is a timely and most welcome footnote to the 'Monroe Doctrine. The history of American diplomacy, to be sure, abounds in altruistic expressions for the republics to the south of us, but, in view of what followed the war with Spain, and, more especially, of the seizure of the "canal strip," an explicit statement of our attitude towards these sister nations is by no means superfluous. Mr. Root's assurances on this point are admirable, both in substance and in manner. "We wish for no victories except those of peace," he said. "We wish for no territory except our own, and no sovereignty except over ourselves." These words must have been eminently satisfactory to all delegations save the Colombian, and, indeed, waiving by-gones, it is difficult to see how Mr. Root could have acquitted himself of a somewhat difficult task with greater tact and frankness. The note of condescension, which is most trying to races representing an older civilization than our own, was entirely absent. It is the hope that Mr. Root will labor actively to bring about closer and better relations with the other American republics which gives his words significance. He is a man who pays with his person, and it may be

assumed that his service to the cause of conciliation is not comprised in a single speech. In a large measure, he holds the situation in his own hands, and already has done much to allay distrust of the United States. Unhappily, the most durable sort of alliances—favorable trade treaties—are prevented by the policy of the party in power. Here, too, Mr. Root must have the courage of his idealism, and accept the ungrateful task of educating Congress to rational ideas of foreign trade. His elevated words will find a favorable echo from Patagonia to the Rio Grande; but they will fail of practical effect here unless some intelligent attempt is made to put the United States, not on such a commercial basis as England enjoys in South America—that is too much to hope—but at least on so tolerable a footing as a protective nation like Germany has made for herself.

On Monday at Charlotte, North Carolina, three negroes, whose trial for murder was already under way, were taken from the jail and lynched, in spite of the appeals of the Mayor, the Judge who was trying the cases, the city solicitor, and United States Senator Overman. The local militiamen, ordered out promptly, but thoughtfully supplied with only blank cartridges, were spectators at this outrage. The State of North Carolina seems to be rapidly earning for itself the unenviable distinction of being a centre for the most violent anti-negro feeling of the South. The recent action of its Republican State Convention advocating the further extension of the "grandfather clause" suffrage discrimination goes beyond any previous declaration of the kind in the South. As we have pointed out before this, the permanent retention of this method of letting the illiterate white man vote while excluding the illiterate negro destroys the only plausible excuse ever offered for the Southern Constitutions, namely, that after the expiration of the "temporary plans" they would impose the same tests for the suffrage on both races. As to this, some letters recently written by North Carolina Democrats are, to say the least, illuminating. Such is a letter in the *Atlanta Constitution* over the signature of J. R. Keen:

The negroes are wide awake to the situation, and are doing all in their power to educate themselves and their children, while the whites continue that indifference to education that has always characterized them. I last month listed the taxes of this township and nearly one-third of the men that listed could not make their "X."

Anthony Comstock and his Society have done such a world of good in suppressing the vilest sort of pictures and printed matter that it is a pity he should, from time to time, discredit his

work by unintelligent activity beyond his province. This time he has seized an issue of the *American Student of Art*, a monthly magazine issued in the interest of the Art Students' League of this city. The offence was merely the reproduction of a number of "academies," or drawings from the nude figure. This is commonly done by other art schools that maintain a journal. The circulation of such periodicals is practically limited to art students and those concerned with their instruction. In an individual case, a wrong use might conceivably be made of these nudities, but to pounce upon such publications is, as a teacher at our League justly remarked, as absurd as to hale the publishers of Gray's "Anatomy" to court for intentional pornography. All this is Greek to Mr. Comstock, but it is not Greek to some of the directors of the Society for the Suppression of Vice, who owe it to themselves and their work to restrain his more questionable vagaries.

There is a good custom in Boston by which no wealthy citizen may die in peace unless Harvard College and the Art Museum are mentioned in his will. The number of small bequests is considerable, and, being usually unrestricted, these minor gifts are a peculiarly available resource. If it is too much to hope that Columbia University and the Metropolitan Museum will ever make quite the claim upon New York that the corresponding Boston institutions do upon their more homogeneous public, one must at least desire that our greatest museum and university should be more generally remembered. We are glad to note that by two wills probated last week the Metropolitan Museum receives bequests of \$20,000 and \$1,000. The example is worthy of imitation. If, for example, every subscriber to the Museum should, according to his ability, "remember it in his will," the actual increase in income would be considerable, while small or even nominal bequests do as much as the more conspicuous donations to set a praiseworthy fashion. It should be quite as bad form to leave a will without mention of some beneficent institution as it once was to transfer an estate unprovided with some modest "back-log" of Government bonds.

One more rich young man has been exposed at his questionable diversion of pretending to be poor and needy. This time it is the son of a Chicago banker who wants to be a missionary. In preparation for that calling, he desires to become "on intimate terms with hardship and adversity," and has taken the position of scullion at the country club of a summer resort in southern Wisconsin. He has been scrubbing and scouring and polishing the handles of the big

front door there for the last month, and has enjoyed some singular experiences, as, for instance, being barred from the dining room when his family were eating at the club, and he had donned his own good clothes to partake of their hospitality. But the newspapers have discovered him. The self-abnegation of the rich man's son is under the same everlasting glare as his vices. In either case it must be an exceptional character that can develop normally under it. Given the most sincere ambition for simple and humble service, what can become of all these good intentions when the right hand can read in the papers every morning just what the left hand doeth? The poor, hunted scullion will have to drop out of sight and seek new employment, only to be exposed again and again and driven into more remote places. The hunted criminal is not more in terror of detection than the wealthy day laborer. And this, after all, is only the most insignificant side of a condition for which the sensational press is chiefly responsible. When the twelve-year-old grandson of a wealthy Chicagoan was gravely interviewed here the other day, on the questions of the hour, the pursuit of the families of the rich was seen in its silliest aspect.

The Liberal Administration lived up to the best English traditions in the proposals for the new government of the Transvaal which it laid before Parliament last week. Self-government on a fair and equitable basis it offers Englishmen and Boers alike. There are no special provisions to insure Anglo-Saxon domination, as had been expected by many. For the moment, the upper house is to consist of fifteen members appointed by the Crown; but arrangements will at once be made for an elective body instead. The guiding principle of manhood suffrage will also be embodied in the constitution for the Orange River Colony, which is in course of preparation. In short, within four years of the war, if Parliament agrees, the former Boer republics are to be as much in control of their own affairs as either Natal or Cape Colony. This plan attests both the courage and generosity of the Ministry. Mr. Balfour only echoed the words of the Jingo press in denouncing the scheme as premature and reckless. Kipling assumed, merely upon rumors of the Ministry's intention, that the Boers would be put in complete possession of their old country. The exact number of voters of British or Dutch ancestry is still in doubt, and the Ministry has had to face the possibility of Dutch control of the new lower house. This risk, if it exist, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman has had to take; he has entrenched himself firmly on the democratic principle that each citizen twenty-one years of age shall have a vote in the government of the country. The

magnanimity of this action recalling that of the North towards the South in our own country, should be a potent factor in hastening the return of peace and prosperity in a sadly harried and unhappy country.

Upon the question of servile and Chinese labor, the Government has also spoken out emphatically. At the moment of conferring power upon a majority, probably in favor of a continuance of Chinese slavery in the mines, it serves notice on all concerned that recruiting of Chinese labor must cease on November 15. More than that, the Constitution will contain a positive provision against servile labor of any kind. For this the blacks may well give thanks. It was high time for the Ministry to take this stand; in the ranks of its followers dissatisfaction with its handling of the Chinese question had long been rife. Of 50,000 coolies on the Rand, 1,311 are in prison, while lawlessness and disorder are steadily on the increase. Only the slaveholders—the mine-owners—are really satisfied with conditions as they are.

Parliament rose on Saturday, leaving the reputation of the Liberal Ministry heightened, on the whole, as a result of the labors of the session. There have been some signs of vacillation and even of disagreement in the Government, but the Prime Minister has kept a firm hand on the public business. It has moved on with great dispatch. The Cabinet has shown much more driving power than Mr. Balfour's had for the last year or two of its existence. While the routine bills have been handled skilfully, the various pronouncements upon public policy have been marked by grasp and consistency, and have been well received. The official Opposition, of course, has got up a great deal of manufactured fury, but the country has remained calm, even when Mr. Balfour was, as the Chancellor of the Exchequer said, tearing an artificial passion to tatters over the Education Bill. The change in Mr. Balfour is, indeed, an interesting study in psychology. Years ago, as Irish Secretary, he made his reputation as a miracle of coolness under the taunts and revilings of the Parnellites. As Prime Minister and Leader of the House, his favorite rôle was that of condescending daintiness, immovably amiable, indulging by preference in the superlative of under-statement. But now, in Opposition, he mounts to noble rage nearly every day, and is shrill and extravagant where he once would have been quietly sarcastic. Is this a sign of waning powers, or simply of a losing cause? Perhaps Mr. Balfour has felt it necessary to invent an impetuous anger to hurl at the robust impassiveness and downrightness of Campbell-Bannerman.

The Anglo-Indian *Pioneer* has undertaken to print the complaints of Hindus with reference to the "injustice and insolence" of the English in India. A correspondent of the Berlin *Tageblatt* supplies further details. Young officers are accused of being specially flagrant offenders. "In driving through the cities they ply their whips right and left, to clear the streets, without reflecting that thereby they arouse feelings which, gaining force from year to year, must end in an explosion." The educated Hindus are aggrieved because the English treat them with the same contempt as the coolies, refusing to eat or associate with them. They are becoming impatient, in proportion as they share the benefits of a European system of education, at the postponement of the day when they are to have a voice in the shaping of the country's policy. The German referred to is at a loss to understand the British attitude toward the educated Hindus. "I have become acquainted with a number of these," he writes, "whom I liked decidedly better than many an English snob or German official I have met."

M. Hertzstein, the member of the Duma who was assassinated on August 1, had gained prominence as an authority on the land question. He had drafted a project of law for the expropriation of unimproved holdings. "That little Jew in spectacles," was the contemptuous phrase of the landlords in referring to him. He at least showed the financial and constructive talent of his race. His was the bill which the Duma would have been most disposed to enact, had not the stroke of dissolution fallen. Hertzstein proposed that all lands not actually worked by their owners should be taken by the State "at a just price." In those words lay the rub. What was the "just price," and who was to fix it? The St. Petersburg correspondent of the Paris *Figaro* relates a conversation on this subject which he overheard between a landlord and Aladin, the peasant leader. The latter resented the charge that his party would take land without paying for it; were they robbers? Well, then, asked the landlord, "how about that property of mine in Cherson, which Catherine II. gave to my great-grandfather?" "Ah," replied Aladin, smiling, "for lands which your ancestors acquired without expense, the nation will pay nothing in resuming control of them. You will lose your property without indemnity. Justice wills it." One sees how thorny is the agrarian question in Russia.

Emperor William, in denying to a reporter of the Paris *Matin* that he is pleased at every report of scandal or disaffection in the French army, prob-

ably was thinking as much of Russia as of France. The meaning of his saying, "anti-militarism is an international pest," depends upon definition of terms; but it is certain that the spectacle of Russian autocrats doubtful of the loyalty of their own troops is one that causes uneasiness in military nations. As Anatole France has just said, "The Russian revolution is a universal revolution." Its rumblings are felt afar. Unorganized and leaderless as the present movement appears to be, with all its sporadic outbreaks, its haphazard bloodshed, and its strange lack of solidarity among the men of even a single regiment, it is of an earth-shaking sort. Doubtless Herr Bebel would say to-day with even more emphasis than he did a year ago: "The revolutionary storm which has broken out in Russia finds an echo in the heart of the German workingman." There is no present question, of course, of anything like serious disaffection in the German army. But if the report had been true that the Emperors of Austria and Germany had promised to lend the Czar troops to put down the revolutionists, there might have been a different story to tell. Happily, the report was promptly and officially denied at Berlin.

The length to which the Prussian bureaucracy will go in order to discredit the Social-Democrats, appears from a recent circular of the Prussian Minister of Education. In the event, he ruled, of any persons offering to give school children training in gymnastics free of cost, permission is to be granted if the applicant can prove his moral fitness to undertake that work. To this the Minister added: "The possession of any such moral fitness is to be denied in the case of all members of the Social-Democratic party." Naturally, the publication of this extraordinary document has called forth sarcastic comments. Writing in the Berlin *Nation*, Dr. Theodor Barth asks whether the next step should not be the "commandeering" of all children of Social-Democrats. If no one of the three millions belonging to that party is morally fit to teach gymnastics, surely not one is a proper person to instill correct ideas into the minds of growing children. Hence he suggests that the nation take and educate all children of a Social-Democratic father or mother. The Social Democracy has a larger number of voters than any other party, and, if we may judge by its success in the last three elections to the Reichstag, there is no reason to believe that its influence with the masses is waning. But, instead of cooperating with other parties in order to achieve definite reforms, or of turning for new recruits to other than the laboring classes, the Social-Democracy is wasting its time and strength in internal dissensions and theoretical discussions.

THE "IOWA IDEA"—AND OTHERS.

The outcome of the Iowa State Convention was highly characteristic of the ways of politicians. A contest had been bitterly waged for and against a principle. After a severe and dubious struggle, the friends of the principle won, controlled the Convention, took all the offices, and, apparently, threw the principle out of the window. In other words, Gov. Cummins had been savagely fought by the stand-patters, whom he in turn had denounced and attacked, but when he had them beaten and himself safely renominated, lo! the Convention adopted a stand-pat platform, the lion and the lamb lay down together, grace, mercy, and peace were hymned by all factions, and the only wonder of the bystander is what the long and envenomed quarrel had been all about.

It has certainly been about something. The long thunder of the captains in Iowa and the shouting could not have been caused by a desire to write such stand-pat platitudes into the platform as the Convention actually adopted. The fight was personal to Gov. Cummins, and on account of his pronounced views about the need of tariff revision. It was for this reason that Secretary Shaw journeyed so frequently to Iowa to make speeches and pack caucuses against Cummins. Shaw is the pattest stander of them all. Others, like Roosevelt, may be but half-pat, standing on only one foot, like a sleepy heron, and wondering where to put down the other, but the Secretary of the Treasury is always firmly planted with both feet on a tariff which it is sacrilege to revise. He had openly and repeatedly declared Gov. Cummins to be a heretic on the tariff—no better than a wicked Democrat—and for that reason had called upon faithful Republicans to excommunicate him. On his part, Cummins had not minced language. He had publicly and repeatedly asserted that certain tariff schedules were retained only in the interest of oppressive monopolies, and that the "robbery" committed by the Beef Trust and the Standard Oil was as nothing to the robbery of the people by a protective tariff. Yet he amiably accepted last week a platform of which the tariff plank was made of the familiar old punk-wood—duties to "secure remunerative prices," yet not to foster "domestic monopoly"; rates to be "adjusted from time to time," but only in a way to "keep the tariff in harmony with our industrial and commercial progress." We defy any Republican, not minus one or more of his senses, to repeat that ancient nonsense without laughing.

Are we to suppose, then, that Gov. Cummins is, after all, not a lion, but a sheep? Has he bartered his tariff-revision birthright for a mess of office? There will be some, doubtless, to insinuate that the Governor of Iowa was

insincere throughout, or that he was perfectly willing to say, cynically, that a renomination *vaut bien une messe* in the shape of a platform written by the stand-patters. But that would be a superficial interpretation of the result. In large effect, it was a great triumph for progressive ideas about the tariff within the Republican party. A good test of this is the position in which it leaves Secretary Shaw. He was hissed to his face in the Des Moines Convention last week. Observers on the spot report him to be "broken and discouraged" by the outcome. He had certainly staked his political future on beating Cummins. Beaten by Cummins, he will not be so ardent or confident in urging his own Presidential candidacy as the blindest of all the stand-patters. This of itself is a momentous consequence of the Iowa Convention; nor can it be supposed that Gov. Cummins will be inclined to modify, much less abandon, tariff views on which he has won a great victory. Not for nothing was his wing of the party called "progressives," as against the stand-patters. He represents an element of Republicanism ready to come out of the old tariff cave, with its owls and bats, and move on to a new policy demanded by the new times. Thus in its general effect the result in Iowa cannot fail to encourage those Republicans in New England and Indiana and Minnesota—there may be at least one in Oyster Bay—who are for having their party move next against tariff monopolists and restrainers of trade.

Certainly in Massachusetts, zeal for tariff reform seems to be seizing upon the Republican party. "We are all tariff revisers now," they say. They have not forgotten Gov. Guild's letter to the President last year, stating that the Republicans would have lost the State had it not been for their promises to reform the Dingley tariff. They are redoubling those promises this year, with what credence by the people remains to be seen. But the protectionists are visibly as much shaken in Massachusetts as they are in Iowa. Their wisdom has been simply that of the stronger—

The power is always theirs, and power is always wise—

and when once they find that the other side can carry conventions and win elections, they will discover that the time has come to improvise life-long convictions of quite another tenor.

HARVESTS AND MARKETS.

It was an English financial critic, we believe, who some years ago described the United States as "Nature's spoiled child." By this he meant that the recklessness of our financial and industrial experiments had been such as to invite the most serious penalty; yet an unexpected stroke of good fortune in American industry, or some development

that could not have been confidently predicted, had counterbalanced the excesses of our promoters and speculators, averted the threatened crisis, and eventually led the way to what seemed to be a still stronger economic position.

The industrial reaction of 1903, for instance, coming when our capitalists were tied hand and foot in rash indebtedness, seemed at the time to forebode a culminating stroke at overcapitalized consolidations and amalgamations. What happened was that a cotton crop in 1904 of wholly unprecedented magnitude, with the world's cotton prices at a level fixed by three years of scarcity, followed by an equally unparalleled crop of wheat in 1905, harvested and sold under very similar conditions, so enriched our interior communities that the home market for manufactured products became larger than at any previous time; while purchases by foreign nations, forced by their own inadequate supplies to buy in unusual quantity, served to cancel an excessive floating indebtedness of our own to them.

This good fortune could not have been safely predicted by the most sagacious observer; the events on which it depended were in fact pronounced improbable, in advance, by the great body of trade experts. No one has forgotten the debate of the cotton trade in 1903, whether it was possible ever again to raise such crops even as those of half a dozen years before. The weight of opinion leaned to the conclusion that it could not be done; exhaustion of the soil and insect pests put the achievement out of the line of probability. Prediction, at that time, that a cotton crop, 20 per cent. larger than the largest ever previously harvested, would be grown within a year, would have been received with ridicule. Yet that is precisely what happened.

So, in 1904, when a wheat crop of small size and poor quality forced us to import 3,000,000 bushels from other countries, many of the highest authorities in the grain trade pointed out evidences that our capacity as a grain-growing and grain-exporting state was destined to be progressively impaired. Good wheat land could, so one of the foremost English experts argued, no longer be obtained at reasonable prices; the older cultivated area was either being invaded by towns and cities or diverted to other forms of produce; the permanent fall of the United States to a minor position among the world's wheat producers was an early probability. Nature's answer to this fairly plausible theory was an American wheat crop, the very next year, never but once exceeded in the country's history.

These facts simply go to show that those venturesome experiments in the American money markets—which depended on exactly this agricultural outcome—were not saved from wreck by

events sagaciously foreseen. The same is true of the country's financial and industrial history of the current year. Last year ended and the present year began in the markets with a note of distinct and formidable warning. A reckless speculative undertaking, in which banks and great banking houses seemed alike to be engaged, had tied up large sums of capital at a time when it had become manifest that all available funds were needed for legitimate trade purposes. At the end of 1905, money touched 125 per cent. in Wall Street; in January, the New York bank surplus was at the lowest point, and money at the highest, reached in that month during twenty-six years. In April, when the Eastern banks ordinarily begin to strengthen their position, with a view to the later call for harvest money, bank reserves fell below the minimum fixed by the Banking Act—something which had not happened, at that time of year, since 1884. High financial experts disagreed as to the immediate cause. Mr. Schiff ascribed it to an inelastic currency; Mr. Hepburn, with whose conclusions the practical banking community seemed to be more closely in accord, placed the blame on "overtrading," absorption in land and stock speculation of capital urgently needed elsewhere. But whatever their general inferences, all financial authorities admitted that the known phenomena denoted a future full of danger.

Once more, however, Nature seems to have come to our relief. The season is nearly at hand when the country's important crops will be assured. Taking as a basis the Government's latest estimates of acreage and condition, there is promise of a wheat crop second in size only to the great yield of 1901, a corn crop fairly equalling last year's and far exceeding all others, and a cotton crop surpassed alone by the great yield of 1904. Accidents of the season are yet possible, and not all of this promise may be realized. But at the moment the situation is propitious; its importance, in offsetting the evil influences foreshadowed in the springtime, is very great. Such harvests would mean, first, continuance of high prosperity in our inland communities, and, with it, continuance of home demand on our manufacturing output; next, it would mean a full available surplus of agricultural exports, through which our market's heavy borrowings from Europe, at the time of the money disturbances of four months ago, may be paid off without serious strain.

Whether the situation is such as to admit of another plunge of our speculating bankers and capitalists is a different question. Their performances of last year were based on the theory that, with large crops of wheat and corn, and with profitable industry in progress, the

use of bank reserves in wholesale speculation was entirely safe. But it was not safe then, and would not be so now. The very richness of the present harvest promise points to unprecedentedly large demands from interior markets upon the country's reserve money and on its capital. The sums tied up in real estate speculation, over the entire country, are probably much larger than a year ago. Recourse of large corporations to issue of notes because they cannot easily market their bonds, and failure of such a security as New York city 4 per cents to bring more than a trifle over par, are signs that available capital is not sufficient for both legitimate industry and inflated stock speculation. One hears the Wall Street oracle answer that we can borrow from Europe. But serious financiers are well aware that our present concern is not to increase, but to reduce as rapidly as possible, a foreign floating debt which lately reached proportions possibly never before attained.

THE RELIGION OF SUCCESS IN POLITICS.

Guglieimo Ferrero, to whose occasional writings one seldom turns without getting suggestion based on learning and reflection, has a recent article on "The Religion of Success." This is not merely a variant of "The Gospel of Success." To preach the saving grace of "doing things" and "getting there" does not take one so far as it does to accept the doctrine and make of it an absorbing and sacred conviction—a religion. Yet this, Ferrero contends, is what the modern world is doing with greater unanimity every day. In department after department—education, theology, art, journalism—the *éclat* of success is not only the sufficient answer to every objection, but the thing which we are bidden to seek and worship before all other gods.

What Ferrero points out with much acuteness is that, particularly in politics, this religion of success is the source of great difficulties. It vitiates our political judgments. It disturbs the orderly development of political ideas and movements. For the causes of success in politics are exceedingly complex. They are often wrapped up in accidents and even blunders which baffle the most trained sagacity. Yet let there be great success, or the plausible appearance of it, and we instantly take up with some single cause, some sole explanation suggested, and thereafter reckon that cause and that explanation among the political certainties. Some extraordinary happening, some brute event, turns for the time the course of political history. We see a brilliant success snatched by chance, and we say, "That is the way it ought always to be done."

Military success is less subject than political success to causes which no

astuteness can foresee or impede. Yet even in it, with our tendency to reduce everything to the simplest explanation, we reason about a mere accident as if it were the essential thing. Rome beat Carthage, we say, because her government and her army were better organized. But should we have been so sure of that had we not the success before our eyes to persuade us of it? Suppose, writes Ferrero, that Hannibal had conquered, as he certainly came very near doing; would not the historians and the philosophers have shown how absurd it was to imagine that an army of which the generals were chosen by popular vote, and who were changed every few months, could cope with a force wielded under such an iron dictatorship as Hannibal's?

In politics, as we forgive everything but failure, so we pardon anything that succeeds. And we reason back from the success, of which the real causes are intricate and obscure, to some mere accompaniment, and then erect that into a canon of political activity. For concrete illustration, take the Hearst candidacy for Governor of New York. It would be as ludicrous as it is disgusting were it not that a specious argument from success can be made out in its favor. Hearst as a possible Governor would not be thought of by the wildest dreamer, or the most gullible romance-fed errand-boy, in this city, had he not run for Mayor last year and polled 200,000 votes. It is those votes which paralyze the reasoning power and dazzle the imagination, and lead even good men, not ignorant of Hearst's character and motives, to say, "Well, there must be a great moral force in him somewhere, otherwise he would not have come so near being elected." It is the religion of success at work. The actual causes of the great Hearst vote in this city were diverse and subtle. The campaign fell on a time of political upheaval. Unrest was in the air; revolt in men's hearts. Scores of thousands struck out blindly with the Hearst weapon, as they would with any club that came handy, not greatly caring that it was soiled. But we are to believe all the 200,000 devoted to municipal ownership, imposed upon by what has been aptly called the Hearst "yelling peril," taken in by his pose against the corporations; and we are gravely told that his canvass marks the beginning of an entirely new era in our politics! Yet if his vote had been but 20,000 instead of 200,000, none of these things could be true.

Those who would hold themselves steady against these insidious fallacies of political success should take a long look before and after. It is a tonic thing to remember how many great successes in their day have become the gigantic failures of history—the bursting rocket of the evening only the refuse in the

gutter the next morning. The pro-slavery politicians were for years the most successful men going. They had every sign of popular approval—the votes, the offices, the honors, the money. But they are sunk stars. Gone, too, and despised are explosive and passionate movements that had, in their little hour, the promise of sweeping everything before them—the Grangers, the Knights of Labor, the Populists. How long will it be before Hearst and Gompers are as forgotten as Denis Kearney and Powderly? The real religion of success must be based upon real success. And to the latter, reasoned principle and staunch conviction are as essential as they ever were. All the hysterics and the shameless self-advertising cannot change that. And the worshipped *causa victrix* of today may prove to be really *victa*, when history and the sober judgment of mankind finally get at it.

RELIEF WORK AT SAN FRANCISCO

In the confusion which followed the catastrophe at San Francisco, it was not to be expected that a system of relief could be instantaneously devised and applied which would meet the demand for both speed and precision. At first, the latter consideration had to be sacrificed to the urgency of the primal wants of 100,000 men, women, and children; and in the act there was no doubt a percentage of waste. The tremendous pressure caused many small leaks. But now, three months later, it may fairly be stated that the thousands who gave to the various relief funds may rest assured that their main object was attained and that, broadly speaking, people in the stricken city have not suffered for lack of food, shelter, or clothing; that there has been no serious waste; and that, as a result of generous assistance and the faithfulness of those in charge of a bewildering and thankless task, there is now available a large sum—more than \$5,000,000—for substantial and carefully constructive relief work.

Three weeks ago, the Rehabilitation Committee began giving money away with a discreet hand at the rate of about \$10,000 a day. Some 2,000 families had applied for assistance up to July 27, and of these nearly 1,500 were helped to re-establish their homes or businesses with grants varying from \$25 to \$900. Of the first \$104,249 thus disbursed, \$35,000 was in unsecured loans, \$600 in secured loans, and the remainder was given outright. Of the total amount accounted for in the first report on these particular operations, \$45,000 was credited to "household reestablishment" and \$28,500 to "business enterprises."

Possibly, had this distribution been begun earlier, much of the somewhat bitter criticism in San Francisco of relief methods would have been forestalled, and a debate about "scientific char-

ity" avoided. It was natural that Western and Eastern ideas should clash; but, as between the lavishness of the former and the caution of the latter, a fair middle course has been adopted. The petty depredations, always more picturesque than serious, such as the disappearance of a van-load of whiskey, or a consignment of some other relief supply, may be left to the local grand jury without further reflection than that the sneaks are always with us. Complaints of "red-tape" were inevitable, and events have shown that "red-tape" is not always an unmixed evil, especially when counterbalanced by a vigorous expression of the idea that the victims of such a disaster were not to be treated as ordinary applicants for charity. In the conditions prevailing it would have been a miracle if there had been no dissatisfied voices.

But the broad assertion that the relief funds have relieved can be made without fear of contradiction; and the tentative plans remaining are on a large scale. They include the expenditure of \$100,000 for a winter pavilion for the aged destitute; \$150,000 for park shelters for the homeless, also for the winter; \$500,000 for outright gifts to lot-owners to help them to rebuild; \$500,000 in loans for the same purpose; \$2,500,000 for cottages, houses, and flats to be sold at cost for cash or on the instalment plan. As the amount to be given away in cash or loans outright is \$1,500,000, the sum of \$5,250,000 is thus accounted for under six specific heads alone.

Alike to the Red Cross, the army, the Relief Committee, the Rehabilitation Committee, and the Mayor's Food Committee is due praise for hard and effective work, often under most disorganizing and discouraging conditions. In the practical task of the revival of the city, the professional politician, on the other hand, is increasingly present, with his schemes of "honest graft," which may frequently be more honestly called blackmail. Something to this effect has already come over the wires: as when saloonkeepers who desire a license are prompted to buy all their glassware from one politician and all their whiskey from another. The field is wide and the genus San Francisco "grafter" is a resourceful kind of highwayman. These things, however, should not be confused with the relief work, and the thousands who have given help have apparently no cause to fear that the native plunderers have been able, or will be able, to gather up more than a few scraps from the relief-fund table. But it will be well if the San Francisco editors cease to chastise any and all who, in the cause of progress, report the capers of the goats as well as the gambollings of the sheep. The leeches should not be protected from the widest obloquy by any false conception of civic pride. Nor should the greed of the labor unions,

taking advantage of San Francisco's necessity, be sparingly dealt with, any more than the kindred exactions of tariff beneficiaries.

On the part of the refugees themselves, whose numbers are daily lessening as they again become builders of a city, a prominent official observer remarks: "There has been an extraordinary amount of patience, moderation, and acceptance of incidental hardships and inconveniences." With such testimony as this regarding the spirit even of the most unfortunate of the people, there need be little fear that the still serious problems of the winter and the longer future will not be sturdily, if only gradually, surmounted.

WAVERING RUSSIAN AUTOCRATS.

The news from Russia continues grave—grave in the events occurring, more grave in the implications which lie behind. It is obvious that the rejoicing of the Government over the first comparative quiet of the country was premature. The dissolution of the Duma was accepted with a calm which Stolypin declared reassuring, but which was in reality ominous. It was inconceivable that the people who, a year ago, compelled the Czar to grant the Duma, would tamely see him withdraw what they had wrested from him. If agitation and disorder and the general strike were efficient weapons in 1905, when disaffection among the troops had not gone nearly the lengths which it has since reached, it could hardly be doubted that means of coercing the Government would be sought in 1906. Hence there should have been no surprise at the succession of protests, outbreaks, and mutinies. That they seem to have failed of their purpose, for the moment, argues no real breaking down of the national determination.

It seems evident that Stolypin's policy was impossible from the beginning. He called it "strong-handed reform." It was to be a mixture of iron repression and liberalism. Now, an amalgam of that kind might avail in certain hands, but not in those of an autocracy. A Liberal Duma, working out into self-consciousness, and struggling for the rights of the people, might make temporary compromises of that sort, and still press on towards its goal, while the people would be reasonably content. But a tyrannical Government has to do one thing or the other—give up its power, or use it ruthlessly. Both in the philosophy and in the actual grasp of the situation, Gen. Treppoff showed himself a year ago superior to Stolypin. In his secret circular to the police, he elected unhesitatingly the plan of Thorough. He said with much force, from the standpoint of an agent of autocracy and repression:

There is always a psychological moment, which, if not duly appreciated by the au-

thorities, paralyzes their action. If the military are not called out in time or not to the right place, and if they are used hesitatingly, if a meeting is imprudently permitted, if the leaders in disorder are seized too late—all this is a proof of the weakness of the authorities, and even at times of their complete incapacity.

We do not say that such a policy could have succeeded this year any more than last; but it was the only policy for a Czar, talking of his "Imperial will" as the sole basis of law or popular rights, to adopt. Whatever "psychological moment" existed for Stolypin, he lost in his wavering announcement that he would at once bayonet and bless the Russian people. Even the reactionaries, it now appears, will none of his two-faced policy; and another Premier must be found. Stark and unsparing repression might have for a time succeeded. Even in that case, however, the result of a Government triumph could only have been to revive Swinburne's description of Russian absolutists:

Those that crouch and shrink and shudder, girt with power—
Those that reign and dare not trust one trembling hour—
Those omnipotent whom terror curbs and drives—
Those whose life reflects in fear their victims' lives.

That sort of terrified reigning by terror might have been for a time possible for the Czar after he had been nerved up to send away the Duma; but without the resolution to resort openly and everywhere to blood and iron, he cannot expect that he will have even a respite for any length of time.

In fact, it may not be long before the Czar's own nobles and intimates will be telling him that he confronts again the impossible conditions of last summer. They then went to him, a month before he issued his proclamation summoning the Duma, and informed him in the plainest language that he was guiding Russia towards ruin. They told him that distrust of the Government was universal, and that all its moral force had disappeared. The peasants, they declared, were taking the law into their own hands, "knowing that the authorities have neither prisons nor soldiers enough to cope with the whole population." Under such circumstances, to postpone concessions to the people was only postponing a revolution which, by the very delay, would be only intensified in its "bloody remorselessness and mad ferocity." Whether the great landlords and the nobility will have the courage again to utter these unwelcome truths to Nicholas, we do not know; but the course of events during the past few days has been thundering them in his ears.

How long shall it be before American sympathy finds an effective manner of expressing itself? There is, we believe, a committee in process of formation, and if it does nothing but voice popular

sympathy, it will be of value. On the initiative of some London editors, Lord Brassey, Frederic Harrison, George Meredith, the Rev. Stephen Gladstone, and many others have signed a memorial to the Duma, which reads in part as follows:

We have learned to admire the genius of the Russian people; the heroism of its sacrifices for freedom and its sufferings in a long and painful struggle have touched the heart of every generous man. The complete triumph of liberty in Russia, to which we look forward at no distant date, will at length make it possible for the English and Russian peoples to give formal expression to the friendship already uniting them, a friendship based on community of ideals, which must help to realize the aspiration of all good Europeans for a civilization devoted to peace.

But the Russians need more than messages of sympathy. Think of the Jews. A writer in the *Westminster Gazette* says that "during the past week a stream of frantic telegrams has poured unceasingly into the Jewish communities of London, Paris, Berlin, and Washington—one long-drawn, terror-stricken cry for help from five millions of men, women, and children threatened with fire, sword, and dishonor." Day by day they face the danger of massacres, instigated for no other purpose than in the vain hope of "drowning revolution in Jewish blood," as Plehve is reported to have said. If the sight of the Russian people in travail is not enough to stir Americans, then the additional horror of the Jewish situation should move every heart and also loosen purse-strings as soon as it is possible to say where funds should go to aid in the work of relief and liberation.

ATHLETICS FOR THE AGED.

With the "silly season" in England has arrived the inevitable *questionnaire*, this time on the proper ages for the various outdoor sports. Professor Allbutt of Cambridge started the discussion by declaring that no one should be permitted to play golf until thirty-five, being capable before that time of the more vigorous games. According to this view, the active age stops, in Dante's words, "midway in the path of our life." A number of prominent British athletes, whose opinions have been tabulated and averaged, took a more hopeful view. Football, to be sure, should be dropped at the mere nonage of thirty, but hockey may be played till thirty-five, cricket five years longer, while one may row and play lawn tennis till sixty. These limits, naturally, apply to amateurs, and not to professionals, who frequently continue into grandfatherhood with athletic value unimpaired.

Waiving for a moment the grievous dictum that makes the ancient game of golf merely a solace for declining physi-

cal force, it is clear that these average ages of retirement are in a manner misleading. Did not the great cricketer, W. G. Grace, celebrate his sixty-eighth birthday recently by making seventy-four runs? A few years ago, when the friends and admirers of the eminent scholar, Dr. Frederick J. Furnivall, wished to signalize his seventieth birthday, they could think of no more suitable gift than a fully rigged double scull; and it is safe to say that few even of the younger subscribers could safely have engaged to pull bow to his stroke from Richmond to Teddington. Nor should we forget that other septuagenarian who not long ago beat his youthful record in walking from Philadelphia to New York. Evidently, there are some who pass these theoretical dead-lines, not only with impunity, but with positive benefit. But for the generality, the figures may afford a rough and ready guide.

Yet the question of retirement is, after all, a two-fold one. A sport, we fancy, is very rarely given up for hygienic reasons. We drop out not because the recreation has ceased to please or the exercise to benefit, but because our game begins to go off. Finding ourselves at a disadvantage with the youngsters, overhearing that we play well "for our age," we decide no longer to cumber the field. Thus, on a punctilio, many a sportsman takes really a premature farewell of his favorite pastime. We judge that the table given above is based rather on a sense of what is good for the sport than for the individual player. Fortunately, the scale admits of a gradual descent to senility by way of golf, which knows no age limit, but merely regards the grave itself as a sort of nineteenth hole. Some have said that when all else failed one might at least hold a tiller, but the case of the gentleman who was stricken last week at the wheel of a friend's yacht, hints that the cockpit is no safer than the putting green.

For golf as an old man's game, there is unquestionably much to be said. It requires that abundant leisure which in the active years demands some apology; it deals gently but firmly with those organs immediately below the diaphragm, whose torpidity is the very sign-manual of approaching eld. It may be taken up without risk by anybody who can walk two miles in one hour; and it may be relinquished without that ominous going off physically which dropping the more active games often entails. But in the case of golf, too, one must face the inexorable dilemma of what is good for the player and for the game. There is no doubt that golf is good for the old gentlemen, but how good are they for golf? In the way of suppression or manipulation of scores, they are prone to set an awful example. They are given to threesomes and to sociabilities en-

route that delay the progress of all following matches; they are not above small evasions, being averse to the "sand iron," often "dropping for one," when a true golfer goes down into the pit. Old men have been detected teeing up by mutual consent in the bunched season of early frost. In short, their attitude is generally opportunistic, and few of them are above the suspicion of playing merely because it is good for their health. A doctor's prescription lurks in the pocket where the score-card should be.

Were golf restricted to men over thirty-five years, according to Professor Allbutt's decree, we should still retain many of our best players, but what a loss of idealism there would be in the game! We have hinted already that the severities of the code are maintained chiefly by the effort of high-minded youth. Even more, the too much discredited ideal of "form" depends upon mastering "stance" and "swing" in tender years. The stern fact of repeated victory by players who have no form to speak of has given the game a go-as-you-please quality. Yet we presume there are a few faithful who still regard the often-beaten Findlay Douglas as the most finished American golfer—the model and exemplar of graceful and effective play. No one whose muscles have stiffened—assuredly, no one whose stomach has "gone down"—is likely to master this admirable slashing style, the possession of which is almost more than that of infinite mugs and medals. Golf emphatically needs the old men, quite as much as they need it; but it also needs the steady infusion of young blood, if only that the beautiful style of the "old school" may not utterly yield to the stodgier mechanics of middle and later years.

A COLONIAL AUTOCRAT.

SYDNEY, July 5.

It can seldom happen that the passing away of a colonial public man is an event of sufficient moment to deserve the attention of readers at so great a distance; but the death of the Premier of New Zealand, a fortnight ago, occurred under circumstances so awe-inspiring, almost so tragic, and he was himself so striking a personality, with a career so remarkable, that a noticeable blank would be left in these letters recording the political evolution of the Australasian colonies, if it were quite ignored. Mr. Seddon had been officially invited to visit Australia, as a sovereign might have been invited, and from the day that he landed in Sydney till he took his departure, he was fêted like a king on a royal progress. He was banqueted; he made innumerable speeches; he was interviewed by the representatives of every progressive movement; he honored Australian institutions by merely visiting them; and he wound up by negotiating a treaty of commerce between the commonwealth and New Zealand. Then, when the steamer that bore him away from these shores was hard-

ly out of sight of land, the indomitable will that had never once in a lifetime relaxed its grasp, gave way, and, like Scott's Queen Margaret of Anjou and many an obscurer individual, he fell suddenly dead. It was the most glorious of endings—a "death at Trafalgar." The ship that was carrying him back in triumph was converted into a funeral barge—"Home they brought their warrior dead." He was laid to rest on a commanding eminence, looking down on the scene of his legislative victories, after an international funeral, in which England and the United States, as well as Australia and all New Zealand, may be said to have participated, and where the dramatic laments of the Maoris for their Great White Father were blended with the heartfelt grief of a whole people. It was the colonial parallel to the exequies of Gladstone—as Sir James Stephen insisted that the old Latin word should be written. Mr. Seddon was wont to say that the colonies did not sufficiently honor their distinguished men. They have signally falsified the saying in his own instance. They idolized *him* in his lifetime and are worshipping him in his death.

Three memorable lessons, out of many, may be drawn from his extraordinary career.

Mr. Godkin has impressively remarked on the revolution that took place in American politics when education and social standing ceased to be required of candidates for a legislature. Mr. Seddon was a member of the Ministry that marked the accomplishment of a similar revolution at the Antipodes. Till 1891, New Zealand ministers had usually been distinguished for academic rearing, social rank, or eminent public services. The theory involved was then apparently supplanted by another theory—that every citizen is fit to be a legislator, that every legislator is fit to be a minister, and that every minister is fit to be premier. At all events, ministers were now first chosen from the rank and file. The results were startling. An itinerant dealer became premier, and projected a daring policy of State socialism. A Highland shepherd became Minister of Lands, and took the first steps or strides towards the nationalization of the land. A journalist became Minister of Labor, and established a system of industrial arbitration. These were great achievements, but they were all destined to be eclipsed by the exploits of the Minister of Works, who carried still further the Socialist policy of his predecessor, closely linked his colony with the fortunes of the Anglo-Saxon race, and raised New Zealand to be the second country in the empire after the mother land. Richard John Seddon seemed an unpromising person to be the executor of such a programme. Successively an engine-driver, a storekeeper, and a publican, he was but half-educated and wholly devoid of culture. Talent he seemed to have none. It was long before he could properly express himself. His style of both speaking and writing gradually improved, but to the last his English was often bald, clumsy, and uncouth, and he never possessed the faculty by which Gladstone and Disraeli, Webster and

Clay, exalted every topic they touched upon. What made him the man that he became? The same things that made Abraham Lincoln one of the greatest of American Presidents—the acquisition of power and the assumption of responsibility. He issued victorious out of every battle that he fought, and the strength of every rival he defeated entered into him. Accident had made him premier, and accident continued to befriend him. Like Crispien, he gained consideration at home by acquiring prestige abroad. He was the first of the colonial premiers to set foot in England on the occasion of Queen Victoria's "diamond jubilee," and he captured the British public by his *aplomb*, the vigor of his utterances, and the robustness of his character. Coming back to New Zealand aggrandized, he was acclaimed "King Dick," another Richard the Lionheart. Serious illness threatened him, but, heroically battling down two strokes of paralysis, he showed an unbroken front to his enemies. Indeed, opposition gradually died away, and he was kept in office by overwhelming majorities.

Albert Sorel and other historians have shown from a mass of contemporary evidence that Napoleon tyrannized over France with its own consent. Mr. Seddon despotized over New Zealand with its cordial coöperation. He wielded unlimited authority. The whole political machine was moved by his will. As the English secretary of state was originally the private secretary of the sovereign, the colonial secretary in British colonies was originally the private secretary of the governor. Introducing a species of political atavism and substituting himself for the governor, Mr. Seddon converted his colleagues into his private secretaries. Their measures, their bills, their appointments even, were his. He held two successive governments—English noblemen!—under his sway, neither of them venturing to oppose any of his demands; and he wrote of "my government," as the governor used to speak, and as the King of Spain still speaks. The recent history of New Zealand furnishes the most striking proof of the proposition that, under the forms of parliamentary government, a free country may be ruled as Bismarck ruled Prussia, or even as Metternich ruled Austria.

It was in perfect consistency with his domestic policy that Mr. Seddon should be the chief fugleman of colonial jingoism. In his first speech in England he sounded the keynote of all the speeches afterwards made by the colonial premiers. He intimated that, if danger threatened or war broke out, England would "find the colonies behind her." He offered their support to the Motherland and virtually encouraged it to plunge into war. The declaration was duly noted, and the South African war was engaged in on the understanding that the colonies would take part in it. But for their unflinching advocacy and interested participation, it might never have been undertaken, and it would certainly have languished. The injury Mr. Seddon thus inflicted on his native land was grave and doubtless irreparable. He lived long enough to regret it. When the importation of Chinese to the gold mines of the Rand was sanctioned by the British Government, he plainly informed it that, if the retrograde policy was persisted in,

there would be "a revulsion of feeling." It was too late; the mischief had been done. Hegel stated, and, sorely against his will, Mommsen proved, that the conquest of the provinces had reacted injuriously on the constitution of Rome and the Roman character; while Zeller has shown how deeply it corrupted the old Roman religion. The reaction of free colonies on the motherland should make for freedom, and in general it has so made; but in one or in two directions it has been disastrous. It has nursed the passion of conquest, and it has not fostered the sentiment of public justice.

In his last days Mr. Seddon declared that he was neither socialist nor anti-socialist. Misusing a word which, with its congeners, "humanity" and "humanities," has been often abused, he dubbed himself "a humanist." His sole public end, he asserted, was to promote the well-being of his fellows. It was no idle boast, if good intentions only were reckoned; but his methods were those of Socialism. Leave out womanhood suffrage and a stringent licensing act, which he passed at the point of the bayonet, and one continuous scarlet thread is perceived to run through all his measures. They substituted the collective action of the State for private enterprise, individual or associate. He strengthened the system of State industrial arbitration. He repurchased vast tracts of private lands, which are partially retained by the State. He established old-age pensions—his masterpiece. He added a life-insurance branch to the Government fire-insurance department. He built hundreds of workmen's cottages, with the result of inflating the market price of the surrounding land and thus defeating his own object. And he announced a gigantic scheme of national annuities, which was to place the coping-stone on his political career. It will be laid by other hands, but the adoption of his measures by one Australian State after another shows that, if an ambitious minister desires to gain and hold for a lifetime the secure tenure of autocratic rule, he should initiate and pursue a policy of State Socialism. J. C.

Correspondence.

JEWISH SYMPATHY FOR ANIMALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Authorities go and authorities come, but authority abideth forever, was my involuntary exclamation when I read the brief notice in the *Nation* (No. 2142), regarding the callous attitude of Judaism and Christianity toward the "little brothers" of men. The authority of Schopenhauer is invoked for the unqualified statement, that these two religious systems were oblivious of duty toward dumb creatures. When a modern writer inclines to pick a flaw in the mentality of a mediæval predecessor, he charges him, as a rule, with blind adherence to authority. The reproach is, that before the modern spirit of inquiry was abroad, all moot points were settled by merely quoting the dictum of some great man. Apparently we are no better off to-day, unless it be an advance to swear by Darwin rather than Moses, or

have Kant crammed down our throats instead of St. Paul. For my part, I cannot call it other than blind adherence to authority, to rest satisfied with an *ex cathedra* statement by Schopenhauer, that Judaism has no regard for the feelings of the brute creation.

If, instead, the elementary method of consulting the Bible itself were adopted, we should find reason to wonder at the abundance of legal provisions, rather than their paucity. The humane institution of a day of rest embraces the beast of burden in its beneficence; the fourth commandment bids cessation from work on the Sabbath for the sake of one's cattle. A still more characteristic expression of feeling is in the verse that forbids the muzzling of the ox while he is treading out the corn. The Jewish law, however, goes farther; it prohibits castration, and thereby imposed great sacrifices upon an agricultural community. But the highest degree of tenderness and sympathy with brute life is implied in the Biblical injunctions that recognize and guard the relation of the mother animal to the offspring; a nest may not be robbed of the dam and the fledgling birds at once; a cow or ewe and her young cannot be slaughtered for a sacrifice on the same day; and three times the Mosaic law warns against seething the kid in its mother's milk.

So much for the Biblical law. As for post-Biblical Judaism, if it knew no such institutions as Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, the reason may be that they were made superfluous by the stringency of the law. The stranger desirous of sojourning among the Jews had to take upon himself a minimum of observance, and this minimum included the prohibition against rending a live animal and eating its flesh, a demand so rigorous that the early Christians laid stress upon it (Acts xxi. 25). The rabbis would not permit animals to be tortured even for the purpose of obtaining medical remedies. Except as a measure of self-defence, the chase is unthinkable in the Jewish system. About a hundred years ago, a very wealthy Jew plied a celebrated rabbi, Ezekiel Landau of Prague, with questions as to whether the prohibition against hunting could not be modified in some way. The rabbi gave reins to his astonishment, that a Jew could desire to take the life of dumb creatures wantonly, and esteem it a pleasure at that.

That the law was not a theory, but the practical and direct expression of the popular conscience, is demonstrated by legend and proverb. A pious husband and wife long remained childless. They begged a saint who chanced their way to pray for the removal of the curse from them. He answered: "If you will so place the watering trough that even the young chicks can quench their thirst, you will have cause for complaint no longer." And so it was: sterility had been their punishment for heedlessness in the treatment of the animals under their charge. And the whole case for Judaism, which has not been half stated in the above, was pithily compressed into one sentence by the wisest of kings: "A righteous man regardeth the life of his beast" (Prov. xii. 12).

LOUIS GINZBERG.

Jewish Theological Seminary of America, New York, August 6.

[We gladly give space to this interesting letter. Our note, however, while alluding to Schopenhauer did not erect him into an authority, nor was any attack made upon Jewish ethics.—Ed. NATION.]

THE HOUSING OF EMPEROR WILLIAM'S GIFTS TO THE GERMANIC MUSEUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *New Yorker Staats-Zeitung*, in an editorial of July 7, stated that the manner in which the gifts of Emperor William to the Germanic Museum of Harvard University had been received by the Harvard authorities seems to show that the Emperor's generosity had entirely failed of proper recognition in this country. For, it said, in effect, these splendid casts of monumental German sculptures were stowed away in a dusty old barn; and as for making use of them for the study of the history of German art, that was entirely out of the question, since nobody took any interest in them.

As long as these perversions of truth were confined to the columns of a single newspaper, I thought it best to ignore them. Now, however, I learn that a recent dispatch of the Berlin correspondent of the *London Standard* reports that these statements have been copied in the Berlin papers, and have led to a good deal of indignant comment on American ingratitude for German favors, and to the expression of the hope that the Emperor would in the future refrain from such acts of generosity towards America.

Under these circumstances, I consider it my duty to declare that the accusations of the *Staats-Zeitung* are absolutely false and sheer fabrications. The building in which the collections of the Germanic Museum are temporarily installed is small and unpretentious, but it is admirably lighted and well adapted for exhibition purposes. Every one of the monuments exhibited (including the gifts of the German Emperor) is brought into clear view and can be studied in all its details. No one is more desirous than the Harvard authorities of having a sufficient sum of money raised for the erection of a large and monumental museum building; and repeated efforts have been made in this direction. The latest of these efforts consisted in collections for an "Emperor William Fund," intended as a permanent endowment for such a building. About \$25,000 has thus far been subscribed for this fund; but we need more than ten times this amount before we can think of breaking ground. It is very much to be desired that the German-American press, instead of reviling what has been accomplished thus far, should help us in carrying out these wide-reaching plans.

As to the interest taken in the museum by the public, it is sufficient to say that since November, 1903, the time of its formal opening, the museum has been visited by some 70,000 persons, although it is regularly open only on two entire days and two afternoons of the week. Lectures on mediæval German sculpture are regularly given in the museum to advanced students. A handbook describing in detail the objects exhibited is at present in the press and will appear shortly.

KUNO FRANCKE.

Harvard University, August 6.

STUDY FROM THE NUDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent seizure in New York on a warrant sworn out by the secretary of the Society for the Suppression of Vice, of a publication of the Art Students' League entitled the *American Student of Art*, suggests some considerations that appear to be too often overlooked in connection with the study of the nude figure in academies of art.

Whatever may be the need of practice from the nude for the exceptional few who have capacity and elevation of mind enough to make proper use of it, such practice is in no way essential in the training of the average student of art. Considered as discipline, for any ends that these students can compass, the study of any other natural organic form is as useful as that of the human figure. The student who does not find beauty in a spray of leafage will not perceive it in the Venus of Melos.

But, however this may be, there can be no justification for parading in public the crude effigies of inelegant naked academy models. These belong in the students' portfolios, if anywhere. They are not works of art, and have nothing to commend them to public attention, while as mere display of nudity they justify the action that has been taken.

It is only when chastened by exalted feeling, and the highest artistic treatment, that the nude in art is ever justified. The nudes of academy students, and of the rank and file of professional painters, seldom rise above the coarseness and uncleanness of those of Parisian Salons.

CHARLES H. MOORE.

Harvard University, August 4.

Notes.

Harlow N. Higinbotham, who was for many years a partner of Marshall Field, has prepared a book on "The Making of a Merchant," which will be published in September by Forbes & Co. of Chicago.

Dr. Hugh Black, who is coming to New York to occupy the chair of Homiletics and Pastoral Theology in Union Theological Seminary, has ready a volume of sermons which will be issued by Fleming H. Revell Co.

Next week Henry Frowde will publish Mary Wollstonecraft's "Original Stories" for children in the Oxford Library of Prose and Poetry. The volume will contain the five illustrations by William Blake, and an Introduction by E. V. Lucas.

We have so often pointed out the excellent features of the First Folio Edition of Shakspeare, edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke, and published by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., that nothing remains to be said about the latest volume containing "Twelfth Night, or What You Will."

Frederic C. Howe, whose book, "The City the Hope of Democracy," was recently reviewed in the *Nation*, has a new volume ready, called "The Confessions of a Monopolist." Two of the chapters were published last year in the *World's Work* as "Confessions of a Commercial Senator." The

work as a whole will soon be issued by the Public Publishing Company of Chicago.

John Addington Symonds's "Walt Whitman, a Study," is published by E. P. Dutton & Co. in a single small volume. It is a curious contrast to turn from Symonds's panegyric of Whitman to the somewhat embarrassed attitude of Whitman toward his admirer, as shown in his recently printed conversations with Horace Traubel.

Burke's works are to occupy six volumes in the *World's Classics*, published by Henry Frowde, the first volume being now before us. To compress into a single book of pocket size the four treatises, viz., "A Vindication of Natural Society," "The Sublime and Beautiful," "A Short Account of a Late Administration," and "Observations on 'The Present State of the Nation,'" means pretty small type, although, as in all these volumes, the page remains quite readable. Judge Willis furnishes the General Introduction.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have ready for publication a volume whose title runs: "Empires and Emperors of Russia, China, Korea, and Japan; being notes and recollections of Monsignor Count Vay de Vaya and Luskod." The English publisher, John Murray, has added a preface in which he relates the Count's signal work for the Catholic Church in remote places of the earth. Another book announced by E. P. Dutton & Co. is a volume of fifteen stories by George Gissing, called "The House of Cobwebs and Other Stories." This completes the edition of Gissing's works, and contains a long introduction on the author by Thomas Seccombe.

From the autumn announcements of G. P. Putnam's Sons the following titles may be noted: "The Ohio River," by A. B. Hulbert; "The Connecticut River," by E. M. Bacon; "Romance of the Italian Villas," by Elizabeth W. Champney; "Cathedrals and Cloisters of the South of France," by Elise W. Rose; "Winged Wheels in France," by M. M. Shoemaker; "The Story of Old Fort Johnson," by W. M. Reid; "Hunting Big Game," by W. S. Thomas; "On the Great American Plateau," by T. M. Prudden; Mrs. Gaskell's Works, Knutsford Edition; "Madame de Staël to Benjamin Constant," unpublished letters and other mementos; "Essays of Sir Leslie Stephen," in eleven volumes; "The Censorship of the Church and Its Influence Upon the Production and Distribution of Literature," by G. H. Putnam; "Shelburne Essays, Fourth Series," by P. E. More; "A Literary History of the English People," vol. ii., part i., by J. J. Jusserand; "The Poetic Movement in England," by Stopford A. Brooke; "The Gate of Death"; "The Heart of Hamlet's Mystery," by Karl Werder; "Tacitus and Other Roman Studies," by Gaston Boissier; "Thomas à Kempis and the Imitation of Christ," by J. E. G. de Montmorency; "Montaigne" and "Molière," in "French Classics for English Readers"; "The Life of Goethe," vol. ii., by Albert Bielschowsky; "Princess and Court Ladies," by Arvéde Barine; "The Greatness and Decline of Rome," by G. Ferrero; "Five Fair Sisters," by H. Noel Williams; "George Herbert and His Times," by A. G. Hyde; "David Garrick and His Circle," by Mrs. Clement Parson; "Memoirs of Comte de Rambuteau," by George Lequin; "History of the People of the

Netherlands," Part iv., by P. J. Blok; "Madame Recamier and Her Friends," by E. Herriot; "The Roman Empire," by H. Stuart Jones; "Gettysburg and Lincoln," by H. S. Burrage; "The Union Cause in Kentucky," by Thomas Speed; "A Spinner in the Sun," by Myrtle Reed; "A Draught of the Blue," by F. W. Bain; "Shibusawa," by I. W. Adams; "The Sword of Wealth," by H. W. Thomas; "The Saint," by A. Fogazzaro; "The Man of Property," by John Galsworthy; "The Culture of the Soul Among Western Nations," by P. Rámanáthan; "The Evolution of Religions," by E. Bierer; "The Acts of the Apostles, etc.," by H. P. Forbes; "The Hebrew Religion to the Establishment of Judaism Under Ezra," by W. E. Addis; "The History of Painting," by R. Muther; "The Development of Modern Art," by J. Meier-Graefe; "English Coloured Books," by M. Hardie; "Enamels," by H. H. Cunyngame; "Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Works," by N. Dawson; "The Essentials of Æsthetics," by G. L. Raymond; "History of English Furniture," vol. iii., by P. Macquoid; "The Power to Regulate Corporations and Commerce," by F. Hendrick.

In pure literature the "Life and Letters of Lafcadio Hearn," now definitely announced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. for the autumn, ought to be the most entertaining volumes we shall have for many a day. Mrs. Elizabeth Bisland, the author, knew Hearn intimately for nearly thirty years, and had the advantage of seeing him in many of his different environments. The bulk of the two volumes is given up to Hearn's correspondence during a period of thirty-five years. Hearn was a voluminous letter-writer, eloquent and witty, and his personality had that idiosyncrasy which makes such writing interesting.

Bordeaux has bethought herself that she once had a mayor named Michel de Montaigne, and, as a municipal enterprise, has undertaken a definitive edition of the "Essais," of which the first volume has appeared. The complete text is, of course, to be given, and variations of type are to show the epoch to which each passage belongs; while notes will register the most trifling variants. Professor Strowski of Bordeaux University has editorial charge.

The *Quarterly Review* comes out strong in history and government and rather weak in pure literature. In the former division it ranges through a review of "England in the Mediterranean," "Northumberland," "John Knox and the Reformation," "The Oxford Movement," "The General Election in France," and other outlying subjects. Perhaps the article that will arouse most argument, at least among a certain group of readers, is Robert Dunlop's "Origins of the Irish Race." According to the general view we are told to regard the ancient Irish as a homogeneous race, of Celtic origin, who brought to Ireland their own arts and institutions, and developed them uninterruptedly until the arrival of the Danes and Anglo-Normans arrested and finally put an end to a civilization which otherwise might have grown to something great and permanent. To each of these statements Mr. Dunlop opposes a direct negative, with a fairly formidable array of arguments: "First, then," he says, "there is every reason to believe that the ancient Irish (using the words in the sense of Dr.

Joyce) were not a single, homogeneous, nor in the main a Celtic people; secondly, we have good grounds for concluding that when the Celtic or, more probably, Celtiberian conquerors arrived in Ireland they found the inhabitants of the country in a comparatively well advanced state of civilization; thirdly, there are good reasons for regarding the Celtic or Celtiberian conquest of Ireland as the work of a relatively small body of invaders, resembling the Norman conquests of England and Sicily; fourthly, there is little doubt that Irish Christianity and what is called 'late Celtic' art are essentially Eastern in their origin and have little or nothing to do with Rome or Constantinople; fifthly, there is little question that the Danish invasions (apart from mere acts of piracy) served rather to develop Irish civilization and increase the chance of national unity than the reverse; and, finally, we hold that Irish civilization perished of its own effateness and inability to stand against a superior and more highly developed civilization."

The *Edinburgh Review* for July contains three articles on French subjects, all, in one way or another, interesting. One deals with Alfred de Musset, devoting a good deal of space to the now sufficiently vulgarized episode of the poet and George Sand, but giving it some relief by a clever contrast of the two characters. George Sand the writer of the article calls a "Byronic woman with *un point* of Ibsen"—a capital phrase. A second French paper is on Descartes as the "Representative Philosopher," taking up a number of recent books on the subject by Miss Haldane and others. "He sought," says the article, "to be alone rather interiorly than exteriorly; perhaps, on the whole, he preferred the solitude of the Hall to Eblis to the solitude of the desert under the silent stars." The writer necessarily dwells on the famous *Cogito, ergo sum*, but he does not point out clearly how the over-intellectualism of modern philosophy starts with this false emphasis of *cogito*, and how much of the egotism of modern literature is forshadowed in the *sum*. A third French paper, on "Illuminism and the French Revolution," we may pass over.

The *Library* for June offers a symposium of contributions to the memory of Richard Garnett, the keynote being very happily struck by Austin Dobson:

Of him we may say justly—Here was one
Who knew of most things more than any other;
Who loved all learning underneath the sun,
And looked on every learner as a brother.
Nor was this all. For those who knew him knew,
However far his lore's domain extended,
It held its quiet "Poet's Corner" too,
Where mirth and song and irony were blended.

The other writers recur to the same traits; his kindliness, the universal scope of his learning, his happy gifts as a writer in prose and poetry; and the feeling of personal loss is notable everywhere. Mr. Pol-lard suggests the possibility of evolving by coöperation a sort of composite biography (which would be different from and on a higher plan than the ordinary biography)—lest "his reputation may attract to itself many of the Joe-Millerisms of librarianship." Alexander Hill takes a somewhat new angle of the fiction question in his article on "Responsibility for the Public Taste." He takes the ground that the inexperienced reader needs protection against bad and stupid writers, who, he says, have

opportunities denied to the public speaker. "Is the public the best judge of what is good for its moral and intellectual health?" Mr. Hill thinks not, and he has a seventeen years' experience as chairman of the National Home Reading Union to back up his assertion. Librarians, he holds, should be not only receptive, they must, if they understand their responsibilities, be aggressive in attracting attention to what is good. Mr. Hill suggests three means of doing this: "(1) the display of books bearing upon subjects which are at the time occupying the public mind; (2) talks on books by persons who know their subjects, and who have taken the trouble to look out the books in the library which will enable others to follow in their steps; (3) the formation of public reading circles, meeting in the library, for the purpose of coöperative study and discussion."

Reinhold Begas, probably the greatest German sculptor, having just passed his seventy-fifth birthday, the press is full of stories of his rich and interesting career. A personal friend of Bismarck's, he had occasion to make several statues of him before the Chancellor's death, for which Bismarck gave him some sittings. Impressed, like every one else, with those wonderful eyes of the man of blood and iron, Begas exclaimed once as he worked: "Your eyes, your Highness, are as if they could gaze upon several countries and overlook everything!" "Overlook everything," retorted Bismarck; "that is not a compliment to pay to a diplomat!" Ten weeks before Bismarck's death, Begas appeared at Friedrichsruh to get a final impression of Germany's most striking figure, before beginning work on the great Bismarck monument voted by the Reichstag. When Begas stated his mission, Bismarck replied: "Gott, why do you wish to set me a great monument? Represent me as being on crutches!" When they parted, Begas, feeling that the farewell was final for this world, tried to kiss Bismarck's hand, but the Chancellor waved him off, and then embraced him with deep feeling.

In connection with the celebration by the University of Turin of Cesare Lombroso's jubilee, his daughters, Paola and Gina (Mme. Carrara and Mme. Ferrero), published a little volume giving a modest account of their father's life and work. A chapter containing details of his *vie intime* has amusing stories. Never was there a better impersonation of the traditional *savant*—absent-minded, whimsical, frank, kindly, and always dwelling in the moon. On one occasion in Rome, being without an overcoat and being instructed by his daughters to buy one, he was found in the streets with a huge and shapeless bottle-green affair, dragging after his heels, which he had blinkingly purchased from an unscrupulous street peddler. Tales of the *enfant terrible* order are told of him. Once his daughters were very reluctant to go with him to call upon a stupid lady of their acquaintance. Lombroso finally persuaded them to go, and then burst out as follows to their astonished hostess: "I have had the deuce of a time in getting these foolish girls to come with me. They always do dread being bored! But I promised them that we should hurry to eat some of your cakes, and then go away immediately!"

Charles Edward Garman, professor of philosophy at Amherst College, has for a quarter of a century played a somewhat unique part in our American academic system. To "publish," to pursue "original investigation," has during that time been the ideal that most of his compeers have aspired to; but he, with as good capacities for that sort of thing as any of them, has unswervingly devoted all his energies to being an inspiring teacher; and his "publishing" has only been of pamphlets for the use of his successive classes. The results have been extraordinary in their effect, not only on the intellect, but on the character of those who have come under his influence. His pupils, many of whom are now academic personages of importance, have thought fit to express their "gratitude, admiration, and affection" by a *Festschrift* on the German pattern, published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., entitled "Studies in Philosophy and Psychology," and dedicated to Professor Garman, whose portrait forms its frontispiece. The thirteen essays which the volume contains are of first-rate importance, but too various, and in some cases too technical, to call for detailed notice here—the philosophical periodicals will doubtless do them justice. Meanwhile the editors have printed, as a sort of introduction, "without the knowledge of Professor Garman," a long letter, written by him many years ago, in which his views of the way to teach philosophy and of its rôle in manly education, are vividly expounded. The philosophic class-room is for him the place *par excellence* in which a young man may acquire confidence in his own reflective judgments. He thinks that the crisis of intellectual self-reliance in the individual may, with proper pedagogic skill, be brought on there, and may make him immune for life against weakminded imitateness. As in the breaking of a colt, there is one grand opportunity, which bad teaching may forfeit, but which good teaching will secure, and protectively vaccinate, as it were, the student's future mental character. Professor Garman's own account of his methods is delightfully original. The whole volume, full as it is of able and striking matter, should suffice to show that a life modestly consecrated to what nowadays seems the less fashionable half of a "professor's" functions, may yet reap its meed of fame, and burst, in spite of itself, into the wider publicity. It should serve as encouragement to the pure teacher the world over.

Berlin newspapers contain warnings against a literary thief, Erich R. Salbey, a young man from Erfurt, who calls himself an author, but seems so far to have signed his name only to other people's work. One of his latest victims is a Viennese writer, two of whose book reviews Salbey published over his own name. When accused Salbey at first denied the charge and abused the accuser, only subsequently to admit his theft. He has also been exposed by Erfurt newspapers, and it is expected that his name will now disappear from Kürschner's "Literaturkalendar," in which it should never have appeared.

The Mohammedan College at Aligarh is one of the most interesting educational institutions in India, not only on account of its marked success, but because it is an unmistakable indication that the Indian

Mohammedans are awakening to a realization of their position and responsibilities. Founded in 1875 by a great reformer who, convinced of the evils attendant on a purely secular education, determined to unite religious instruction based on Islamic tenets with the secular learning of the West, it has 700 students from all parts of India, Burma, and Persia. An extensive area is covered by the college buildings, consisting of quadrangles of students' rooms, a mosque, central hall, museum and library, as well as a field for athletic sports. The rooms are divided into blocks, each under the care of a proctor. To develop the higher nature three student societies have been formed. The *Anjuman ul Farz*, or Duty, is to assist poor students, mainly by collecting funds to establish scholarships. The Brotherhood of Purity has for its aim the encouragement of manly morality. Last but not least is the debating and literary society, in whose clubhouse the best English periodicals are eagerly read. The way in which the Mohammedans are regarding it may be seen from what a leading Indian notable, the Aga Khan of Bombay, said of it in a recent address: "We want Aligarh to be such a home of learning as to command the same respect of scholars as Berlin or Oxford, Leipzig or Paris. And we want those branches of Moslem learning which are too fast passing into decay to be added by Moslem scholars to the stock of the world's knowledge. And above all, we want to create for our people an intellectual and moral capital; a city which shall be the home of elevated ideas and pure ideals; a centre from which light and guidance shall be diffused among the Moslems of India, Aye, and out of India too, and which shall hold up to the world a noble standard of the justice and virtue and purity of our beloved faith."

The practice and even the methods of latter day political criticism—muckraking, the unwise it call—are by no means new, as is attested in that journalistic miscellany "The Olivia Letters" (Neale Publishing Co., \$2). Writing in the winter of 1867 from Washington, Mrs. Emily Edson Briggs describes the descent of that grave historian, James Parton, upon the capitoline lobby. "James Parton, the distinguished magazine writer," she learns, "has been here for several days." He had been seen on the floor of the House, and also in consultation with many leading members of Congress; but anticipating the late Senator Gorman's tribute to the calling of Congressional page, Mr. Parton had also consorted with doorkeepers, messengers, pages, and all others who are supposed to be wise and serious when talked to in regard to "a certain very delicate subject." The cause of the inquiry was "that Mr. Parton is preparing an article on the Washington lobby." This monster of truly hideous mien "Olivia" proceeds to characterize in terms which suggest that the Octopus metaphor, too, is of a most respectable antiquity. She rejoices that Mr. Parton "is going to hold up the monster in the broad light of day—this creeping, crawling thing, which, in more respects than one, bears a strong resemblance to Victor Hugo's devil fish." The curious may still read Parton's exposure of the lobby in "Topics of the Times," where it stands as

a reminder to our more vociferous censors that the public interests may be subserved with a very moderate expenditure of ink and a merely gentlemanly supply of denunciatory rhetoric.

The Celtic revival has been rather less active in Scotland than in the other Celtic-speaking lands, but it appears to have borne fruit there in the increased study of place-names and local traditions. A good deal of material on Scottish Gaelic nomenclature has been brought together in recent years. Besides a number of articles in the Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Inverness and in other periodicals, we recall a book by W. J. N. Liddall, on the names in Fife and Kinross (1896), one by J. M. MacKinlay on the influence of the pre-Reformation church on Scottish place-names (1904), and another in the same year by W. J. Watson, on the names in Ross and Cromarty. G. F. Black of New York has printed in the *Caledonian* short specimens from an extensive collection of material which we believe it is his intention to publish. And now we have received from the firm of David Nutt in London a volume on the place-names of Argyll by Dr. H. Cameron Gillies, known already as the author of a Gaelic grammar and of articles on Gaelic medical lore. The chief service of these investigations has been in ascertaining and making accessible the facts with regard to actual local usage. For in this matter the official surveys, with their half-anglicized spellings, give very untrustworthy indications. The information is obviously fundamental for all study of the etymology of the names, and Dr. Gillies has taken great pains to make his collections for Argyllshire accurate. In the examination of documentary evidence concerning the earlier forms of names he appears to have done less than Mr. Watson. Many doubtful names cannot be satisfactorily dealt with until such historical data have been generally collected, not only for Scotland, but also for Ireland, of which we understand that the Rev. Edmund Hogan of Dublin has in hand a great onomasticon. Dr. Gillies's discussions of etymologies are not always lucid in exposition, or, in our opinion, sound in method. We are a little puzzled by his statement (p. 23) that one of two explanations of a name is "possible," but that the other is "correct." And we cannot agree with all of his derivations. We do not believe, for example, that *machaire* and *oirthir* are compounds of *tir* (as stated on pp. xxiii. and 3), or that *aird* is cognate with the English "earth" (p. 2).

The first volume of A. H. Leahy's "Heroic Romances of Ireland" was recently reviewed at some length in these columns. The second volume, now in our hands, contains five stories of the type known as "cattle-spoils," which constituted a favorite class of sagas among the ancient Irish, and dealt with what was doubtless a common incident of their tribal life. The great legendary struggle between Ulster and Connaught turned upon a cattle raid, and the saga which narrates it, the principal tale of the oldest Irish cycle, is entitled "The Cattle-Spoil of Cooley" (*Táin Bó Cúailnge*). With this great *Táin* there came to be associated a number of introductory tales (*remscéla*), some of them having little or no connection with the central story, and

it is five of these lesser tales of cattle-spoil which Mr. Leahy has translated. They are all, in different ways, good examples of the best period of Irish saga-writing. Mr. Leahy's method in translation differs from that employed in the first volume, where he rendered the Irish prose by prose and used verse for the metrical passages only. In the present case he has made a verse translation throughout, although the originals are almost wholly in prose, and he has supplied a literal prose rendering on the opposite page. We prefer his first method, for we are still doubtful about the value of his metrical versions. His verse, while acceptable enough in an attempt to reproduce for English readers the *cante-fable* structure of the original, has no particular charm or power, and a somewhat diffuse metrical paraphrase does less justice, in our opinion, to the Irish than a close translation in idiomatic English prose. Unfortunately, the prose which accompanies the verse in the present volume is, doubtless intentionally, so literal that it sometimes ceases to be English at all. Take a sentence like the following, which we quote from page 6: "Fifty sons of kings, this was the number of his household, co-aged, co-similar to him all between form and instruction." A few pages of this to show the peculiarities of Irish style and syntax—as in the case of the interlinear translation in Mr. Leahy's Appendix—may well be of service, but a volume of it seems to us hardly worth while. In spite of the criticisms we have felt bound to make upon both Mr. Leahy's volumes, we can commend them to English readers desirous of getting at the substance of some of the most interesting productions in Irish literature, and we believe they will help make the real nature of that literature better understood.

Under the general title "The Church Universal," a company of Anglican scholars propose to issue a series of eight small volumes dealing with the history of the Christian Church from the beginning to the present day. The volume now appearing is "The Church and the Barbarians; Being an Outline of the History of the Church from A. D. 461 to A. D. 1003," by the editor of the series, the Rev. William Holden Hutton, B. D. (The Macmillan Co., \$1.) To include the recital of the fortunes of Christianity, both East and West, political and doctrinal, during five and a half centuries, within two hundred pages, means altogether too great condensation. Mr. Hutton is overwhelmed by the multiplicity of his facts, and one feels in reading his pages that one is examining a skeleton, not following the development of an organism. The ecclesiastical bias of the writer is somewhat too evident. No opportunity to prove that the Church is "a divine institution with a continuous life" is neglected. The author is fully persuaded that the great Councils simply defined the faith which was delivered to the saints, and that if they had failed to define it just as they did—one person, two natures, two wills—"it would have been dissolved little by little by sentimental concessions and shallow inconsistencies of interpretation." Church history of this sort certainly will not unsettle any one's faith, nor will it con-

vey a real appreciation of the struggles through which Christian doctrine came to be.

The latest volume to be issued by the Royal Historical Society is "State Trials of the Reign of Edward the First" (London: Royal Historical Society, Chancery Lane). The editors, Prof. T. F. Tout and Miss Hilda Johnstone, have made use of "two plea rolls preserved in the Public Record Office, containing the official proceedings of the trials of the judges and other royal officers, before a special commission appointed by Edward I. in 1289." This trial of the judges for breach of trust and general perversion of justice is a dramatic incident in the legal history of mediæval England. For more than three years prior to August, 1289, the King had been in Gascony. On his return he found the land filled with protests against those who had represented the Crown during his absence. Determined to find out whether the royal confidence had been abused, Edward appointed Burnell, his trusty chancellor, John de Pontoise, Bishop of Winchester, Henry Lacy, Earl of Lincoln, and four other men of irreproachable loyalty, a commission to take evidence. Thomas de Weyland, chief justice of common pleas; Ralph de Hengham, chief justice of King's bench; Adam de Stratton, a leading official of the Exchequer; William de Brompton, a judge of common pleas; Solomon de Rochester, a justice on eyre; William de Saham, a judge of King's bench; Henry de Bray, justice of the Jews, and several lesser personages were disgraced. There can be little doubt that the King was actuated to make the inquiry by just motives, but the size of the fines and the willingness of the Crown to accept satisfaction through payment of money, would indicate a desire to kill two birds with one stone. The episode is more striking than the documents which contain the official records. Prof. Tout, with truth, calls them dull, and there are also large gaps. The chronicles of the period—Hemingburgh, the "Flores Historiarum," and the "Annals of Dunstable"—refer with their usual exaggeration to the iniquities of the judges; but, as Miss Johnstone points out: "The record is almost as disappointing as the chronicles. . . . In no less than 60 out of the 165 cases recorded in the shorter roll, the accusation is never given, or only vaguely given as 'trespass.'" There is, however, evidence that some, at least, of the judges used personal intimidation, besides giving open aid to friends through counsel and advice. By far the liveliest document in the volume is the "Narratio de Passione Justiciariorum," a satire written by some unknown clerk. The work of editing has been performed by Professor Tout and Miss Johnstone with care and erudition.

The second part of M. René Dussaud's "Notes de Mythologie Syrienne" (Paris: Leroux, 1905) comprises two-thirds of the entire 183 pages, exclusive of the index. Of the nine chapters in this *livraison*, eight appeared originally as articles in the *Revue Archéologique*, *Revue Numismatique*, etc. The first *livraison* contained but one chapter, dealing with the symbols and images of the Syrian sun-god. The principal chapter in the second part deals with the symbols and images of the goddess consort.

M. Dussaud concludes that Hadad, with his consort, Atargatis, and their child or children, Simios and Simia, came from Babylon, gained a footing at Hierapolis, and spread thence over Syria, Palestine, and Phœnicia. In Syria proper, as at Damascus, for example, the local divinities were completely assimilated with these gods. In the Roman period we have a new diffusion of Hadad and his consort, superimposed on the first, under the secondary form of the Heliopolitan Jupiter (p. 115). In a chapter on the Phœnician Pantheon M. Dussaud undertakes to show, with a considerable degree of success, that the fragments of a Phœnician cosmogony preserved by Eusebius from a translation, by Philo of Byblos, of the work of the priest Sanchoniathon, possess little or no value as a record of genuine ancient Phœnician myths and legends. The Phœnician Pantheon was practically the same everywhere: at the head a solar divinity, the master, or *ba'al*, of the town and its founder, and along with him the goddess Asartate. There was also a second group, apparently of agrarian origin, Sadyk and his son Eshmun-Adonis. M. Dussaud presents the Aramæan and Phœnician mythology, particularly as it shows itself in the later period, the Greek and the Græco-Roman. All his illustrations are drawn from coins and monuments of that period, and represent rather that official mythology, which was a hybrid of West and East, than the native and original religion. It is curious that M. Dussaud, who is generally so keen to detect and disclose traditional errors, should himself have perpetuated such an error. In the chapter on Dusares, he has much to say of *betylia*, a word which he uses to indicate any sacred stone or pillar. From neither Greek nor Semitic antiquity (*cf.* Prof. George F. Moore, in *American Journal of Archaeology*, vol. vii., No. 1), can such a use be justified. The *baitulos* or *betylion* is a small stone, supposed to have fallen from heaven, to be endowed with motion and speech, and to give oracular responses. It has nothing whatever to do with the stones or stone pillars, set up by the Western Semitic peoples, which they anointed, worshipped, and kissed, and at which they offered sacrifices. The story of Jacob's pillar, and the similarity of Bethel to *baitulos*, led to the confusion of the two words and their different ideas. This misuse of *baitulos* or *betylion* can be traced back only as far as the seventeenth century.

Harrison Grey Fiske has returned to this city to superintend preparations for the production of "The Kreutzer Sonata," adapted by Langdon Mitchell from the Yiddish of Jacob Gordin. The part of the heroine is to be played by Bertha Kalich.

Gen. Patrick Maxwell, who died recently at Bath, England, in the eightieth year of his age, was an Indian officer, who served brilliantly in both civil and military capacities—and was famous as a linguist. He was the author of admirable metrical translations of Schiller's "Maid of Orleans" and "William Tell" and Lessing's "Nathan the Wise," and made a prose translation of Lessing's "Minna von Barnhelm." His version of the remarkable drama of "Nathan the Wise" has been

highly commended both by English and German critics; among the former by Sir Theodore Martin, who congratulated him "on having given to English literature as adequate an interpretation of that noble work as could be desired."

The proclamation on behalf of Mr. Arnold Daly, that, notwithstanding the court decision in his favor, he will neither produce "Mrs. Warren's Profession" himself, nor permit any one else to do so, betokens prudence and a tardy appreciation of the best public sentiment. Possibly a higher tribunal might entertain different views as to the general effect of Mr. Shaw's didactic vulgarities upon public morals. Mr. Daly is said to entertain the conviction that there is a fortune in the piece for any one producing it. He would probably find out his mistake if he made the venture. As a matter of fact, there is not much to be said against the thing on the score of immorality. If anybody but Mr. Shaw had been the author, it might have been possible to argue that it was written with a genuine though desperately mistaken moral purpose. But the discussion would be exceedingly tiresome and unprofitable. The play is unfit for the stage because it is offensive, because, under the pretence of startling and salutary exposure, it grossly exaggerates perfectly familiar evils in a fashion that may gratify the coarsest taste, but is powerless for good; because it applies to modern comedy the methods of an ancient, outworn, and clumsy melodrama; because it is devoid of artistic restraint, truth, or sincerity; because, in spite of all its verbal cleverness, it is platitudinous, coarse, and obnoxious.

The dramatic critic of the *London World*, H. Hamilton Fyfe, in briefly reviewing the past London theatrical season, says: "The public is not, by any means, without intelligence. It goes to musical comedies because it must go somewhere, and because the managers who go in for this form of variety entertainment take pains to give playgoers an article worth their money. But if an equal number of managers took equal pains and spent an equal amount upon providing good plays, the public would, undoubtedly, transfer its custom. We should soon see the musical comedy mongers hitting the workhouse, as the American journals put it. Here, then, is the reason why so few good plays are produced. It is because the management of theatres is chiefly in the hands of people who neither care for good plays nor would be capable of running theatres which made a specialty of producing them. It is nonsense to say they would provide more intelligent dramatic fare if there was a demand for it. Very wisely they kept to the only kind of thing which they like, and in which they can profitably traffic. It would be as grossly unjust to blame them as it is to cast the discredit of our decadent stage upon the public. Good things never come in answer to a demand. They are forced upon the world from above. If we had a few managers resolved to make the theatre a living force in our national life, we should notice a change very soon." This is the plain truth. The public has no means of making any demand upon the manager. It can take what is offered or go without. In-

variably it selects what is good of its kind, making the best of a bad bargain.

"DADDY" CRISP.

Burford Papers. Being Letters of Samuel Crisp to his Sister at Burford; and Other Studies of a Century (1745-1845). By William Holden Hutton, D.D. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mr. Hutton's latest book, "Burford Papers," is a hybrid work in which some family letters of the eighteenth century form a prelude to numerous short essays on the period, 1745-1845. The essays are by Mr. Hutton, who also furnishes in a few local sketches the background. The letters themselves are a fragment of the correspondence between Samuel Crisp, the author of "Virginia," and his sister, Mrs. Gast. The title, too, requires a word of explanation. For most Americans the chief association of Burford is with a little village nestling under the western edge of Boxhill. Here in the inn whose French windows open on slopes of green velvet, Keats wrote "Endymion," while the whole neighborhood is redolent with the memory of William Blake, Disraeli, George Meredith, and other literary celebrities. But not amid the highlands of Surrey is Mr. Hutton's Burford. In Oxfordshire, as every one will remember who knows his Clarendon and his Matthew Arnold, there is another Burford—the Burford of Burford Priory, where once lived Lucius Cary, Lord Falkland, the apostle of "sweetness and light" in a generation which otherwise was disturbed by the fierce strifes of Pym and Strafford, Nehemiah Wallington, and Sir Nicholas Crisp. William Lenthall, Speaker of the Long Parliament, bought Burford Priory from Falkland, and since that time the place has had no remarkable renown. But near at hand is the town of Burford, whose beautiful parish church is the chief architectural glory of the Cotswolds. And since in England past and present are closely woven to form the same rich web, with Burford Church is connected the name of William Morris. Just thirty years ago he happened to be at Burford for part of a day when the church was "undergoing restoration." Scandalized, he sat down at once to propose the formation of a society "which might deal with such cases, and, if the destruction done by the restorers could not be stopped, might at all events make it clear that it was destruction and not preservation." So much for Burford in general. The application of this place-name to the present volume has been explained by Mr. Hutton in the first sentence of the preface: "Such unity as these 'Studies of a Century' possess is due to all of them, I believe, having been written either to or at a house at Burford in Oxfordshire." The residence referred to is the "Great House" where Mrs. Gast was living when she received the letters of her brother, Samuel Crisp, and where Mr. Hutton himself seems to be living now when not engaged in tutorial duties at St. John's College, Oxford.

Samuel Crisp, who is the most prominent of Mr. Hutton's eighteenth century figures, is not quite forgotten by the present generation. Dr. Birkbeck Hill knew all about him, as he did about every acquaintance of

Dr. Johnson; and those who are curious about the family affairs of Fanny Burney have often come upon his name. For the rest, Mr. Hutton compresses what is essential into two sentences:

Samuel Crisp was a man of letters and fashion, who, in 1754, produced at Drury Lane his tragedy of "Virginia," when Garrick himself played Virginius and Mrs. Cibber Virginia. That, for the world, was his title to fame, for the play, if it was not a first-rate success, was much talked of, and was published in the same year by Tonson. Descended from Sir Nicholas Crisp, who is alleged to have spent £100,000 on behalf of Charles I, the author of "Virginia" had good social connections, and either at Chessington or London lived a peaceful, interested existence upon the fringe of the literary and fashionable world. His letters to Mrs. Gast, however, do not convey much gossip regarding either movements of thought or the personal habits of wits and authors. Those which are here published were written when he was an elderly invalid, a little nervous about his investments.

The one friendship of interest which stands out in Mr. Crisp's epistles is that with Dr. Burney and his daughter. The Thrales, Dr. Johnson, Sheridan, and other celebrated persons, come in at intervals, but, save for the Thrales, without leaving a very distinct impression of Mr. Crisp's attitude towards them. We have noticed no more brilliant incident than a dinner at the Thrales', which seems to have been on a plane with the host's wealth.

I met a vast deal of company at Streat-ham, where everything was most splendid and magnificent—two courses of twenty-one dishes each, besides Removes; and after that a dessert of a piece with the Dinner—Pines and Fruits of all Sorts, Ices, Creams, &c., &c., without end—everything in plate, of which such a profusion, and such a Side Board: I never saw such at any Nobleman's. A most Gracious Reception, and such pressing invitations to stay as I could hardly escape; but I got away, and reach'd home by 9 o'clock, and glad I was to creep again into my own Nest."

A passage of somewhat greater intrinsic interest (p. 72) relates to the effect produced by Cornwallis's surrender at Yorktown, upon the mind of a small investor who is afraid of losing his principal. To compare small people with great, it recalls Darwin's fear lest the discovery of gold in Australia should be the ruin of his children by lowering the value of his investments. "At present," says Mr. Crisp, writing on December 29, 1781, "the prospect is dreadful. . . . In times of such horrible Danger hardly anything but hard Gold seems secure, and the growing Interest seems scarcely an Equivalent for the Risk of the Principal."

If Mr. Crisp may be called a star of small magnitude, his sister Mrs. Gast is hardly more than a speck in the Milky Way. She was good to the poor, disliked Non-conformity, was a friend of Molly Lenthall at Burford Priory, and was praised by the local newspaper in an epitaph which, from its length, could not have been put upon any ordinary tombstone. Miss Austen might have found material for a character in Mrs. Gast, but untouched by the spell of another's genius, she seems a commonplace person. For biographical zealots, she enjoys the advantage of having flourished in the eighteenth century and corresponded with the author of "Evelina." Samuel

Crisp, by the way, thought that the emoluments drawn by Miss Burney from literature came very easily. Apropos of the sum paid for "Cecilia," he writes: "A pretty Spill (£300), for a young girl in a few months to get by sitting still in her Chamber by a good Fire!"

Mr. Hutton's essays are much better reading than Mr. Crisp's letters, and deserve well at the hands of all who love the eighteenth century. In one of them it is pointed out that the Oxford don of the present day knows much more about foreign literature than was known by his predecessor of a hundred years ago. Incidentally, Mr. Hutton's own essays bear out this statement. They draw inspiration from many sources, and though written by a clergyman of the High Church party, are informed with a cosmopolitan spirit. Whether the subject be Raphael Mengs, the Stuarts in Exile, the life of Bath, or the minor poets of the eighteenth century, there is always an adequate fund of information. That the touch is not heavy may be seen from a single characteristic sentence, which occurs in one of the papers on Bath: "Here Wesley preached, and Burke meditated, and Anstey satirized, and every person we have ever heard of—except Hannah More—gambled."

On the whole, the best section in this diversified volume is a group of eight studies "On the Religion of a Century." We have styled Mr. Hutton a High Churchman, and he is not unwilling to amuse himself at the expense of Wbig ecclesiastics, like Bishop Watson of Llandaff and Sydney Smith. But his prepossessions do not make him disagreeable, while at times they add spice to his criticism of latitudinarians. His feeling for John Wesley is sympathy and admiration, heightened perhaps a little by the circumstance that the great evangelist looked upon himself to the last as a member of the Church of England.

RECENT GERMAN FICTION.

A distinct reaction against morbid tendencies may be observed in much of the recent German fiction. Kurt Martens, the author of the "Roman aus der Dekadenz," and other stories which ranked him with the best novelists of the modern school, has just published a new book which deserves some notice. "Kreistauf der Liebe" (Egon Fleischel & Co., Berlin) has for sub-title "the story of the better man," and is a charming piece of still life, with just enough of narrative in it to keep up a steady interest. The local background is provincial, the intimate *milieu* of the hero being a quiet bachelor home, regulated as much by the set official duties of the "Herr Assessor" as by the pedantry native to him. Yet there is a flavor of idealism throughout, and there are passages of a delightful humor. The opening scene is unique—with the sonorous bass of the Herr Assessor dramatically declaiming in his office a love poem which has just come from his pen, while the complainants, defendants, and witnesses are waiting for him in the corridor of the court building, and the officers on duty whisper to each other, "the Herr Assessor is writing poetry." The character of the dear old-fashioned Assessor Nothaas stands out against this background in

strong, clear lines. It is plain from the outset that he is not a match for his friend Karstens, the artist, with the traditional egotism and Bohemianism of genius. As a whole the story is a great relief after the pictures of morbid psychology in which Martens formerly indulged.

The reaction is even more distinctly emphasized in a story by Georg von Ompteda, "Normalmenschen," published by the same house. Obeying the voice of duty, the hero, a lieutenant in the army, so normal as to be almost commonplace, renounces an innocent love affair with a girl of humble birth and slender purse, and in the hope of advancement marries a girl of wealth and connections. But his abilities are in no way remarkable, and he is not promoted. The simple, straightforward and unadorned way in which the author tells this story has an indefinable charm. Ompteda is a master in the portrayal of German military types, of the impoverished nobility, and of the unmarried middle-class woman. His style is clear and easy.

Quite another spirit reigns in "Ingeborg," by Bernhard Kellermann (S. Fischer, Berlin), whose previous work, "Yester und Li," challenged attention and caused him to be looked upon as a writer henceforth to be reckoned with. This is a story of sentiment and passion in so fanciful a setting, as to call forth the question, whether it is not a romance of some remote period. There is no breath in it of the workaday world, but a holiday spirit, and an air almost of sanctity. The hero is all purity, justice, and love. The woman is a more tangible creature, a child of nature, a woodman's daughter with the voice and the artistic instincts of her dead mother. Of course there is a third, their friend, a poet, who leaves when he sees danger of disturbing the idyl. Yet the end comes, without bitterness, without jealousy, without a dramatic climax. The tragedy is not in what is done, but in what is felt. The book is a record of intense emotions, of genuine sentiments, but not of nervousness. It is fanciful, perhaps extravagant, but it is sound throughout. There is for the most part a real charm in the author's language, although he sometimes lapses into the *staccato* movement of the modern school.

"Schwuele Tage," by E. von Keyserling (S. Fischer, Berlin), is a volume of three remarkable short stories, amply justifying the title Sultry Days. "The first story 'Harmonie,'" is one of nerves. There are the healthy nerves of the hero, who would enjoy nothing better than a little work in the fields on his own estate; but such work is distasteful to his wife, who has the diseased nerves of her maternal ancestors. The return of the husband to his home, only to find that his wife's ailment has estranged them, is a fine bit of dramatic impressionism. There is grim humor in the description of the family dinners which pass off like important social functions. There is even a suggestion of satire, when the convalescent outlines the programme for the evening: crab soup, snipes, *pain d'ananas*, champagne, twilight in the blue room and the nightingale. Primitive instincts and primitive customs are the burden of the second story, "Die

Soldatenkersta," which depicts humorously one phase of recruit life. The book receives its title from the third story, which like the first begins with a return. A college boy, who has failed in examinations, is forced to spend the summer alone with his father in the large manor house, while mother and sisters are away on their vacation. Father and son had always stood aloof from each other. Now the boy begins to study his progenitor, and in doing so picks up the threads of a romance which links his young cousin to the elderly man. The psychology is subtle, and reminds one of the manner of our Henry James, who as yet has not been discovered in Germany.

Gerhard Ouckama Knoop is a writer of some originality, but there is an irritating diffuseness about his work. "Nedeshda Bachini" (Egon Fleischel & Co., Berlin) is the story of a woman's quest for love, a grotesque Odyssey of errors. Madame is a widow of rather incongruous international descent, her views are broad, and she encounters many adventures, some serious, others humorous, which she duly confesses to a faithful trio of brotherly friends.

A number of books which seem to be the direct products of a Rosegger school have recently appeared. One of these is Max Geissler's "Huetten im Hochland" (L. Staackmann, Leipzig), a splendid story of mountaineer life, near the Bavarian border. Simple life and simple manners—there is nothing complicated about the characters or the plot. The fate of these people runs its straight and plain course, logical as the operation of nature's forces. With their strong untutored instincts they work out their own destiny, be it good or evil. A unique situation is presented in the chapter where Wenz am Kreuz meets the woman who had jilted him to marry another. The hour in which she refused him he had stopped his old clock and never wound it since. Now that she is a widow her matter-of-fact nature sees nothing wrong in openly courting him. But he is of a more delicate fibre and her advances kill the sentiment he has been cherishing for years. There are other interesting glimpses of simple soul life, as for instance the gradual blunting of the moral sense in a child not naturally a criminal. The nature scenes are almost equal to Rosegger's. The stillness and the solitude of this snowbound world are admirably suggested.

The same firm has published a new volume of stories by Rosegger himself, "Wildlinge," which are full of the charm that has endeared the author to readers all over the world. It is the charm of simplicity and sincerity. Rosegger is to-day what he has been from the beginning: a woodland bird singing on in his untutored way and defying the subtle analysis of scholarly critics. So he describes himself in the preface to the new book: "If even to-day I am fond of calling myself the *Waldbauerbub*, it is only to call attention once more to the standard which is to be applied to my work; æsthetically a low one, ethically a high one." So the author, himself, a "wildling"—why not use a direct transcription of the word he has coined?—tells in this volume some stories of his own crude youth, with many a reminis-

cence of scenes and characters long treasured in his memory. Nature finds in him an interpreter of almost solemn seriousness. It is sacred to him, for he sees in it the work of the Creator. "Ein Lied von ewigen Dingen," is indeed a song of things eternal. Others are remarkable for their humor, as the story of Naz, the country tailor, whose apprentice the author had been in his boyhood; and the story of the vagabond known as the *Waldteufel*.

THE INFLUENCE OF WESTERN EUROPE ON SCANDINAVIAN CIVILIZATION.

On the Fomorians and the Norsemen. By Duaid Mac Fírbis. The original Irish text, edited, with translation and notes, by Alexander Bugge. Christiania.

Cathreim Cellachain Caisil: The Victorious Career of Cellachan of Cashel. The original Irish text, edited, with translation and notes, by Alexander Bugge. Christiania.

Vesterlandenes Indflydelse paa Nordboernes ydre Kultur, Levesæt og Samhundsforhold i Vikingetiden. Af Alexander Bugge, Christiania.

Vikingerne: Billeder fra vore Forfædres Liv. I. and II. Af Alexander Bugge. Christiania.

The influence of Christian, and particularly Irish, civilization on the Scandinavian nations during the Viking age has long been a recognized fact, and much valuable work in establishing the extent of this influence has been done by earlier Scandinavian historians, such as the Norwegian P. A. Munch, who, with his wide learning and constructive genius, had a clearer insight into this difficult question than many of his juniors; and the Dane, Steenstrup, who, in his epoch-making work on the "Normans," has thrown a flood of light on the early relations of the Scandinavians with Celts, Franks, and Anglo-Saxons. Yet it was left to the youthful author of the works mentioned at the head of this article to go straight to the fountain-spring, and, by a thorough study of the old Irish language and early Irish texts, to gain the knowledge necessary for an intelligent grasp of the subject.

The first two works named above are editions of Irish historical texts, which, on account of their bearing on Norwegian history, the editor has chosen to render accessible to a larger public by attaching an English translation, together with copious notes. The publication is at the expense of the Norwegian Government. The last work in the list is a popular presentation, in two volumes, of the author's views and conclusions. Written as they are in an easy and interesting vein, these essays describe the social and political evolution of Scandinavia in a period which has not before been treated in a way at once scientific and popular. Several of them, indeed, touching important phases of early English history, deserve translation into English.

After the return of Fridtjof Nansen from his polar expedition there was subscribed in Norway "The Fridtjof Nansen Fund for the Promotion of Science," which offered its first prize for a work upon the influence of western Europe on early Scandinavian, particularly Norwegian, civilization. This

induced the composition of the third work under review. The author is the son of the philologist, Prof. Sophus Bugge, and is himself a professor of history in the University of Christiania, having succeeded to the chair left vacant by the death of Prof. Gustav Storm. In about 400 octavo pages he examines the influence of western European civilization during the Viking Period on public administration (the royal power) in Norway, as well as, less exhaustively, in Sweden and Denmark, on dress, ornamentation and furniture, on commerce, ships and shipbuilding, as well as on the art of war, agriculture and cattle-raising, coinage, and pictorial art. A final chapter treats the Norwegian colonies in Iceland and the Faroe Islands, and the influence of Irish and Anglo-Saxon civilization.

Professor Bugge shows that Harold the Fairhaired, in establishing a centralized royal power in united Norway, was guided by the example of Charlemagne and his successors as well as by that of the Anglo-Saxon kings; and that this foreign influence exerted itself not only on the political but also on the social arrangement of his administration and his court. Thus, his surrounding himself with a number of court skalds, or poets laureate, was in all probability due to Irish court customs, with which he and Norwegians generally must have been familiar through the connection between the people at home and the Norwegian kingdom in Dublin, then established for more than a generation, and ruled over by kings closely related to Harold himself. In many respects we are compelled to modify our former opinion of the Vikings as pirates and outlaws, a scourge to the countries visited by them. They came to western Europe not solely on warfare bent, but more often as merchants, bringing the goods of southern and western Europe to the shores of the Baltic and the trading-places of Russia, and again bearing staples of the Orient to western Europe. Norsemen taught other European nations the art of sailing the open sea without putting into port over night, as had been the custom heretofore. Although the Vikings were good fighters, they had much to learn in scientific warfare from the nations whose lands and cities they devastated; the employment of cavalry, in particular, they borrowed from their adversaries. In the same way they borrowed not only the art of fortifying cities—an art which the Norsemen in their turn introduced into Ireland—but also that of besieging and assaulting fortified cities scientifically.

Coinage was unknown in Scandinavia before the Viking period, the imitations of Roman and other coins which were previously produced having served merely as ornaments, not as a circulating medium. The first money coined by a Scandinavian seems to have been that bearing the stamp of the Danish sea-king Halfdan, one of Lodbrok's sons, coined during his sojourn with the great Viking army at London (871-872); but apparently the mint masters were Frankish rather than Anglo-Saxon.

Coming to ornament, particularly on the runic stones, of which many have been preserved, chiefly in Sweden, it appears that these stones present striking similarities to Christian stone monuments in England,

and above all in the Isle of Man, which was conquered by the Norsemen, and where traces of Norwegian language and institutions are still found. This artistic influence may have exerted itself through peaceful trade connections which existed from a very early period between the Swedish town Birka (now Björkö in the Mälars Lake) via Gotland, on one side, and English and Frisian cities (especially Dorestad, whose coins are found in great numbers in Gotland and on the mainland of Sweden) on the other.

Taken as a whole, the works here briefly reviewed bear eloquent testimony to the learning, industry, and talent of the young author, *filiius præclaro patre dignus*.

OSCAR WILDE.

The Life of Oscar Wilde. By R. H. Sherard. London: T. Werner Laurie; New York: Mitchell Kennerley.

Whether there is any *raison d'être* or not for a life of Oscar Wilde, the writing of such a biography is, at all events, attended with unusual difficulty. What can be told about the man, is already pretty well known, and there is little enough of it at best; whereas what is generally unknown, cannot be told at all. The result is that such a biography, as far as it is not impertinent, must be either a rather vague and unsubstantial apology, or else a bold and dashing denunciation. Of these alternatives, Mr. Sherard has chosen the former, and under the circumstances the choice is rather unfortunate. Not that Mr. Sherard is a partisan exactly; he is disposed to be fair and judicial. But as there is so much, in the nature of the case, to be suppressed, so much, too, which can be only alluded to, his book has a decided air of whitewashing. Nor is the effect entirely the fault of the subject and the circumstances. Mr. Sherard's tones are not quite clear; his moral philosophy is not quite robust and direct enough for the terrible problem of human responsibility and error with which he has to deal; while he is still further confused by the distracting hubbub of creed and opinion which constantly dins the ears of the modern critic. As an apologist he is always in a frightful dilemma. He has to save his author's wits at the expense of his character, or his character at the expense of his wits. So, for example, he represents Oscar Wilde the aesthete as no such fool as he seemed, but as merely posing for notoriety, playing "a double-faced rôle" for the sake of the advertising he might get out of it:

He knew . . . little about painting, and in the matter of furniture, tapestries, wall papers, and architecture he was no more of a *connoisseur* than is any man who assimilates the current modes and the chatter of the arbiters. It is a fact that music bored him; it is a fact that he had no knowledge of any instrument; it is probable that he could with difficulty distinguish one tune from another. Yet he was forced to pose as a *connoisseur*, and to speak and write about musicians and music with the air of one who was profoundly versed in all the technicalities of the art.

While on the other hand he seeks to excuse the errors of later life by a "psychopathia" analogous to that of the drunk-

ard who is unconscious and irresponsible with regard to his worst acts:

After each crisis Oscar Wilde seems to have been totally unconscious of having done anything bad, detestable, shameful, or even unusual. Under no other condition could he have maintained the serene and tranquil dignity which stamped him in his sane moments. . . . Such consummate dissimulation, where it is not hypocrisy—and Oscar Wilde was no hypocrite, could not be a hypocrite, was too arrogant to be a hypocrite—is invariably the concomitant of the worst forms of madness.

And this of the man who has been represented as a master of duplicity, playing his part for an easy celebrity!

But the moral confusion and obliquity are increased by the writer's scientific pretensions. "It is such a pity," he complains in the midst of this very passage just quoted, "that people, because they are still under the stupid domination of the Church, will not approach these matters in a purely scientific spirit." It does not seem to occur to him that it is for the specialist alone that "these matters" are properly scientific; for most of us they are still moral matters, after all. And it is for this reason that his explanation of Oscar Wilde's unpopularity with the respectable is so erroneous, scientific though it may be:

There is much of the moping owl in a large section of our stolid Britishry, and people of that category dislike nothing more intensely than the man of radio-activity who bustles into the stagnate area of their gelid dullness, and interferes with their somnolent eupepsia. To be forced to think, to be forced to laugh, to be taught things, in one word to be interfered with. No! No! No!

This may not be a favorable specimen of Mr. Sherard's science or of his English, but it is fairly illustrative of the insecurity of both; while as a consequence of all these causes of confusion he falls into a very unpleasant and misleading ambiguity of tone with respect to his subject in general. Oscar Wilde may have been a great talker; and, in default of any very large or solid literary residuum, it may be fair to argue that his reputation as a wit should rest mainly on that basis. But it is hardly decent, in such a connection, after remarking that "the greatest philosophers, the men who gave new religions to the world, did not write; they talked," to ask, "Did Christ write, did Mahound write, did Socrates write?" nor does it seem precisely in character to make the judgment of such a man a subject of unqualified pathos. At the same time, it should seem, there can be no doubt about Oscar Wilde's charm when at his best, no question about his unusual gifts—and the writer has done well to set them in a strong light. But with all that there is moral confusion enough in the world already without extending it to so plain a case.

The True Story of Paul Revere. By Charles Ferris Gettemy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50 net.

It is one thing to break an image—a highly popular image—and another to piece it together again in a half-relucting way, and set it up on a pedestal of one's own restoration. All this, and more, Mr. Gettemy has done, for the cracks and seams

exposed in the character of Paul Revere do but render this worthy man more appreciable, humanly and historically, while his legendary virtues sink advantageously away.

North End reared and taught, Revere was a seasoned Bostonian before the years of his true importance came to him on the threshold of middle life. He had by then followed his father's trade of gold and silver-smithing, served as a soldier, been bound over to keep the peace for assault and battery, dealt in artificial teeth, and displayed some proficiency in copper-engraving, which he used in caricature, supplementing his art with the least notable of his various achievements, patriotic verse. Dating from the Stamp Act period, Revere's training in Boston affairs for some years had been shaping him into a revolutionist of a distinct type. A Freemason, a Son of Liberty, with a relish for the mystery and excitement of secret meetings and town caucuses, he was so imbued with the spirit of American politics and its invariable demand for the *quid pro quo*, that we may allow ourselves to wonder to what heights he might have risen, or to what depths sunk, had it been Paul Revere's fate to live a hundred years later. As early as 1773 he was known in the doggerel of the hour as "bold Revere," and was ready, no doubt, in spite of the burden of a large family, for any venture which promised a risk. He began to carry messages from the Committees of Correspondence between Boston and New York, and even Philadelphia. "Steady, vigorous, sensible, and persevering," as Dr. Thomas Young called him, he did this work effectively and gained repute thereby.

Mr. Gettemy's interpretation of the Midnight Ride is not Mr. Longfellow's; but there is no destruction in his conclusion that Revere's ride of April 16, to inform Hancock and Adams that the British were planning an expedition, probably to seize the stores at Concord, vied in importance with that more famous enterprise of two nights later.

Left a widower with a well-filled quiver and soon remarried, Revere now began to make his service as a courier of patriotism profitable toward the support of his family; but, alas for the brightness of his laurels! his bills were not always audited for the amounts charged. The Massachusetts Council cut his account for riding from five to four shillings a day, and even shaved his bill for printing money for the army. Mr. Gettemy cites other instances where the Government held that this patriotism of many occupations was charging too high prices. Used to trading, it is probable that Revere regarded these financial criticisms as quite in the ordinary way of business, for there is no record of any protest against the economical moods of those who employed him; in fact, his true patriotism may have begun where his commercial spirit knew when it was best to stop.

Of the several adverse happenings in his career, the severest was the charge against him of disobedience and neglect during the Penobscot Expedition under General Lovell and Commodore Saltonstall—an expedition as inglorious as the march of the noble Duke of York. Inactivity and desertion

marked its short campaign. Persistently demanding a court-martial, Revere finally received this doubtful privilege, and was definitely if not triumphantly acquitted of the stigma of dishonorable conduct. Cowardice was so little in accord with his general character, that this verdict of a friendly court will probably satisfy the demands of historic scrutiny. As a soldier Revere made no mark; he was probably too pronounced a personality for customary discipline, though well fitted for adventure; his fame must rest on brilliant episodes.

The war over, Revere, failing to get the coveted reward of heroes—a public office—returned to the making of an honest livelihood. Mr. Gettemy says that Revere manufactured gunpowder during the Revolution. This is a mistake. He did, however, supervise the making of powder by one Evedon, and purchased it for the Government. From powder to the founding of cannon was not a long step, but it led to the establishment of a business substantial and creditable to the Revere family. Identified with all common interests of his day, with a fondness for civic prominence, it was natural for Paul Revere to shine in the ranks of freemasonry and to "belong" to various associations peculiar to the taste of the average citizen. He survived the War of 1812, during which he volunteered the service of his fourscore years to help throw up fortifications. He died a few years later, with blemishes forgotten, receiving honors according to his deserts. Mr. Gettemy's reserved but commendable study does not probe deep, but it is truthful and scrupulous in its intent. He has not, however, over-stated his indebtedness to E. H. Goss's previous work. A suitable index, attractive half-tones, and Stuart's portrait of his subject, add to the value of the present volume.

The Diary of William Bentley, D. D., Pastor of the East Church, Salem, Mass. Volume 1. April 1784—December, 1792. Salem: The Essex Institute.

William Bentley was a man well known and widely honored in his day. He died in 1819, in his sixty-first year, after a pastorate of thirty-six years, leaving a vast volume of manuscript remains, including sermons, letters, notes on natural history, meteorological observations, parish records, and his diary. A few sermons and addresses were published during his life, and selections from his historical notes have appeared in print from time to time. But his most important work, his diary, has remained in the archives of the American Antiquarian Society of Worcester. By the cooperation of this society and the Essex Institute of Salem, the first volume, covering a period of eight years, has now been published in a substantial octavo of five hundred pages. It is prefaced with a brief biographical sketch, prepared by the late Judge Joseph G. Waters, which recalls Dr. Bentley's extraordinary linguistic attainments, his love of scientific and historical pursuits, and the high esteem in which he was held by his own people, as well as by Presidents Adams and Jefferson, each of whom pressed him to accept high office. But the diary is better than any biography as a revealer of his true life.

A diary, to be sure, is a dangerous thing for the reputation of its writer, especially if he resolve, as Bentley did, to write something every day in the year; and it may be questioned if it is fair to proclaim upon the housetops what a man said to himself in the secret place of his diary. The excellent Nathaniel Rogers, minister of Ipswich, required of his executor that he should burn his diary, evidently fearing the posthumous revelation of his inmost life to a critical world. A deal of Dr. Bentley's had been more wisely burned than published. It is a vast conglomeration of very miscellaneous material. Much of it is of trifling significance, stories of excursions to neighboring towns, his fishing and bathing in the harbor, and commonplace annals of a quiet town. Much is gossipy and frivolous, tales of his tea-drinkings and his petty variance with his landlady and newsmongers. He had a passion for minutiae, and endless industry in recording names, figures, and facts. He thought highly of his own talents as poet, scholar, and critic at large, and his diary parades his deliverances as the obsequious Boswell recorded the sayings of the great Dr. Johnson. He had a pedantic way of narrating some of his commonplaces in Latin or French, strangely jumbled with snatches of poetry, sage moral reflections, and briefs of letters. As a literary composition, all this will prove a weariness of the flesh to the reader.

Nevertheless, this robust, Johnsesque parish minister is a very entertaining figure, a strong, kindly, though often sharp-tongued, man among men. He has preserved a vivid and valuable picture of the church life. With loving attention to the smallest detail, he wrote down the names of all the people of his parish and much of their history. Hot religious bickerings were the order of the day. Young Bentley was a warm advocate of the new Unitarian creed. Universalism and Methodism were rising up in sharp rivalry with the old Puritan faith. Anabaptists, New Lights, and "Hopkintonians" were asserting themselves. Apostles of the new order were abroad on itinerating tours. There were controversial disputes in the newspapers. The diary reveals its writer as fond of disputation, but his sharpness and rancor were probably typical of the spirit of the day. Jesse Lee, the famous Methodist, preached one evening in Salem. Bentley's verdict was, that he "so generally disgusted a large audience that he has finished his work in this town." In a newspaper article he replied to "the infamous Cleveland of Ipswich" (the Chebacco parish, now Essex), who had been calumniating the Universalists. "A more hardened wretch," he says, "scarcely ever appeared." The Anabaptists were upon the river in Beverly "immersing their disciples in water and ignorance." He rejoices in everything that is opposed to Calvinism and tends to shake "the abominable doctrine of the Trinity."

Bentley's chronicles of the town are of great interest. He went about the streets remarking on the houses and other buildings and investigating the sites of ancient homes. He frequented the shipyards and the wharves. Political affairs, too, interested him. He deplored the prevalence of lotteries, which were resorted to by the State and by towns in behalf of measures of public improvement.

When the small-pox epidemic appeared in 1792, he began at once careful observations of the value of the newly discovered inoculation. Taking large personal risks he visited hospitals, preached there on Sundays, and recorded full details of the progress of the disease. We admire this fine abandon of the man of gown and bands. We honor the scholastic spirit that led him to resolve "to insert a criticism of every work printed in America, within my knowledge, and as much of its American history as is convenient."

The genealogist will find much of value in the endless lists of names and vital statistics. The local antiquarian will welcome the topographical notes. A larger public will find beneath the pedantries, the trivialities, the jealousies, the strong life of an earnest, laborious, large-souled and sympathetic man.

Gothic Architecture in England: An Analysis of the Origin and Development of English Architecture from the Norman Conquest to the Dissolution of the Monasteries. By Francis Bond, M.A., Lincoln College, Oxford. With 1,254 illustrations, comprising 785 photographs, Sketches, and Measured Drawings, and 469 Plans, Sections, Diagrams, and Mouldings. Pp. xxii, 782. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1906. \$12 net.

This is a scholar's book. It is a very large octavo, having, besides the preface, a rather full introduction, a "Chronology of English Churches," twenty pages long, an index to illustrations, an index of places, and an "Index of Subject-matter and Glossary." Besides the illustrations in the body of the work there is a series of plates of spires, a series of plans of piers and sections through arches and ribs, similar sections through ground courses and "springs," sections through the jambs of doorways and jambs and mullions of windows; and in these are given an immense number of those mouldings which are made of so great account in the chronology of English Gothic Architecture. It is, we repeat, a scholar's book. The material is drawn from a thousand sources; the illustrations from the old books, Brandon, Sharpe, Pugin, Parker, Colling, Johnson, Wickes, and the rest, and from many recent writers as well; the text from many authorities, who are here recognized fully and balanced one against another. There is no pretence of original knowledge, like that which we had to reckon with in the case of Mr. Bloomfield's book recently reviewed in these columns; no claim of that exemption from ordinary rules of literary production which is sometimes asserted for the practised artist, less familiar with criticism than with production.

One approach only to practical knowledge is claimed by Mr. Bond: his work with photography. Indeed, he says that "it has been the writer's pleasant task to visit nearly every important church in England, camera in hand." This work with the camera means a great deal of observation, a great deal of prying into details, the constant exercise of choice with regard to points of view and the truest effectiveness of a composition. And so the

author has been able to study his subject, no doubt, while photography has also made it possible to include the wealth of illustration advertised in the title.

A chapter is devoted to definitions, and the reader plunges at once into that controversy with Mr. Bond's predecessors in the field, which is hardly to be avoided in a book pretending to encyclopædic fulness. Mr. Bond is sure that "architecture is the art of building in general," and will not hear of any limited definitions more restrained because intended to be more accurate. However, the precise definition of such great and comprehensive terms is as nearly impossible as any intellectual task can be. The word Romanesque is taken up, and Quicherat's perfect and logical definition is dismissed at once (p. 6) as not explaining the whole body of the art—seven centuries at one effort and in twenty words. Then there is given the definition of Anshyme St. Paul, which is ingenious and critical, and embodies a brief history of early Christian architecture. Then come Viollet-le-Duc's words about Romanesque, which are also historically accurate if not quite comprehensive enough, and this last formula is accepted by Mr. Bond, if we understand his meaning aright. But even here there is doubt, because a footnote admits the extreme uncertainty which we know to exist as to whether the term Romanesque should cover many schools, East and West, or one school only. These doubts, once stated, leave us ready to receive the impression of quite infinite uncertainty as to the meaning of Gothic; yet we welcome so much of certainty as that which binds the Gothic style inseparably to Romanesque as being the greater and more refined thing to which the cruder style led up.

Chapter II. deals with the characteristics of Romanesque; four chapters deal with the characteristics of English Gothic; fifty pages in Chapter VII. present a "chronological history of the greater English churches" (a matter quite separate from the list of dated buildings mentioned above); and so with p. 145 begins Part II., and that which would seem to be the real subject of the book. This part, divided into 34 chapters and containing 500 pages, is a very complete analysis of mediæval church architecture in England; and the reader is reminded that the secondary title, as given above, limits the subject to the English churches for four centuries and a half. This analysis is pushed so far that the pillar or pier is treated as a principal subject in two chapters, and elsewhere in connection with the vault; that the vault itself, with its buttresses, takes up seven chapters, and that other chapters are specially told off for the minor constructional elements on the one hand, and on the other hand for the great features of the plan—the choir, the nave, the galilee, the transept, eastern and western, the porch and the Chantry Chapel.

We have, then, an all-embracing work like a cyclopædia of a special subject, but arranged logically instead of by alphabetical sequence. The danger here, as in other cyclopædias, is of omitting very important considerations. How can the author and compiler be sure that every important form of window-tracery and every

important element in its growth and decline has been thought of and presented in its proper place? How can he guarantee it, and how can the reader feel assured that the mediæval capital, for instance, has been fully analyzed? These questions, however, are of little importance to those who consider that here is an enormous amount of matter, rather novel in its sources and certainly novel in its arrangement; that all this matter is made fairly easy of access by indices; and that, under any circumstances he, the student, would have to turn to other books—that no one work contains all the information which might reasonably be asked for.

Greek Theories of Elementary Cognition. By John I. Beare. Henry Frowde.

Greek psychology, in the sense of the doctrine of the "Soul," is treated at large in the voluminous but uncritical work of Chaignet. Without committing himself to any dogma of "psychology without a soul," Professor Beare, of the University of Dublin, has seen that "Greek Theories of Elementary Cognition from Alcmaeon to Aristotle" is a much more definite and profitable topic of study. As respects the ultimate problems of epistemology and the relation of mind to body the progress of science has added little to the speculations of the Greeks; and Plato's "Theætetus," rightly interpreted, says the last word far more effectively than either the physiological psychologists or the neo-Kantians of to-day can say it. It is still true that we do not, strictly speaking, see with the eye or hear with the ear, but through them. It is still "a monstrous supposition that a mob of sense-perceptions sits within us (like the Greeks in the Trojan Horse) not unified by the apperception of some central form, call it soul or what you will."

What Professor Beare has done is to set forth the theory of the five senses as it appears in Alcmaeon, Empedocles, Democritus, Anaxagoras, Diogenes of Apollonia, Plato, and Aristotle, supplemented by a discussion of the common features of sensation in general, and the Aristotelian doctrine of the *sensus communis*. The texts of the Pre-Socratics were already collected for him in Diels' "Doxographi" and "Vorsokratiker." He has translated, paraphrased, and explained the relevant passages, and so provided an interpretation which scholars must consider, and a trustworthy book of reference for those who cannot use the originals. More interesting in continuous perusal are the concluding chapters on sensation in general and the *sensus communis*, which present the substance of the Platonic and Aristotelian psychology with the omission of Plato's "proofs" of immortality, and the hopeless controversy concerning Aristotle's doctrine of the noetic soul.

Judicious as these limitations and the attempted exclusion of epistemology may be, the result is a somewhat distorted impression of the true relation of Plato to Aristotle and of the real character of the Aristotelian philosophy. Professor Beare may not share, but his book will confirm, the prevailing idea that as Aristotle undoubtedly had more of the scientist's patient enthusiasm for detail than his master, so his thought is more truly scientific than Plato's.

Yet in fact Aristotle's acceptance of the heart as the sensory centre is a distinct retrogression from Plato's teaching, and his doctrine of a common sensory is not so near the truth as we apprehend it, as is Plato's reference of the intellectual and universal element in sense-perception to the synthesis of the mind. The rigid separation of synthesis in sense perception from the synthesis of thought categories is the chief error of Kant, or of one interpretation of Kant. As Professor Beare himself admits (p. 260), "no psychologist has ever been able to answer satisfactorily the question where sense perception ends and thinking commences." Why, then, should he treat Aristotle's confused and inconsistent theory of a common sensory as a distinct advance upon Plato? The historical importance of the doctrine justifies the interesting chapter which Mr. Beare devotes to it. But only the *à priori* superstition of progress can treat it as a real step in advance.

Mr. Beare's scholarship is sound: He challenges Diels not unsuccessfully in the interpretation of Empedocles, and proposes (p. 321) an ingenious if unprovable solution of the well known *crux* in "De Memoria," 452b, 17-24. He rarely errs unless it be where doubt is permissible. On page 51 the reference of *ἐκείνων παθήματα* in Tim. 67c. seq. should be not to *τοῖς τῆς ὄψεως μέρεσιν*, but to *τὰ φερόμενα . . . μόρια ἐπιπίπτοντα*. Compare Tim. 43c. *τὰ τῶν προσπιπτόντων παθήματα*, and 61c. *τὰ δὲ παθήματα αὐτῶν*. The useful bibliography shows that Mr. Beare has studied the literature of his subject. He strangely overlooks Rodier's monumental edition of the "De Anima," a reference to which would have helped his interpretation of the technical term *μεσότης* which Zeller misapprehends.

The Religion of Numa, and Other Essays on the Religion of Ancient Rome. By Jesse Benedict Carter. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.

The five essays of this little volume aim to give merely an outline sketch of the development of Roman religion, from the earliest period accessible to modern research down to the death of Augustus. As a pupil and admirer of Georg Wissowa, Professor Carter bases his work on the results of careful research, and has supplied a much-needed introduction to the more extended and difficult literature of the subject. While accepting in general his correction of current misconceptions concerning the various accretions upon the primitive Roman faith, from Greek, Egyptian, and Asiatic sources, one may question whether the effect of these accretions was so wholly bad as the author seems to regard them. Dr. Samuel Dill has well emphasized the fact that certain of these Eastern cults had in them elements of a higher spiritual life than could be developed out of the older Roman faith unaided, and that the Roman tendency to resort to them was often the result of a genuine soul-hunger for just this higher side, and not for the demoralizing features associated with it. To the introduction of Apollo, probably from Southern Italy, towards the close of the kingdom, is attributed the later arrival of the Sibylline superstition, with all its harmful accompaniments. Was the welcome of the Sibyl, however, really the cause of the religious degradation so

naturally associated with it in thought, or was the Sibyl seized upon as an appropriate tool for deteriorating forces already effectively at work? It is somewhat like the question whether Americans take to drink because so many foreigners keep saloons, or whether so many foreigners keep saloons because Americans take to drink.

The chapter on the religious renaissance promoted by Augustus is deficient in its dealing with the literary phase of the Emperor's efforts. The extended building and repair of temples, with rigid Imperial attention to the demands of official worship, could do much on the formal side, but, so far as there was any genuine religious life in this renaissance, its awakening was more largely due to a few of the great literary men to whose genius the Imperial court gave encouragement and direction. Professor Carter assigns an important place to Virgil in this field, but the work of Horace is strangely neglected. It is easy to think of Horace as an easy-going man of the world, fairly moral for his age, though caring little for the deeper phases of moral truth; but such is not a correct conception of him. When one reads his entire work with proper attention to the chronology of its composition, assigns much of the lighter part of it to its true Greek origin, and takes at its face value the large proportion which deals sensibly and seriously with actual conditions and springs from the depths of the poet's heart, he will recognize in Horace an instrument as peculiarly fitted to promote the religious policy of Augustus in the lyric field as was Virgil in the epic. No account of the religious movement of the time can be well balanced if it takes no note of him, especially when such evidently inferior religious forces as Tibullus and Propertius are mentioned. We accept as some redress for the grievance of this omission, however, the author's full recognition of that strong and steady undercurrent of genuine though uneventful religious life which flowed right on beneath the surface during the entire period—the solid, though comparatively unthinking, religious and moral basis upon which alone any religious reform, in any land or age, must build.

Journal de L'Estoile: Extraits publiés avec une Notice Bibliographique par Armand Brette, et précédés d'une Introduction par Edme Champion. Paris: Armand Colin. 1906.

M. Champion evidently believes that popular illusions about the "good old times" are not to be classed with harmless errors, but rank among those baneful superstitions which retard the advance of mankind. In his selections from the correspondence of Gui Patin he showed the seamy side of French life during the best days of Louis XIV., and he now draws further illustrations of savagery and ignorance from the period of the later Valois. There are, indeed, other reasons for presenting the memoirs of Pierre de l'Estoile in reduced form, since the original work occupies twelve volumes and is marked by a certain monotony of style which will always prevent it from becoming a rival of Brantôme or Saint-Simon. We feel sure, however, that the present editor is not simply concerned to present, for the sake of vulgar-

ization, a selection of passages from a forgotten author.

A special motive becomes manifest as soon as one has read the last part of the introduction, a chapter wherein M. Champion discusses the French Revolution in the light of the League. La Harpe contended that the Revolution, by virtue of its monstrosities, formed a unique epoch in history, and for the last century this statement has been reiterated by popular writers of every rank from Jephson to Taine. What particularly disturbs M. Champion is the allegation that the excesses of the Terror are ascribable to the philosophical writers of the eighteenth century. When, for example, the Abbé Maury maintains that, truly considered, the execution of Louis XVI. is the work of the Philosophers, he is unable to quote passages from Rousseau or Diderot in favor of regicide simply because they do not exist. On the other hand, the most superficial knowledge of sixteenth-century literature shows how the theologians of the League cited the Bible to justify the murder of Henry III. We select a single passage to indicate how M. Champion stands in this matter as against the clericals who hold up the French Revolution to the execration of mankind.

When L'Estoile writes: "It is the ordinary practice of a Leaguer and the infallible sign of a zealous Catholic always to have the mass and religion on his lips, brigandage at his heart, blood and murder on his hands"; when he adds that "the most execrable parricides and assassinations are deemed miracles and works of God," that the preachers excite popular insolence and fury by their attacks upon the King, whom they style a dog, a tyrant, a heretic (thus making him hated by the crowd), he has under his eyes "placards published at Paris, printed with the license of the Holy Union, seen and approved by doctors of theology."

Moreover, these are not the statements and comments of a Huguenot. L'Estoile was a Catholic.

The "Journal" itself is a most valuable document, and the way in which M. Champion uses it furnishes a striking illustration of the animosity existing between the clericals and liberals of modern France. L'Estoile, like L'Hospital, belonged to the third party, the party of the Politiques, who viewed the recriminations of Leaguers and Huguenots in the spirit made known to us by Montaigne. The passages here brought together are a gruesome revelation of what can be done when the cause of religion is made a cloak for party hatred. Many people think of Vassy and Saint-Bartholomew as isolated episodes, though not only was the spirit which prompted massacres present in France for a whole generation, but there is hardly any break in the chain of atrocities from the beginning of the first civil war under Charles IX. to the accession of Henry IV. Voltaire thought L'Estoile an over-credulous chronicler of the gossip he got in the street. This criticism has some force, but only as it affects details of the "Journal." The record, as a whole, was made in good faith by a man of moderate spirit who hated the excesses of the Huguenots no less than those of the Leaguers. For the historian it is a vast magazine of social facts; to the aspiring but discontented citizen it furnishes a cheering standard of contrast.

Papers of the Military Historical Society of Massachusetts. Vol. V.: Petersburg, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

This collection of papers read before the Military Historical Society of Massachusetts is, like most collections of the sort, of unequal value. One series, however, making up about one-half of the volume and dealing with the events that passed between Grant's repulse at Cold Harbor and the failure to take Petersburg two weeks later, is of exceptional interest and value. Of the seven contributors to this page of history three deserve special mention: Gen. W. F. Smith, who failed to take Petersburg and here makes his defence; John C. Ropes, who states the case with his usual clearness and method; Col. Lyman, who, with his racy observation and keen sense of humor, gives us the best reading in the volume.

Several points are brought out by these papers for which one would search our histories and even the War Records in vain; let us take them in order of date. After Lee had thrown back the Federal army at Cold Harbor, Grant's first move of importance was to detach Sheridan with the cavalry corps on a raid to the west of Richmond. As a raid this movement accomplished nothing, but it had an indirect result that nearly proved of decisive importance, though there is no evidence to show whether or not Grant foresaw this. On Lee's finding that the Federal cavalry was raiding in his rear, he detached the bulk of his own cavalry under Wade Hampton to check the movement; the absence of his cavalry led to his failing to keep in touch with the remarkable advance that Grant began on the 12th of June, five days after Sheridan had been detached—a fact that nearly cost Lee Petersburg and Richmond.

Having made up his mind that nothing more could be done to the north of Richmond, Grant decided to carry his army across the James and to attack the Confederate capital from the south. In this movement there were two notable features, first, the transportation problem; secondly, the offensive climax of the operations. The transportation problem was solved splendidly in every detail, for in three days over 100,000 men with long trains of wagons and great herds of cattle—and with Robert Lee on their immediate flank—were marched fifty miles, crossing one small river, the Chickahominy, and one great estuary, the James. On this problem Grant had successfully concentrated all his wonderful abilities; but did he as carefully work out the details of the military operation that should have crowned this great manœuvre? The answer appears to be that at this point Grant fell short of the highest standards, and that his measures were only half measures, lacking that thoroughness of detail which carries success.

The passing of the army across the James was but a means to an end, a means to attack the Confederates in a position more vulnerable than that occupied by Lee at Cold Harbor. That position was Petersburg, twenty miles south of Richmond, where several lines of rail converged from the South and West. Now Petersburg was all but denuded of troops. Lee was bound to

mass every available man against the main Federal army, and, what was more, he believed until late in the afternoon of the 17th that Grant was still to the north of the James River. For two days, therefore, Grant was in a position to concentrate overwhelming numbers against Petersburg, but the efforts he made all failed.

Space will not permit an examination of the various causes of the failure to take Petersburg; only three of them must receive brief notice. First, it may be concluded that in June, 1864, Grant had not yet attained the clear perception of the best tactical employment of massed cavalry that he displayed in April, 1865. Had Sheridan's corps been in the van instead of Hancock's, W. F. Smith would certainly have been reinforced in the afternoon of the 15th in time to complete the partial success he had won and to carry Petersburg. Secondly, the dual arrangement whereby Meade commanded the army and Grant commanded Meade, was a false one and had a bad tendency. Thirdly, the staff and higher command was insufficiently organized and improperly selected. It makes one hot with indignation, even now, half a century after the events, to think that, after three years of terrific fighting, it was possible that political corruption and moral cowardice should still be sending to their death brave men under an incompetent grafter like Butler or a drunken coward like Ledlie, described by his own officers as "lying on the ground in a drunken stupor," or "soliciting and obtaining whiskey to stimulate his courage while his division was fighting at the front." Is it any wonder that Grant's plans sometimes failed when their execution was entrusted to such men? And the question of staff organization is nearly akin. Devoted and able officers made serious blunders owing to their lack of a proper staff education, as, for instance, in the matter of Hancock's orders on the 15th of June and in that of the handling of the information as to the state of supply of the Second Corps—a decisive fact, as a trained staff officer would have known.

In conclusion, the Society may be congratulated on a carefully prepared and valuable volume.

The Reformation in England. By S. R. Maitland. Illustrated. New York: John Lane Company. 1906. \$1.50 net.

This book, although the publishers do not note the fact, is a reprint of a series of essays written more than sixty years ago for the old *British Magazine* and issued afterward (1849) with additions and modifications by the Rev. S. R. Maitland, who died in 1866. The essays, owing to their technical character, have been less popular than Maitland's "Dark Ages"; but until a recent revival of interest in Maitland's writings resulted in a reprint of both volumes, even "The Dark Ages," long out of print, was known to modern students of mediæval history chiefly through references in bibliographies.

Maitland was a man of books rather than of affairs, a writer of great learning, who for many years was librarian at Lambeth Palace, and missed a bishopric mainly because of his eager championship of what he believed to be true both historically and theologically. He was especially gifted with

critical acumen, loved an honest controversy, and proved a dangerous opponent to those whose zeal outran their knowledge. As a critic, he was in advance of his time, for he lived in an age when men were either unwilling, or not sufficiently interested, to test the truth of the ecclesiastical histories then current, and when evidences of credulity and partisanship were likely to be found in such works. "The Dark Ages," he said, "were dark only to those who would not understand them"; and he might have added with truth that other accepted views continued to be erroneous because men would not take the trouble to test them by impartial criticism. Though a loyal and orthodox Anglican, he was almost the first Protestant writer in England to do full justice to the work and influence of the Roman Church in the early Middle Ages. He had a delightful sense of humor, a pleasant style that in his essays becomes almost conversational. He was one of the kindest of men, and, like the late Prof. York Powell, opened freely his stores of knowledge to all who sought him with serious intent.

His "Essays on the Reformation in England" are really studies in historical evidence—the evidence of men like Fox, Strype, Burnett, Paget, and others, whose writings up to that time had been the main source of information for much of the history of the Early Reformation in England. Except for two volumes of State Papers published in 1830, there existed in Maitland's day no official documents of the sixteenth century in print, and writers on the Reformation had to depend on the writings and chronicles of participators and partisans, such as Joye, Greene, Bale, Fox, Knox, and Bradford, either contemporary or nearly contemporary with the events they narrated. Maitland analyzes this evidence with great skill, running to earth exaggerations, noting omissions and suppressions, inconsistencies and contradictions, and laying stress upon instances of deliberate falsification, ribaldry, and political bias. He deals with Calvinist, Anglican, and Roman Catholic alike, and displays no small amount of courage in charging the enemies of the Church of Rome with distortion, trickery, and deceit, particularly in matters relating to the career of Bishop Gardiner and the Marian persecution. Such an outspoken and fearless defence of truth did not increase his popularity among his Protestant brethren, and in part cost him preferment, but it has given him high rank among English historians. The influence of these essays upon the writing of the history of the English Reformation has been great, but so mild and unoffending are they that it is not easy for us, in the presence of modern historical criticism, to understand their revolutionary character. They are deserving of reprinting, not only for their own sake, but also as a tribute to the ability and learning of a great English scholar.

Hawaiian Yesterdays: Chapters from a Boy's Life in the Islands in the Early Days. By Henry M. Lyman, M.D. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1906. 8°, pp. xii., 281. Ills.

This is the story of a son of a missionary to Hawaii. The father, a Connecticut boy, educated at Williams College and Andover

Seminary, married a Vermont girl, Sarah Joiner in 1831. A few weeks later, with eight other young couples in similar case, they sailed from New Bedford on the long voyage around the Horn. After six months they arrived at Honolulu, and were allotted to the island of Hawaii, where, among the resident missionaries already on the spot, they could learn the language and prepare themselves for their future duties. Ten months after their marriage they began housekeeping in a native house, built chiefly of bamboo and thatched with cane-leaves.

The original idea of the Board was, that its missionaries were sent out for life, that they should live in houses like those of the natives, and subsist upon the coarse and unfamiliar native fare. After much consequent suffering, the managers at Boston finally perceived the poor economy of thus sending educated and capable men and women to inevitable disability and premature death. They began to send lumber for the erection of sanitary and civilized dwellings, and medical men to look after the health of their colonists. Mrs. Lyman suffered seriously from the conditions under which she was obliged to live; her first child did not survive, and the health of the second, the author of this attractive little volume, was for some time trembling in the balance. The book recounts the boy's memories from the time when he could first appreciate his surroundings, to the period when he left the islands with a view to entering an American university and acquiring a professional education.

Those familiar with the conditions of missionary life in such situations at that early day do not need to be told that luxury and selfishness formed no part of it. Others, who have listened to the criticisms of sailors and commercial adventurers, may find their conceptions of that life acceptably cleared by reading this book. A society which produced, for example, an Armstrong of Hampton in the second generation, stands in need of no defence, though an exposition of it may be welcome. This is not a history, an ethnological treatise, or a Sunday-school book, but a pleasantly-told account of the boyhood of a missionary's son in a strange land. As such, we can cordially recommend it. If some other son of worthy sires could take up the story where the author has left it, and carry it on to the more modern era of steam and regular packet service, it would be a praiseworthy undertaking. Our chief criticism is that the narrative seems to terminate somewhat abruptly, leaving the curiosity and interest it awakens not wholly satisfied.

La Fondation de l'Empire Allemand. Par Ernest Denis. Paris: Colin.

This exceptional book marks a turning point in historical knowledge and opinion. It is high time that the world should realize that von Sybel and the other German historians of his period were the victims and interpreters of the political passions of their day. It was, in truth, a great period for Germany, and one would think less of the German whose heart had not beat faster during those anxious years during which Bismarck wrought out the modern German Empire. And if even the illustrious Mommsen, whose studies were

of ancient history, could not keep the Hohenzollerns out of his books, surely one may not show disrespect to that far less eminent historian, Von Sybel, in stating that his widely read work on the foundation of the German Empire is more a political pamphlet than accurate history.

For many years after the Franco-Prussian war French writers shunned the subject and left the events of 1870-1871 to be interpreted to the world by the Germans. It is only recently that they have awakened to the fact that history was rapidly becoming perverted, and now we have at last a first-rate book dealing with the events that brought Prussia from the revolutions of 1848 to the culmination at Versailles in January, 1871. Even with the French historical school so strong as at present, it is not too much to say that his present work should earn for Professor Denis a conspicuous reputation. His erudition is searching, his presentation able, his style easy and in passages marked by a stimulating strength of irony and independence of thought. As a rule the most rigid impartiality prevails, and the German achievements are not in the least minimized; towards the end, however, this quality grows less conspicuous. In his account of the Franco-Prussian war Professor Denis cannot entirely forget his own nationality, nor are his military criticisms altogether convincing. Even in the earlier years there are slight shortcomings, as in the account of the Benedetti-Bismarck negotiations of 1866.

Yet as a whole the book is not only of capital importance for the history of the nineteenth century, but it also marks a step in a healthy direction in the methods of historical study. Nothing could show more clearly how fast the reaction is setting against the extremists who have pronounced history to be a science and nothing more than to find a professor of the University of Paris, whose erudition is unimpeachable, disclaiming such a position and backing up his disclaimer by suppressing all footnotes and all references to authorities. This may be going too far, but it is a healthy sign, and the author may be warmly congratulated on his courage and on his remarkable book.

The Constitutional History of New York, from the Beginning of the Colonial Period to the Year 1905; Showing the Origin, Development, and Judicial Construction of the Constitution. By Charles T. Lincoln. 5 vols. Rochester, N. Y.: The Lawyers' Coöperative Publishing Company. \$15.

We are sorry not to be able to give much space to a work like this, which is not only a monument of industry and research, but a useful historical and legal compilation as well. The author is well qualified for his task, as he was a member of the convention of 1894, and for several years chairman of the Statutory Revision Commission, besides having been legal adviser to three governors.

We can best give an idea of what the book is by saying that it is arranged both historically and by topics. As a whole, it is the history of the constitution of this State, traced from its earliest sources in Magna Charta and the "Charter of Liberties" down to its present form, accom-

panied by explanations of the political and social changes underlying its development. But, being arranged also by subjects and having a whole volume of tables and indices, it is easy to find either the chronology and rationale of any particular topic—*e. g.*, suffrage, civil service—or, what is often of quite as much importance, the part played in the development of the Constitution by any particular person—*e. g.*, Gov. Tryon, John Jay, J. H. Choate (volume iii. is mainly devoted to the Constitution of 1894, but contains in an appendix the commission and instructions of Tryon—the last expression of the wishes and policy of the old régime, before the adoption of a State government). Of course, the constitutions and amendments come in their historical order, beginning with that of 1777, by no means the worst of them, said to have been in great measure the work of three statesmen, of whom the oldest was thirty and the youngest twenty-four at the time of their appointment.

A characteristic portion of this constitution was the Council of Revision. A veto power over legislation was given to a board consisting of the Governor, the Chancellor, and the judges of the Supreme Court. Under this system of preliminary judicial revision, very few constitutional questions seem to have come before the courts. How it would work today is another question. That was an age in which suffrage without a property qualification was a mere suggestion of system-mongers; in which the idea of an elective judiciary was still a dream, and when almost everybody who had a substantial office held it by appointment. How rapidly the democratic tide rose is recorded unerringly in these volumes. By 1821 the Council of Revision had become antiquated, and property qualifications were beginning to be lowered. By 1846 the manorial system was swept away, offices and elections were democratized, and the modern period, which was to be marked in another half-century by a growing dislike of the administration of justice itself, came in. By 1875 it was found already that the experiment of a very restricted property qualification in cities proposed by a highly competent commission was not to be thought of. In 1846, people were still really afraid of monarchy and feudalism. Mr. Simmons of Essex County is quoted as saying that he could "tell a man from a feudal region by the very expression of his countenance." Volume iv. is devoted to an annotated Constitution, and among the tables will be found a valuable classification of statutes as they come under the heads Constitutional or Unconstitutional.

Peasant Life in the Holy Land. By the Rev. C. T. Wilson. With illustrations. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1906. Pp. x. and 321. \$3.50 net.

The writer of this book was formerly a missionary of the Church Missionary Society in Uganda and Palestine. In his preface he speaks of "a long sojourn in the Holy Land" and an intimate acquaintance with the people. That he has such acquaintance the text itself makes plain, but the length of his sojourn is not stated. Evidently he was in Palestine as recently as 1901, and he refers to conditions, apparently as of his personal experience,

which existed in the middle of the last century. We venture to think that, so far as conditions antedating 1880 or 1885 are concerned, he has derived his information from others, and that the apparent personal connection with earlier conditions or events is an accident of presentation. The book is in general a simple description of the manners and customs of the peasants as Mr. Wilson saw them in various parts of the country, but especially about Jerusalem. He describes minutely their dwellings, implements, food, marriage and burial customs, and the like. As he points out, the building of railroads, the greater facility of intercourse with foreign countries, resulting in an influx of tourists, the importation of foreign goods and the disappearance of native manufactures, emigration on a large scale, the increase of schools and the spread of education, especially through missionary endeavor, the change in land tenure, which has largely broken up communal holdings by villages—all these are producing something like a revolution in the social, economic, and religious conditions of Palestine. His "apology," as he puts it, for writing this book, "recording the manners, customs, language, etc.," of the peasants of Palestine, is the rapidity of these changes. All that is ancient and peculiar is vanishing, and Palestine is becoming a suburb of Europe.

Mr. Wilson's knowledge and experience render his observations of much value. He seems to have lived among the people of the villages and tents and to have come into familiar and sympathetic touch with the peasantry, among whom naturally the oldest usages are preserved. In many re-

gards, as he rightly notes, the modern peasant reflects the conditions not only of Bible times, but even of the times preceding the occupation of Canaan by the Hebrews. The town dwellers, on the other hand, have been much affected by foreign thought and habits not only now, but at all periods; while the Jews, who have recently entered Palestine in such great numbers, are, so far as customs and religion go, modern interlopers, from whose life nothing can be learned regarding ancient times. For its presentation of the actual facts of peasant life this unpretentious volume is a valuable supplement to works already in existence on manners and customs and to a less extent on the language and folklore of Palestine. When it comes to explanations, generalizations, matters of history, exegesis, comparison of religions and the like, the limitations of the author's equipment and the narrowness of his outlook render his remarks less useful. He seems, for instance, to think that the Gypsies were in Palestine in the time of the Judges (p. 87), and that the Druses have inherited the calf-worship of old Israel (p. 34). Fortunately he occupies himself chiefly with what he has seen and thus has relatively little chance for that sort of foolishness.

The book is simply written, readable, and illustrated with a goodly number of photographs. It gives a picture of the better side of peasant life, and incidentally is of considerable value to the student of Oriental and Biblical archæology, folklore, and religion.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Abbedananda Swami. *India and Her People*. The Vedanta Society.
- Addis, W. E. *Hebrew Religion*. Putnams. \$1.50.
- Ancient Records of Egypt. Edited by James H. Breasted. Vol. IV. University of Chicago Press.
- Bacon, Edwin M. *The Connecticut River*. Putnams. \$3.50 net.
- Banner Guide to New York City and Vicinity. John D. Hall. 10 cents.
- Barss, John Edmund. *Beginning Latin*. University Publishing Co. \$1.
- Biblical Dramas. Arranged by H. G. Hale and N. M. Hall. Boston: Pilgrim Press.
- Bibliotheca Romanica. Vols. 1 to 22. Strassburg: J. E. Ed. Heitz.
- Bolsier, Gaston. *Tacitus*. Translated by W. G. Hutchison. Putnams. \$1.75 net.
- Buchanan, A. M. *Manual of Anatomy*. Vol. I. Chicago: W. T. Keener & Co. \$2.75 net.
- Dana, John Cotton. *Bookbinding for Libraries*. Chicago: Library Bureau.
- Dennis, James S. *Christian Missions and Social Progress*. Vol. III. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$2.50 net.
- Des Houssayes, J. B. C. *The Duties and Qualifications of a Librarian*. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
- Dumas's *La Tulipe Noire*. Putnams. \$1.
- Dury, John. *The Reformed Librarian-Keeper*. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
- Early Western Travels. Edited by R. G. Thwaites. Vol. III: *Travels in the Interior of North America*. Cleveland, O.: A. H. Clark Co.
- Forbes-Lindsay, C. H. *Panama, the Isthmus and the Canal*. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston Co. \$1 net.
- Freeman, James E. *The Man and the Master*. Thomas Whitaker. 75 cents net.
- Garrett, John Henry. *The Idyllic Avon*. Putnams. \$3 net.
- Halle, Ernst von. *Baumwollproduktion und Pflanzungswirtschaft in den Nordamerikanischen Südstaaten*. Leipzig: Duncker and Humblot.
- Harrison, James A. *George Washington*. Putnams. \$1.35 net.
- Heermance, Edgar L. *Democracy in the Church*. Boston: The Pilgrim Press.
- Hunt, Thomas F. *How to Choose a Farm*. Macmillan. \$1.75.
- Jennings, H. S. *Behavior of the Lower Organisms*. Macmillan. \$8.
- La Rochefoucauld's *Maximes*. Putnams. \$1.
- Lucas, C. P. *The Canadian War of 1812*. Henry Frowde. \$4.15.
- Oman, Charles. *The Great Revolt of 1381*. Henry Frowde. \$2.90.
- Powell, Benjamin. *Erichthonius and the three Daughters of Cecrops*. Cornell Studies in Classical Philology.
- Richardson, Major. *Wacousta*. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
- Stowell, Charles H. *A Primer of Health—A Healthy Body—The Essentials of Health*. Silver, Burdett & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1906.

The Week.

Senator Cullom of Illinois is preparing to exert all his influence to secure the Presidency for his young friend, Joe Cannon, in 1908. "A resolution for Cannon," he says, "will go through [the State convention] like greased lightning, if he doesn't stop it himself." Mr. Cullom, who was a sturdy youngster of six when Mr. Cannon was standing pat in his cradle, naturally feels an interest in his protégé. However, all booming of Cannon—the fall of the words cannot be helped—harks back to that extraordinary afternoon in the spring of 1904, when William Alden Smith, haltingly, named the Speaker for the Presidency, and his colleagues gave such a demonstration of loyalty and enthusiasm as the House had hardly seen in a generation. He has the winning qualities, and it is already decided that he is to be the mainstay and dependence of this year's Congressional campaign. We have elected one President who was within four years of the age Mr. Cannon will have attained in 1908. The other party has nominated a Vice-Presidential candidate nine years older. But if "Uncle Joe" were a hundred and one, he would still occupy a unique place—a stand-patter who can put his views into practice without enraging the revisionist Republicans, an implacable foe of the Senate who finds a Senator the chief sponsor of his cause, a despot whose subjects love him even when he throttles their legislative children.

Representative Gardner of Massachusetts, better known as the son-in-law of Senator Lodge, is calling for a strong tariff-revision plank in the Republican State platform. He would like a flat demand for free hides and free sole leather. But the true question is whether Massachusetts Republicans think of such a "demand" as merely a means of stealing Democratic thunder, and quelling a revolt within their own party, or as something for which they really intend to vote and fight. Last year's platform in Massachusetts called for "present action" in the matter of tariff revision; and Gov. Guild later assured President Roosevelt that, but for that official position, with its implied promise, the Republicans would have lost the State. But how long will Massachusetts Republicans be content to feed on the husks of insincere platform pledges? Along in the early nineties, several thousands of them got into the habit of voting for a Democratic Governor; and shortly afterwards Massachusetts manufacturers got

free hides and free wool. It may occur to them now that, if they really mean business, they cannot do better than try that old plan over again.

Hopeful, undiscouraged Canada is again preparing to "make an opening for a reciprocity agreement with the United States." It is easy enough to make openings of this kind. The Canadian side of our tariff party-wall is fairly honeycombed with them. The difficulty is that we will not complete the work by digging through our half of the masonry. One day a sturdy Massachusetts workman comes along with his mallet and cold chisel and begins knocking out a few chips, when suddenly a hand is laid on his shoulder. It is the senior Senator, the Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge. "Stop, misguided man," he cries in a woodman-spare-that-tree tone of voice. "It is true that beyond that wall are some millions of customers to whom you and your friends can sell the products of our State. But reflect. There is also waiting at the half-completed gateway a man with a wheelbarrow full of herrings which he will bring here for us to eat without selling them to an American fisherman first." The man with the chisel shudders and departs. After him, perhaps, comes a Minnesota miller anxious to knock down the wall, bring in grist, and double his output. But a spokesman for the American farmer dissuades him. The American farmer's prices, except for the machinery and goods he buys, are not fixed by the tariff; but he believes they are, and the reluctant miller stays his hand. So the old comedy goes on, the scene merrily shifting occasionally from Ottawa to Washington.

Mr. Harriman's counsel, at the excited meeting of the Wells-Fargo Company last week, gave us a new definition of high finance. As reported in the *Times*, Mr. Cromwell said of Harriman: "He cannot be replaced, for he moves in a higher world into which we may not enter." The *Sun's* report reads: "There is a higher world where the stockholder cannot enter." Taking the two statements together, it is pretty clear what that higher world is. It is the world of the surplus and the declaration of dividends. The mere stockholder, like the policyholder under the recent insurance régime, is guilty of something like sacrilege in venturing near that sacred place. His proper attitude is to sit in reverent awe while the dwellers on the financial Olympus do what to them seemeth good with other people's property. Though they slay him, yet must he trust them. Who is the stockholder,

poor, weak, and erring mortal, after having turned over his money to Mr. Harriman, to say to such a higher intelligence, "What doest thou?" Mr. Cromwell's reminder is timely and wholesome. We see reverence and faith decaying all about us. Rash levellers would pull down even our greatest and wisest. In such circumstances, it is well to have an authoritative voice calling the world to worship once more, telling us earnestly that man cannot get on without having some noble ideal above himself, and pointing us all to the irresponsible financier, who deals with surpluses and dividends according to the dictates of his sovereign will, as the true object of our adoration.

"If there's anything in these accusations against Standard Oil, why doesn't somebody bring them into court?" That has been said so often by the oil company's apologists that there is a peculiar satisfaction in the fact that some one has brought the allegations into court. At least, a special Federal grand jury in Chicago has indicted the company on nineteen counts for receiving illegal rebates from the Lake Shore Road. If convicted, the defendant may be fined \$380,000, or almost exactly three and one-half days' dividends on a basis of last year's returns. But from the public's view, the really interesting feature of the coming proceedings will be the definite test of the Standard Oil Company's much-celebrated reformation. Of course, it once took rebates, so its counsel has pointed out, but that was when rebates were no more illegal than terminal or demurrage charges. And since then it has observed the scrupulous letter of the law. "It says so, and it ought to know." Besides, Chancellor Day and the Rev. Dr. Robert Stuart MacArthur have made personal inquiries and found the Standard Oil to be law-abiding above other corporations. Yet the indictments specify offences which are recent. They are embraced between August, 1903, and February, 1905, and this period, be it noted, includes the explicit denials both of the company itself and of its unofficial defenders.

The Pan-American railway project, which the Rio conference is again bringing to the front, gains much of its undoubted fascination from its unusual combination of the practical and the imaginative. No stretch of railway is being constructed in South or Central America with the special purpose of serving as a link in the connection between New York and Buenos Ayres. Yet when a country along the proposed route appropriates money to build at all, it

lays its tracks, other things being equal, in such a way that they may serve that ultimate purpose. Every time the account of mileage is cast up it shows progress toward the long-cherished dream of joining the two continents, and yet little outlay has been made on lines that are not justified from a business standpoint. Charles M. Pepper, a member of the Permanent Pan-American Railway Committee, writing in the last number of the *National Geographic Magazine*, says: "In the inter-continental or Pan-American trunk line project undoubtedly there will be long halts before all the gaps in such sections as those between Cuzco, in Peru, and Quito, in Ecuador, are completed; but all this is easily within the vista of half a century." Since one of the South American republics, Argentina, is to hold next year a celebration of the semi-centennial of its first railway line, this would make the entire work the project of a century.

So Chinese laborers are to dig the Panama Canal after all. We cannot get enough Spaniards, we cannot get enough West Indian negroes, and labor from the United States was never within the range of possibilities. Therefore the despised coolie is to come in under bond, do the work we want quickly, efficiently, economically, and without disorder; and after it is done, he is to be packed off home. It is a useful function which the Panama Canal is performing in furnishing the plainest possible object lessons of some of the economic and political principles which at home are involved with other considerations. It was shown last year, for instance, just how much additional the canal will cost because its supplies are bought at tariff-created prices. There are a million similar exactions at home, but they do not stand out so clearly. Now it is shown that the most satisfactory way to get the coarse work done is to admit the Chinaman.

By the addition of Representative Longworth, the group of Congressmen to be opposed by organized labor this fall is brought startlingly close to the very seats of the mighty. Speaker Cannon, Mr. Littlefield, and Representative Goebel are the others who are now known to have definitely displeased the American Federation of Labor. As we understand it, the labor "blacklist" exists only by implication. It is really a "white-list" of statesmen which Mr. Gompers and his associates are preparing. The Republicans and Democrats are to be notified as to which of their nominees meet the requirements. Presumably, if a listed candidate opposes an unlisted one, he will get the support of the unions in that district, while in the event of two unlisted candidates be-

ing in the field, the Federation will make its own independent nomination. It is rather interesting that the first endorsement by either party of the Federation plan comes from the Democrats of Iowa, who elected just one Representative to the Fifty-eighth Congress and failed to return him to the Fifty-ninth. It may be in the case of forlorn hopes like this that organized labor will have its greatest success in forcing nominations.

It is reported that Mayor McClellan is studying the taximetre system in Paris and Berlin with a view to its introduction in New York. Whether as a clever mechanical device or as a contribution to the amenities of foreign travel, the taximetre is interesting. It has enlisted the learned men of the Institut de France to determine its middle vowel, and it has effectually disproved the theory that a cab business cannot be done on a low minimum fare. When Paris and Berlin cut the traditional fare in two and put in the taximetre, it was found that the new cabs got an enormous amount of new business in short courses. The thrifty Parisian or tourist who would not pay 30 cents to drive half a mile from café to theatre, willingly paid 15 cents. The taximetre cabs got a great many more fares than the others. There could be no clearer demonstration that the profit of the cab business is determined less by the individual fare than by the number regularly taken in the day's work. One can imagine, for example, an enormous increase in the use of cabs if, instead of a minimum of 50 cents a mile, one of 25 cents a half-mile were introduced.

Since the Smithsonian Institution at Washington is now adjudged to have the powers of a national museum of art, its hesitancy in accepting the splendid proffer of Mr. C. W. Freer's collection becomes fairly ludicrous, if, after all, merely a natural result of being an art museum *sans le savoir*. Justice Stafford's decision rests upon the clause in the charter which reads that the institution "shall have custody of works of art, the results of curious and foreign research." The decision was rendered apropos of the disposal of the late Harriet Lane Johnston's collections, which were to be deposited in the Corcoran Gallery, "until such time as there shall be established by the United States Government a national art gallery." A friendly suit on the part of the Smithsonian Institution brings out the fact that the national art gallery already exists. It is highly significant that this decision has been sought by the Smithsonian Institution, for it shows that its regents desire this power, and are prepared to meet considerable new responsibility.

That responsibility is a fairly serious one, involving as it does not merely the construction of suitable museum buildings, but also the gathering of an especial staff. It would be a misfortune to make a false start by rendering the art exhibits a mere extension of those in ethnology, and certainly there will be small incentive to leave works of art to the Smithsonian until one may be sure that they will be as well installed and as learnedly catalogued as the general scientific collections. All these considerations have, presumably, been weighed by the Regents, and one must expect in the near future the announcement of appointments which will give to the Smithsonian the confidence and prestige enjoyed by the art museums of New York and Boston. The advantages of a national museum of art at Washington need no argument. Perhaps no other American city has so many cultured residents, commanding leisure enough to enjoy such collections; certainly no other city has such a constant supply of tourists, both American and European. No place could be more appropriate for a great historical collection of American art, including contemporary examples, for Washington is happily removed from the immediate influences of the schools and studios. We trust the Smithsonian will make its own the project of an "American Luxembourg," upon which other museums have labored with only too little success. If a judicial attitude in this delicate matter of buying works of living artists can anywhere be attained, it surely should be at Washington.

Last week's decision of the British Court of Appeals should take the heart out of what little is left in the way of sincere opposition to the Education Bill. It upholds the principle that the local authorities cannot be compelled to pay for religious instruction in voluntary schools. Hence "Birreligion" is vindicated before it has finally been approved by the House of Lords. That Mr. Balfour's act of 1902 was carelessly drawn was known before the Court of Appeals judicially established the fact; this is merely another proof that the Conservative party, which so long arrogated to itself all constructive ability and statesmanship, could legislate quite as carelessly as any other great party. As to the value of the religious teaching, over which there has been such a terrible to-do, we have interesting testimony. In his last speech on the bill, Mr. Birrell told of a member of Parliament, three of whose daughters were educated in Board schools, and are confirmed and communicating members of the Church of England, while the two who went to Church schools are Dissenters, "stern, unbending Non-conformists." The Archbishop

of Canterbury, in stating that the voluntary teaching of religion is a farce in Board schools, quoted a lady, who wrote to him that in one school:

During the supposed Scripture time I found the headmistress of an infant school preparing in the central hall a selected number of children for some entertainment to the music of a Highland jig. This was distinctly heard in all the classrooms. In one the teacher was really trying to teach "There is a Green Hill." In another the religious instruction took the form of the children singing one hymn after another, while the teacher prepared the sewing.

Punch dismisses Mr. Birrell to his vacation in the following terms:

Go, then, to Sheringham, my Birrell, go,
And with your children pluck a playful leisure;
And, if at times your vacant thoughts should flow
To what you call your "Education" measure,
Thank Heaven, with solemn pauses,
No child of yours can come within its clauses.

One literary man in politics is making fully as fine a record as was expected of him. John Morley's recent address on the Indian Budget has been praised by political friends and foes alike—the *Spectator* even calling it "a speech which must rank among the great Indian speeches in our Parliamentary history." This is not merely because Mr. Morley clothed what could easily be a very dull subject with a rare charm, and drew an eloquent picture of India with its complexities, anomalies, and difficulties. He has begun a new policy, an era of reform which has as its aim the closer association of the people of India with their Government. Mr. Morley declared for this, and for freedom of the press and of speech, in clear and unmistakable terms, charged with unbounded faith and optimism. As a practical measure, he spoke of the possibility of increasing the number of natives in the Viceroy's Council, while reprobating his predecessor's method of partitioning Bengal as an attempt to break up the best educated of the Indian races. For these things and for Mr. Morley's general attitude of friendliness and helpfulness, the natives have every reason to be grateful, as they are reported to be.

A vexed question in the government of India was brought up by Keir Hardie, at the conclusion of Mr. Morley's speech, in a motion to place the salary of the Secretary of State for India on the estimates, for the purpose of giving additional opportunity for the ventilation of Indian affairs. Theoretically, every chance to discuss the fortunes of the millions upon millions of natives whose destinies are in English hands ought to be welcomed. The Secretary of State and the Viceroy have great powers, with but few checks upon them, precisely as with us the Secretary of War and the Insular Bureau may do about as they please in the government

of the Philippines; practically, they are in no way accountable to Congress. Mr. Morley opposed Mr. Hardie's motion, and in this he is sustained by the major portion of the English press. If Parliament is generally emptied on Indian budget days, this state of affairs is, at any rate, deemed preferable to lugging India into English politics. Hence the government of India will probably continue to be autocratic for years. As Sir Henry Fowler has said, since India cannot be really governed from England, the only thing the Liberals can do is to increase the opportunities of the natives to govern themselves. It would be idle to maintain that this compromise is satisfactory either to conscientious Englishmen or to the educated natives, who are more and more restive under foreign domination.

Professor Koch and his party, according to the latest reports in the Berlin *Tägliche Rundschau*, spent May and the first three weeks of June at Amani. This was in order to become acclimated and acquire some knowledge of African languages, while making a preliminary study of the sleeping sickness, the ravages of which are becoming more and more terrible. Including Dr. Koch, there are five physicians in the party; and a sixth, Dr. Meixner, will join them at Lake Victoria. As the region about the Victoria Nyanza is regarded as the focal point of the epidemic, the medical station is to be established at Muanza; but although Muanza is a military station, there are only six Europeans on the spot. Hence the Koch party will have to live in tents or huts. It is their intention to visit the various islands, most of which have been deserted by the natives on account of the sleeping sickness.

The Austrian Electoral Reform bill is finally in shape, and predictions of the complexion of the new lower house are in order. The number will be increased from 353 to 425 members. As before, the largest group will consist of Slavs, some 259 in number; the German groups will reach only a slightly smaller total, 233. The balance of the House will be drawn from nineteen Italian and five Wallachian districts. Since a matter of 81 Poles is certain to act independently of the Slavic plurality, the largest and most turbulent group is pretty well shorn of its power for obstruction. The German contingent also is far from homogeneous. On the whole, then, the new elections under liberalized suffrage will probably break up the old Parliamentary divisions along racial lines, and we may expect to see a general realignment of the Diet on the ground of sectional and political issues. It looks, then, as if the expedient of increasing the seats and broadening the suffrage basis will at least secure a new deal. On the other

hand, one can hardly imagine that an artificial redistribution of representation means the end of racial bitterness in Austria. If it did, such a mathematical forecast of the vote by races as given above, would be palpably absurd. At best, the Diet is temporarily insulated from its old griefs; the future will show whether the old German-Slav dispute is superseded or merely postponed.

Gen. Artamonof, who was in command at Vladivostok during the war, gave the military view of the Russian crisis to the St. Petersburg correspondent of the *Paris Figaro*. The veteran soldier shares the Czar's disgust with a Duma that is not "tractable," and that talks too much. What could one expect, he asked, from an ex-actor of the provinces inflating his lungs and bellowing as if he were in a cabaret and flown with vodka? As for a Ministry responsible to the Duma, the idea was preposterous. What guarantee could such a Ministry give of the rights of property, or what pledge that it would not be swept away entirely by the revolution? Certain reforms were necessary, to be sure, but they must come from the Czar. "the depositary of divine authority." Gen. Artamonof, when questioned as to the loyalty of the army, was evidently touched on a sore spot. Yes, it was true that the revolutionary propaganda had been at work among the troops. Even in Manchuria, the officers had known what it was to be stabbed in the back as well as volleyed at by the Japanese. But enough soldiers would remain true, the General thanked Heaven, to kill every mutineer. Throughout the interview, the belief was evident that the Duma had been got rid of once for all.

If the labor unions owned the factories in which they work, would they insist on an eight-hour day? There is a town in Spain in which 4,000 laborers have for the last six years been their own employers, but their hours of labor are eleven and a half a day! The name of this town is Cibara; it is a station on the railway line between San Sebastian and Bilbao. From time immemorial the manufacture of weapons has been its specialty. Of the 7,500 inhabitants, more than one-half belong to a socialistic union formed in 1900. The members collectively own their part of the town, paying rent sufficient to cover all costs, including taxes and repairs. The workshops for the ten or more inhabitants of each house are on the ground floor. Expert laborers earn about \$1.80 a day; beginners, and such of the women as are not engaged in domestic work, earn from 45 to 60 cents. Each member contributes 45 cents a week to the union; also a small sum to provide for the pensioning of the families of laborers who die.

ALL MUGWUMPS NOW.

In the very chaos of politics in New York State, at present, a wholesome truth is gaining general acknowledgment. This is that independent voting has come to stay. And it is preparing to display its power on a scale as great as that of last year. After the crashing political revolutions of 1905, in Pennsylvania and Ohio, as well as in the city of New York and other municipalities, there was a great deal of talk about the American citizen having turned independent in politics, but the politicians did not really believe it. They sat down to wait for the flood to subside. But it is still running high. And the spirit of independence is showing a strong tendency, not only to vote as it pleases, regardless of party names, but to nominate as it pleases, ignoring party machines and packed conventions. The race for the Governorship in New York is practically, to-day, free for all. Hearst is to nominate himself, as he is entitled to do, if he chooses. It is expected that Mr. Jerome will soon announce his candidacy, which the parties may take or leave, but which will be a fixed thing, in any event. Such contempt for "regularity," with such open defiance of machines and bosses, has not before been seen in our political life.

It is a revival or expansion of pure Mugwumpery that we are witnessing. The thing which was anathema but a score of years ago, has at last become the model of true patriotism. It is easy now, even popular, to scorn being taken in by party labels, and to go where convictions carry; but in 1884, how hard it was! If it had only been an act then to win newspaper applause, it would not have been necessary for Roosevelt and Lodge to discover "the larger good" in eating their own words. Nor would there have been such tears and wails about the crime of abandoning the "greatest party, sir, that ever existed"—the very machine which now Mayor Weaver of Philadelphia is lauded to the skies for smashing, and which decent Republicans in this State are exhorted to abhor and crush. Of a truth, the despised Mugwump has refused to stay in that grave to which the practical politicians doomed him, and in these last years of grace has achieved his greatest triumph—that of having his teachings hailed as the gospel of deliverance even by his former enemies.

All this is a terrible shock not only to the party bosses, but to their academic and philosophical defenders. Where now is all that delicious literature issuing from the very colleges, a few years ago, to teach us that it was idle to denounce and attack bosses like Flatt and Quay, since they always had existed and always would exist? Where are those superior preachers of the gospel of things as they are, who explained

to us that the true course was to break-fast with the boss, and appoint his creatures to office? In some directions, this philosophy of practical politics achieved notable success. It proved admirably fitted to reformers with an itching for office; it suited also the needs of the bosses. Statesmen with a taste for writing made it the theme of many charming essays, in which they recounted their own skill in getting and keeping office, and challenged the Mugwumps to show a similar record. Even a man of Senator Hoar's calibre had to cast his stone at the misguided men who had sought reform outside of the party, and had thereby doomed themselves to political oblivion.

But the despised Mugwump simply kept on preaching righteousness. In the face of ridicule and hate, he went on maintaining that parties are simply means to an end; that if they become so corrupt as to defeat that end, it is the act of a fool to cling to them; that the way to reform them is to vote against them. All can raise these flowers now, for all have got the seed—but it was seed first sown by the Mugwumps. The main thing, however, is not the question who were the pioneers, but how to make the best use of this large liberty into which we have been led. One thing is certain. The people will not be so easily deceived again. They have their eyes fixed on political realities. Party is but an instrument, not a fetich; a boss is but another name for a usurper; no nomination is a certificate of election; the conscience voter is the man who decides. With these articles of the Mugwump creed now recited by hundreds of thousands, it will be long before the people fall down and worship the old political idols again.

NATIONAL DETERIORATION.

Race degeneracy, which is sharing the honors with race suicide, is the subject of the latest of the Drapers' Company Research Memoirs (Dulau & Co., London). Under the title, "Studies in National Deterioration," David Heron of St. Andrews University and University College, London, presents interesting statistics on the relation of fertility in man to social status, and on the changes in this relation in the last fifty years. Much of the talk about race degeneracy and suicide with which we have recently been regaled has been based upon mere guesswork, or, at best, upon figures from which it is unsafe to generalize freely. Mr. Heron's investigation, however, brings out facts more striking than those collected by the secretaries of college classes. He sets out to find, for certain districts of London, the answer to two questions:

(1.) To what degree is the reduced fertility of English wives associated with social status, or with conditions which mark

poverty, disease, or generally unhealthy and improvident surroundings?

(2.) Further, if it be possible to show marked relationships between size of family and social conditions, can it be shown that these relationships have changed, and if so, changed for the better or worse, during the last fifty years?

The answer to the first question is, as we might expect, that "in those districts where the professional classes are most numerous and where many domestic servants are kept, the married women have fewest children." Culture, education, leisure, comfort, and providence mean a diminished birth-rate. On the other hand, in districts where there is overcrowding, where there is a superabundance of the lowest type of labor, where infant mortality is greatest, where drunkenness, immorality, and tuberculosis are prevalent, and where pauper lunatics are plentiful, the birth-rate is high. Mr. Heron admits that the earlier marriages of the less educated, less prosperous, and physically feeble portion of the community "have something to do with the higher birth-rate," but, according to his tables, these earlier marriages "do not account for it to the extent of at least 50 per cent." To such an extent, he maintains, "a lesser absolute fertility, a lessened exercise of fertility, or a deliberate restraint of fertility must exist in the classes of the higher social status to account for the observed facts."

Moreover, the argument that excessive fecundity in the haunts of disease and crime is corrected by excessive mortality, is—at least for these districts of London—destroyed by Mr. Heron's researches. In spite of the necessary subtractions for the higher death-rate, the net fertility of the lower stratum, he discovers, remains higher than that of the superior; and the lower would seem to be gaining steadily upon the higher.

The natural comment on these figures is that always and everywhere the poor have been noted for large families; and that, nevertheless, the world has managed to muddle along. At this point Mr. Heron comes in with the answer to his second question:

The causes which lead the poorer stocks of the community to reproduce at a greater rate than the better stocks have increased in effect during the last fifty years by nearly 100 per cent.

Furthermore, in 1851 the districts with the lowest infantile death-rate were those where women had many children; in 1901 the condition is exactly the reverse. In 1851 the higher birth-rate of the lower classes could, in the opinion of Mr. Heron, be accounted for by the relatively earlier marriages; in 1901 other causes are at work. He believes, therefore, that he has pointed out "distinct sources of national deterioration which the statesman and social reformer

must be prepared to consider, and consider quickly."

The case is, however, far from complete; the figures apply only to London. There may be countervailing tendencies in other British cities; probably the rural districts of Great Britain and Ireland also tell a different story. For several centuries alarmists have feared that the incessant recruiting of city from country would exhaust the yeomanry; and yet the process bids fair to continue forever. Here may be one of the unreckoned factors in the product; this transfusion of blood, which the statistician has such difficulty in tracing, may be one of the things which preserve the vitality of the British stock. Again, fifty years are too brief a period for a sane generalization in matters of this sort. Improved sanitation, the tearing out of crowded tenements, the crusade against tuberculosis and other maladies, the extending use of pasteurized milk, the numberless enterprises of organized charity—all these movements may change the face of the returns in the course of the next hundred years. Evidently, then, the English statesman and social reformer should accumulate further data before invoking medical science to check reproduction among paupers and criminals, and offering prizes for every babe born of the well-to-do.

Still less is there occasion for our own fluent speakers on the problems of hearth and home to redouble their eloquence. We have no desire to minimize the sickness, misery, and sin in our overcrowded cities; we make no apology for the provoking slowness of our college graduates in marrying and begetting children. But we remind our readers that there is no land on earth where the transition from the so-called lower classes to the middle and the higher is easier and more frequent. Through the agency of public schools and the organization of our democratic society, the stronger and more intelligent boys and girls, though born in most unfavorable surroundings, are unceasingly forcing their way upward. The progress from abject and biting poverty to comfort is often a matter of only one or two generations.

Then, too, our good old American stock—as we ironically call it—is being daily reinvigorated by immigration. Some of our immigrants are, to be sure, rather unprepossessing at first glance, but every European race has proved itself a desirable addition to our population. The people who are now chattering so volubly about the ruin of America by the "influx from Southern Europe," have short memories. Men of fifty can recall the day when the influx from Northern Europe was equally appalling to timorous souls. Rural Protestants of New England and New York used to point to the Irish Catholics, our

hewers of wood and drawers of water, as the very mudsills of civilization; but no one complains that the Irish of the second and third generation are not contributing their share toward our advance in commerce and the professions. The German-Jew pack-peddler was once our type of a man without a country; but his children and grandchildren are our captains of industry, leaders in finance, scholars, and teachers, preachers of righteousness, founders, and sustainers of noble charities. The Italian, in even less time, has displayed such industry and capacity that the South is competing with the North, the West with the East, in offering him inducements to settle. The gloomiest predictions continue unfulfilled. If the race be really dying at the top, there are plenty of fresh and lusty shoots to repair the loss.

BANK LOOTERS AND EXAMINERS.

We imagine that the first question asked by most people, on reading the account of the wrecking of the Milwaukee Avenue State Bank of Chicago by its president, was what the bank examiner had been doing during the half-dozen years in which the thefts have been going on. Promptly, after the bank had become hopelessly insolvent, and its guilty officers had fled, the agents of the State Banking Department took charge of the situation, and proceeded to overhaul the bank's accounts with a zeal which would have had some practical value if applied a few years earlier. Yet the subsequent revelations show the president's frauds to have been of the most transparent nature. Use of fictitious names, or of names of obscure people, on loans through which the money was abstracted, is one of the oldest and stupidest devices of bank defalcation. One immediate discovery was that the bank's accounts were short some \$250,000 at the beginning of 1901. They are short more than a million now, a sum which represents one-fourth of the entire fund entrusted to the bank by depositors. That these depositors were for the most part ignorant working people of scanty means, will no doubt increase popular indignation at the crime of Stensland and his accomplices. But the well-to-do depositor in other institutions is as little protected as the Chicago victims, so long as lax or imperfect methods of examination are allowed to prevail. The question is one which concerns every man with a bank account.

The familiar answer made by delinquent examiners, in cases of this sort, is that bank bookkeeping is so complex a science that a rascal with ingenuity enough to manipulate the books can conceal his peculations in such a way as to baffle the most alert outside investigation. This is sometimes true,

but not, we are confident, in the majority of instances; certainly not in this one. The further excuse to which the self-excusing examiner retreats, when it is proved that he ought to have discovered the fraud, is the familiar apology of our Kilburns and Hendrickses, that proper examination would involve too much time and labor to be practicable.

It has never seemed to us that this is an excuse which should be accepted. The Banking Department and its bank examiners occupy a well-defined position towards the public. The opening of an institution's books and vaults to the frequent supervision of the experts appointed by the State is a condition of granting the bank its charter. Confering of the grave responsibility of receiving the public's savings, and investing them in the money market for the profit of an institution's shareholders, involves necessarily a constant and searching watch, by officers acting in the public's interest, over the manner in which these savings are used. The fact of such constant examinations by the State is an element of no slight importance in the confidence of the public in its banks. This being so, a general assertion that the bank examiner is incapable of unearthing any but the most superficial and obvious frauds, amounts to confession of incapacity. A Banking Department which can do no more than that is pretty nearly useless for the very purpose which led to its creation—as useless for any public good, let us say, as the New York Insurance Department was, during the years when Wall Street promoters and underwriting syndicates plunged their arms to the elbow in the life-company surpluses.

In the case of the Insurance Department, it is now admitted that the officers did not perform their duty, and did not attempt to perform it. The same motives which led to this laxity on the part of Mr. Hendricks—amiably believed that good men can do no wrong, dislike to the making of inquiries which annoy bank officers—repeatedly led to laxity among bank examiners. It is high time these departments were held to a more rigid accountability. If they can prove that, in a given community, their force is inadequate to decent protection of the depositors' money, then let their force be reorganized. It was the demand of conservatively managed banks themselves which led, a few years ago, to the quiet reorganization of the national bank examiners' force, with excellent results. But the initiative in such reform obviously should not be left to banks. The party most deeply interested, the public with its savings, happens also to be the party which has the power to insist on proper State supervision.

It hardly need be added that the duty of thorough and careful examinations by the banking departments, especially in the case of small institutions like Stens-

land's Milwaukee Avenue bank, is particularly urgent at the present time. The country has for six years been living in an atmosphere of speculation. We have had repeatedly, from financial circles where conservatism was once thought to prevail, what amounted to public assurances that speculation for the rise in stocks was sure of success. Following this, a body of reckless millionaires, descending upon Wall Street, have devoted their fortunes and energies to precisely such Stock Exchange manipulation as might convince the doubting outsider that the time to double his money overnight had arrived. In the face of such a situation, accompanied as it has lately been, over the whole country, by the real estate speculation into which Stensland flung the proceeds of his defalcations, redoubled vigilance on the part of supervising public officers, in scrutinizing the use of funds by bank officials, is imperative. It is a fact which ought not to be forgotten, that watchful inspection will be even more useful in preventing such frauds than in unearthing them after they have been committed. Belief in the laxity or incompetence of the banking department has been a powerful motive in nearly every scheme to gut a bank. Meanwhile, the people have wholly failed to get the protection for which they are paying.

THE ELECTRIC LIGHT OF HISTORY.

That newspapers, in dealing with the course of events in Russia, should be tempted into drawing parallels between the revolution there in progress and the upheaval of 1789 in France, is natural. It makes the treatment picturesque and, as near as may be, scientific. But, while it would be unwise to refuse to be guided by the traditional lamp of experience, one should see to it that the light employed is an honest, steady-going affair, good for some hours of study. There is danger in switching on the electric bulb for five minutes, and formulating historic truths while the presses wait.

Of this peril, an illustration is afforded by the *New York Times*, which has devoted a great deal of attention to the Russian movement. Its editorial comment shows, however, that it has French Revolutionary parallelitis in a very acute form. The attack began with the first announcement of the date set for the convocation of the Duma—May 10th, the date of the meeting of the French States-General, as a Russian professor is said to have pointed out. Here was a whacking coincidence to start with. Of course, it is possible that if the Duma had met in July, it might have coincided with the date of the storming of the Bastille, or if in August, with the pillage of the Tuileries, or if in September, with the abolition of the French monarchy, or if in January, with the execution of Louis XVI.; yet, when

all is said, there was that absolute synchronism; and, without being superstitious, one might predict for the body which met at the Tauride Palace on May 10, 1906, a fate similar to that of the body which met at Versailles on May 10, 1789. The newspaper in question seems obsessed by this coincidence, which reappears in its columns from time to time. The only valid objection is that the States-General met at Versailles on May 5.

Another instance is connected with the rumor, circulated some time ago, of an understanding among the Russian, German, and Austrian Emperors for foreign intervention in Russia, in case the revolution gained the upper hand. Of this the learned newspaper wrote with conviction:

As for the bearing which a German and Austrian invasion of Russia might have on the fate of Nicholas II., it is writ large in the sanguinary history of the French Revolution. Scarcely, in 1792, had the Prussians forced their way into France than the truculent convention decreed the abolition of royalty and proclaimed the republic, and exactly four months thereafter Louis XVI. was put to death.

And then it went on to say: "Its [Russia's] vast distances have proved in the past, and may prove again, fatal to invaders."

Now, as a matter of fact, nations in the past have intervened with success for the suppression of revolutionary movements in foreign countries, as France did in Spain in 1823, as Austria did in Italy repeatedly, and as Russia herself did in Hungary in 1848. Vast distances may have destroyed Charles XII. and Napoleon, but there are railroads now, and there is telegraphy. And as for stout old Generals January and February, we know that Japan conquered Manchuria at some 10 degrees below zero. But a really better answer than all of these is supplied in the following comment from the same newspaper of an earlier date: "It is, in fine, beyond a doubt that, under existing conditions inside and outside of Russia, William II. would be able, if he chose, to prop up with German bayonets his cousin's wabbling throne."

What renders this rapid collation of history dangerous, aside from the possible misapplication of past facts, is the untrustworthiness of the contemporary "facts" which we must employ in making our comparison. Out of many examples that might be adduced, we cite the prevalent conception of the character of the peasant Deputies in the Duma. When that body met, the newspapers gave space to one picturesque account of a scheme on the part of the Government to provide cots for the accommodation of the peasants within the precincts of the Tauride Palace, so as to isolate them from seditious influences. It was almost implied that such an ar-

angement would appeal to the primitive tastes of the *mujik* Deputies, in affording them a means of escape from the oppressive ceremonial of hotel life, and enabling them to go to bed with their boots on, as they probably did at home. To the man in the street, the peasant representatives were a horde of Slavic Cincinnatuses who left the plough for the Tauride Palace, and brought the odor of the farm with them. But a photograph of the peasant group in the Duma, which has been repeatedly reproduced in the press and the magazines during the past few weeks, should tend considerably to modify this general impression. Keeping in mind that Europeans do not dress so well as we do, and as a rule do not shave, we should not be greatly to blame if we identified the picture as that of a group of, say, German professional men, with here and there an incongruous figure. And, as a matter of fact, we have learned of late that these "peasants" have worked little with their hands, and that practically all are men of solid education.

Under such circumstances, it is extremely dangerous to draw hasty historical comparisons. Montesquieu, of course, possessed the power of deducing the correct generalization from the wrong data; and we, too, may indulge in historical parallels, even though they are a bit bold. But it is well to remember that some of these parallels, as the Irishman said, may turn out to be less parallel than others.

A LAWYER BEHIND THE TIMES.

Our modern "business" lawyers who can condescend to "suthin' in the pastoral line" may find good reading in "Jottings of an Old Solicitor," by Sir John Hollams. Sir John has run a distinguished and successful course in what still passes in England for the minor branch of practice, although on both sides the water it is ordinarily more lucrative than pleading. Coming to London without a friend, marrying at twenty-four, Hollams soon came into professional prominence. While in the thirties he was offered, but declined, the appointment of Solicitor to the Admiralty; in 1867 he was the only solicitor named for the Judicature Commission, which did so much to reform the procedure of the British courts. Serving subsequently in Royal Commissions on the usages of the Stock Exchange, on the business of the courts, and of the Treasury, he was also of that famous committee of 1894, which, under Lord Chancellor Herschell's presidency, found the basis for the present Joint Stock Companies' Act.

Now, we ask an American business lawyer of the new school to imagine the sources of Sir John's modest fortune. Remember that here was a practising lawyer who not only knew, but had

largely made the business ways of "the City," had drawn a national act of incorporation, had officially investigated Lombard Street. Why, the greenest lawyer's clerk in New York could tell you that such a man had been "next to" all the "good things." The legal fancy whirls when one thinks of the stock bonuses, tidy underwritings, free memberships in pools that were willingly at his disposal. A law-office in this city has been commended because "every great interest is represented in it." In a sense, this was true of Mr. Hollams's office, but with what a deplorable difference. For here we have to exhibit the depressing, the eminently British, spectacle of a prosperous solicitor who stuck strictly to his profession and cared for none of these high-financial things.

Writing with a cheerful, but to the professional mind most irritating, obliviousness to lost opportunities, Sir John says of what most of his American colleagues must regard as a hopelessly mis-spent life:

I devoted the whole of my time to my profession—never speculated or sought to make money in any other way. I never applied for a share in any company, and have never sold any investment I had once acquired. With very few trifling exceptions I have never lent money at interest, either with or without security. With one trifling exception I have never been surety for anyone, and have never acted in the promotion of a company except professionally.

Sir John has the grace to make perfunctory apologies, but actually defends his unenterprising course on utilitarian grounds. He writes, in terms which the office-boys in the financial district could refute:

All this doubtless sounds very selfish, but it had the advantage of enabling me to devote my time and thoughts to the professional work I had in hand, and this has doubtless to a great extent contributed to such professional prosperity as I have had.

Such confessions will arouse intense sympathy on this side the water, because Sir John was evidently a young lawyer of promise, and capable of better things. There is no doubt, for example, that he would have been fully competent to peddle at a profit promoters' stock that had cost him nothing; he could presumably have affixed a valid and legible signature to an underwriting contract. Can one doubt that his advice would have been properly appreciated in sterling by a Hooley or a Whitaker Wright? He was in large affairs, and could sagaciously have manipulated a "yellow-dog fund" to the satisfaction of its founders. What barred the way to these larger and more inspiring activities—something in the man or some fatal defect in his environment?

We feel we must absolve the environ-

ment. The higher ranges of business law are not unpractised in England, even though an up-to-date American office could give the British odds in incidental ways of making the business pay. Even in England, we repeat, Sir John might have done much better than he did. The shortcomings of his career are personal, not racial. He and his entertaining book are monumental illustrations of a hopeless, if quite respectable, old-fogeyism, which, if commoner in Great Britain than elsewhere, is vanishing even there.

The monumental unconsciousness of such oak-ribbed characters is immensely mirth-giving to more versatile minds, and we take leave of Sir John in a comical passage, in which he not only looks back complacently over his old-fashioned career, but presumes to set his example before the youthful practitioners of the twentieth century. Only hear him go on:

Thus I have indeed much to be thankful for. I have received numberless kindnesses from judges, counsel, and solicitors, as well as from clients. I have never had a serious personal difference with any one, and have never been a party to a lawsuit. I may be said to have been fortunate, but I believe that the road to such success as I have had is open to any young man entering the profession who may choose to follow it, and devote himself to legitimate professional work, and abstain from money-lending, company promoting, financing builders, and speculative business, and give constant, careful, and anxious thought and attention to the professional business from time to time entrusted to him.

We will not dignify this argument by referring it to our legal readers. Such reasoning in this enlightened age will not go down even with our elevator men.

PARIS LITERARY NOTES.

PARIS, August 3.

There was never so swelling a tide of posthumous glory in classic literature as that of the Sonnet of Arvers. An author is a "classic" when his work gets into school "classes" as a standard or model; and such has been the fate of this sonnet for generations of French students of literature. It is the flowing utterance, impeccable in form and language and gently pensive in mood, of some cultivated youth in the first person singular, whose "life has its secret and his soul its mystery." The following thirteen lines explain melodiously that the secret and mystery are his love for a lady who knows it not. Remember that this was written in the self-expansive prime of Romanticism; but none of the generations learning the lines by heart knew who the hero was or who the lady, of if there was a sequel.

Now, nearly a hundred years later, we have reached the higher criticism. It has ferreted out the christening record of Arvers—classically uninominal forever more—and discovered that he wrote the sonnet in his twenties in the album (Ro-

mantic word that) of Charles Nodier's daughter. As she placidly wrote an answering sonnet on the next page, she can scarcely have recognized herself in the lady of Arvers. Concerning this, the neo-criticism differs and discusses, several doctors insisting on anecdotal testimony that the veritable lady was Madame Victor Hugo, whose *salon* the young Arvers also frequented. The uncritical think she is nothing more than that very common article—the lady of a young man's first verses.

It is now discovered that Arvers kept on versifying in print, but literature knew him no more, and he died years afterward, the type of a comfortable *bourgeois*. For once a lady's album induced inspiration in what had otherwise been a blockhead like the immense majority of us. The higher criticism has led to this—a tablet on the outer wall of the house where Arvers lived in old Paris; fourteen new sonnets of a young poet, all keeping the same rhymes and order as the sonnet of French sonnets; and this *tour de force* will doubtless be followed up by a bulky thesis for the University doctorate of letters constituting the final corpus of Arvers critical learning. And in French classical literature indefinite generations of scholars will go on learning by heart (they have not yet the ugly and distorted scholastic word "to memorize") this sonnet which is greater than its author.

One whom glory never reached living or dead now rises up in the constantly increasing fame, after three hundred years, of a brother. It is Antoine, the third of the Corneilles, who wrote good verses heralding the golden age of Louis the Fourteenth. The second Corneille, Thomas, was even a more voluminous writer than the great Pierre, and all lovers of literature know of his existence without having read his defunct works. The elder Dumas once received the visit of an obscure Dumas who had at last had a play acted. "Henceforth France will speak of the two Dumas as she does of the two Corneilles," said the proud author. The giant turned good-naturedly with an "*Au revoir*, Thomas!"

Antoine Corneille was not even spoken of at his brother's centenary, but within the two months since some literary scholar (scholarship now meaning lucky finds in old papers or decaying books in the morgues of the past) has found his history—and his verses. They are not even half-bad, curiously intermingling the stock classical allusions with the simple traits of daily life long before Charlotte cut bread and butter in Werther's high romance or Wordsworth introduced a little girl's porringer into the tragedy of death.

He was a parish priest and drew modest revenues as an *abbé* from a benefice that came to him somehow—not apparently from any political influence of his brothers at the court. His verses show a good deal of piety, of the George Herbert kind, and declare their composition by a village *curé* walking to and fro in trim garden paths, with the smell of thyme and other soup savories in the evening air, while the Seine glistens through the trees.

Piety ran in the family down to the generation of Charlotte Corday—great-grand-niece of Pierre, Thomas, and Antoine—when it leaped into fierce patriotism, to flicker out in our own day in middle-class memories of family glories of the past. The

translation into Alexandrines of "The Imitation of Christ" by the great Cornille has just been made the *pièce de résistance* of Joseph Fabre's "lay" edition and commentary on monkish Thomas à Kempis, wherein the irreligion of the future joins hands with the religion of the past.

A controversy that interests, if it does not concern, Americans is threshed about in a volume on "Sainte-Beuve et Chateaubriand," by Abbé Bertrin. The author is a young priest, who created a sensation by his university thesis in letters at the Sorbonne, in which he vigorously attacked Sainte-Beuve for bringing the sincerity of Chateaubriand, religious or literary, into question. The essential veracity of his tales of travel in America was particularly examined. This called out what was supposed to be a crushing reply from M. Bédier, who has succeeded Gaston Paris as professor at the Collège de France. Besides the impossibilities of the narrative—we always knew that even a distinguished Frenchman could not hear the roar of Niagara from Rochester—extensive copying was traced from the Jesuit Père Charlevoix, who wrote a century before. Since then an inconvenient diary of Chateaubriand's valet, written during the famous itinerary through Greece and Jerusalem, has shown that the literary conscience of Sainte-Beuve was, to say the least, quite absent from the elder writer's literature. Abbé Bertrin now reenters the lists, undaunted, documented, and with a vehemence which must astonish noiseless Professor Bédier among his books. Carlyle, Newman, and Mr. Goldwin Smith have in English differed as to veracity and sincerity, both absolutely and mutually.

The circle which centred in Madame Récamier, to which Chateaubriand belonged until his death, but from which Sainte-Beuve escaped or was expelled, will be a fruitful subject of university theses for years to come. One of its most interesting members, the Duc Mathieu de Montmorency, who was so mixed up with the sentimental life of Madame de Staël, won the lucky number in the lottery which Chateaubriand made of his house in the delightful and mysterious Vallée-aux-Loups near Paris. There had been written the work which threw Chateaubriand's influence into the Catholic revival—"Le Génie du Christianisme"—just as the Oxford movement came from Walter Scott. Montmorency left the house—a veritable château—to his grandson, the Duc de Doudeauville, whose son in turn dispenses in it a hospitality redolent of the past near by the retreat of Sully-Prudhomme, most modern of philosophic poets. And from the hill above floats the sound of Latin Quarter revelry in its favorite suburban resort of Robinson. It is classic ground—all of it—and France alone among modern nations triturates her classics.

S. D.

Correspondence.

JAMES DE MILLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reprint, in its original form, of De Mille's "Cord and Creese" may excuse me for calling attention to a man whose more solid qualities have never been fully appreciated. To have produced thirty books

of fiction in a little over ten years, even though most of the books were mediocre in quality, was a notable enough achievement. James De Mille, the Canadian novelist, did this, and did it under conditions that make the result still more extraordinary. His books were all written and published while he filled the important chair of history and rhetoric at Dalhousie College, Halifax, 1865-1880, and kept abreast of his college work. One may venture to say that if some of his stories were reproduced today, in a modern dress, the language slightly remodelled to tickle the intellectual palate of the hour, and with, say, marginal illustrations, and that sort of thing, they would create quite a momentary sensation. As a matter of fact, old-fashioned as they unquestionably are in tone and treatment, and outward dressing, they still appeal to a wide circle of readers. I have been at some pains to verify this, and find that De Mille's novels are not only on the shelves of a great many American, Canadian, and English public libraries, but are in considerable demand; I have also found them in private collections all over America. Not long ago, wishing to complete my own set, I wrote to a large New York dealer in second-hand books, and after some difficulty secured two or three of the missing volumes, at what seemed to be rather stiff prices. The dealer assured me that he could always command a good price for any of De Mille's novels; that they were constantly being sought for public and private libraries, and that any which turned up at auction sales were snapped up at once.

Far and away the best of De Mille's novels is "Helena's Household," a tale of Rome in the first century. This was one of the first books he wrote, and it was the only one of his novels for which he really had leisure. He had resigned from the faculty of Acadia College, and was taking a year's rest before assuming his new duties at Dalhousie. Some of these months were devoted to the writing of "Helena's Household." He had already prepared himself very carefully for the work, not only by soaking himself in the literature of the period, but also by a six months' visit to Rome, where he could reconstruct the scene of his story on the spot. How successful he was in reproducing the life and atmosphere of Rome in the first century, every reader of "Helena's Household" will bear witness. And yet the book as we have it is but an emasculated version of the original novel. De Mille had difficulty in finding a publisher, and when he did at last succeed, his publisher insisted on the re-writing of certain chapters which he did not consider would prove palatable to the theological thought of the day, however true they might be historically. De Mille fought against this for a time, but finding that there was no other way of getting the story into print, finally surrendered. He was so disgusted, however, with the outcome, that he made up his mind never again to attempt a serious novel. Curiously enough, although all the intervening novels were light in character, with no more serious object than to entertain the reader, the very last one he wrote, published eight years after his death—"A Strange Manuscript found in a Copper Cylinder"—foreshadowed a return to his more serious

mood. Despite the surface gayety of this curious story, there is a serious undercurrent that appeals to the student of modern problems of living. Had James De Mille lived a few years longer—he died at the comparatively early age of forty-four—there is little doubt that he would have written novels worthy to stand beside the best product of his generation. He had the equipment. He was a thinker; he had read widely, and absorbed what he read; he had the indispensable insight into human nature and a keen appreciation of the humorous side of things; above all, he possessed imagination.

Quite apart from what he accomplished, or might have accomplished, in fiction, James De Mille deserves to be remembered as a man of brilliant parts, and most lovable personality. His students idolized him, and dedicated an alcove in the college library to his memory. He was a most charming companion, a genial and entertaining talker among his friends, a musician, and also an artist of more than ordinary skill, and a remarkable linguist. He both read and spoke all the leading languages of Europe, except Russian. He was thoroughly familiar with Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, and had a good working knowledge of Arabic and Sanskrit. He had wandered into every road and byway of English literature, and enriched a text-book on rhetoric, which he prepared, with such a wealth of illustrative passages from the English classics as will hardly be found elsewhere.

De Mille never deceived himself as to the real value of his books. He referred to them, with one or two exceptions, as mere "pot-boilers," but looked forward to that period of leisure, which never came, when he hoped to produce the best that was in him. Like other prophets, he was not without honor save in his own country. The people of Halifax did not recognize his existence, until Mrs. Scott Siddons, on a visit to the town, selected passages from "The Dodge Club" for a public reading, and spoke enthusiastically in praise of the book. Brown University was De Mille's alma mater. A few years before he died he visited the college, and was inexpressibly touched by the enthusiastic welcome he got from the faculty and students.

LAWRENCE J. BURPEE.

Ottawa, August 10.

VOLTAIRE'S FAITH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent number of the *Nation* I read, in an admirable and interesting review of the life of Voltaire, this remarkable statement:

But then, side by side with this buffoonery, we can place Voltaire's one solemn statement of his belief, written in a firm hand, at what he believed to be his last hour: "I die adoring God, loving my friends, not hating my enemies, and detesting superstition. February 28, 1778. Voltaire."

Where did your reviewer get his information? The facts are pretty clearly established. In February, 1778, he, being then eighty-four, came back to Paris, after twenty-eight years' absence. A fortnight after his arrival he became seriously ill, and a confessor was sent for. The Abbé

Gaultier came and officiated. Voltaire recovered, but about the middle of May he relapsed, and on the 30th of the month his condition became so serious that the priests were again summoned. This time his nephew, the Abbé Mignot, the Abbé Gaultier, and the parish priest, the curé of St. Sulpice, were present. Voltaire had been suffering great agony from strangury, and had been taking an opiate in large doses, and when they arrived he was in a state of half insensibility. When the curé aroused him and asked him formally to subscribe to the doctrine of the divinity of Jesus Christ he motioned the priests away, and, according to La Harpe, murmured "Laissez moi mourir en paix." He then sank into a comatose condition which lasted till death. There is no foundation for the stories that he died raving and calling for a priest, other than a vague and ambiguous statement by his physician, Tronchin, who was not present. La Harpe's account of the death is the most trustworthy one, and is followed by the Marquis de Condorcet in his "Life of Voltaire," published in 1791, and by all fair-minded modern writers. George Saintshury, in his article in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," while deprecating the fact, confirms La Harpe's statement.

SILAS ORRIN HOWES.

Galveston, Tex., August 5.

[As the reviewer of Tallentyre's "Life of Voltaire" resides in Oxford, England, we have not waited to get his exact authority for the sentence quoted. Voltaire was not a Christian, but an avowed Deist, and the sentence certainly expresses the creed, though not always the acts (he hated a good many enemies), of his whole life.—ED. NATION.]

SYMPATHY FOR ANIMALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, who writes of "Jewish Sympathy for Animals," may be interested to note that as far back as Philo Judæus the same question was raised, and debated with identical arguments. "The sycophants charge us with misanthropy," says, in substance, Philo ("De Caritate," 18). "But on the contrary the spirit of philanthropy in our legislation extends itself even to beasts that lack discourse of reason." In addition to the illustrations given by your correspondent, he cites the prohibition against yoking the ox with the ass lest the stronger brute should force the pace on the weaker member of the union. The general reason he assigns for all such legislation is the preservation of the spirit of pity, "the most natural and necessary sentiment of a rational soul." The Jewish legislator, he says, cries to all who have ears in their souls that we have no right to wrong any creature of a different species from us merely because it is different.

PAUL SHOREY.

University of Chicago, August 10.

Notes.

Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. will soon have ready a book on "Great Riches," by Pres-

ident Eliot, and "Famous Actor Families of America," by Montrose J. Moses.

Little, Brown & Co. will issue this autumn a "Handbook of Polar Discoveries" by Gen. A. W. Greely, the Arctic explorer, and for many years chief signal officer of the United States army.

The Morgan Shepard Company, which has transferred its home from San Francisco to New York, announces the following books: "The Diary of a 49er," edited by C. L. Canfield; "Henrik Ihsen," by Haldane Macfall; "On the Giving of Gifts," by Margaret Collier Graham, and "Lions," by James Simpson.

Early in the year the *Nation* printed a long account of Fogazzaro's "Il Santo," which both for artistic and religious reasons has created a good deal of noise in Italy. The book has now been translated into English, as "The Saint," by Agnetti Pritchard, and published, with William Roscoe Thayer's Introduction, by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The autumn publications of Henry Holt & Co. will include: "The Bird," by C. Wm. Beebe; "The Log of the Sun," by C. Wm. Beebe; "A Cheerful Year Book," by F. M. Knowles and C. F. Lester; "The Friendly Town," by E. V. Lucas; "Maine's Ancient Law," a new edition with introduction and notes by Sir Frederick Pollock; "Doyle's English Colonies in America," vols. iii. and iv.; "Affairs of State," by Burton E. Stevenson; "Joseph Vance," by Wm. De Morgan; "The Ulswaters," by Arthur Colton; "In the Shadow of the Lord," by Mrs. Hugh Fraser; "The King's Divinity," by Dolores M. Bacon; "Felix Gwyne," by Mary Moss; "Casa Granda," by Chas. D. Stuart; "Daddy's Daughter's," by Marion A. Taggart.

A. C. McClurg & Co. have several Italian books in their autumn list. Egerton R. Williams, jr., author of "Hill Towns of Italy," has written an Italian romance of the fourteenth century, called "Ridolfo: The Coming of the Dawn." A more important work is Molmenti's "History of Venice," which has been translated by Horatio F. Brown. "With Byron in Italy" is a companion volume to "With Shelly in Italy" and "Florence in the Poetry of the Brownings." It is edited by Mrs. Anna Benneson McMahan. To these works may be added an historical edition of "Romola," in two volumes, with 160 engravings. It is to be edited, with an introduction and notes, by Dr. Guido Biagi, librarian of the Laurentian and the Riccardi libraries in Florence.

The autumn announcements of the Macmillan Co. include novels by Jack London, Marion Crawford, Charles Egbert Craddock, Pierre Loti, E. V. Lucas, and R. Lawrence Donne. In history and biography they have the following: The completion of the "History of the United States," in seven volumes, by James Ford Rhodes; the second volume of Edward Channing's more popular work; the fifth volume of Herbert Paul's "History of Modern England"; the first volume of "A History of Rome in the Middle Ages," by F. Marion Crawford and Prof. Giuseppe Tomassetti; volume four of the Cambridge Modern History, dealing with the Thirty Years' War; the "Reminiscences of Sir Henry Irving," in two substantial and richly illus-

trated volumes, by the late actor's manager and friend, Bram Stoker, and the "Life, Letters, and Art of Lord Leighton," also in two volumes, by Mrs. Russell Barrington. The complete poems of W. B. Yeats will be issued in two volumes, and there will be new verse by Alfred Noyes and Percy Mackaye. Other books are: "Highways and Byways of the Mississippi Valley," by Clifton Johnson; "The Fair Hills of Ireland," by Stephen Gwynne; "Tarry at Home Travels," by E. E. Hale; "Persia, Past and Present," by A. V. W. Jackson; "A Wanderer in London," by E. V. Lucas, and "Charleston, the Place and the People," by Mrs. St. Julien Ravenel.

The publications of the Pāli Text Society for 1906-1908 are to include the Digha, vol. iii.; the Dhammapada Commentary, the Petakopadesa, the Samanta Pāsādikā, a second edition of vol. i. of the Sutta Nipāta, and the rest of the Patisamhiddā. To come out this year are the commentary on the Dhammapada, the Buddhist hymn-book, edited by Mr. Norman of Benares, and the Patthāna, vol. i., edited by the Hon. Secretary, Miss Caroline Rhys Davids (Harboro Grange, Ashton on Mersey, Cheshire). Since its foundation, in 1882, the society has put out forty-four texts, fifty-seven volumes in all. Its publications are under the general editorship of its managing chairman, Prof. T. W. Rhys Davids. The annual payment of one guinea entitles subscribers to the two yearly volumes. A limited number of back issues are to be had at 10s. 6d. the volume; those of 1882, 1883, and 1885 at one guinea. Another valuable work on Pāli which we may expect to see ere long is the text (the *editio princeps* in Western transliteration) and English rendering of the Visuddhi-Magga or Purity-path, the *magnum opus* on Buddhist doctrine and culture, written in Ceylon by the great commentator of the fifth century A. D., Buddha-ghosa of Patra. The editor, the late Henry Clarke Warren, is already known for his "Buddha in Translations" (Harvard Oriental Series, vol. iii.), a book of considerable repute in circles interested in the history of Buddhism. The Visuddhi-Magga is to be brought out under the supervision of Professor Lanman of Harvard, who has now finished his Atharva Veda.

The *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* for June contains a memorial sketch of the late university librarian of Leipzig, Otto von Gehhardt, who died last May. He was born in 1844 and, after several years of theological studies at the universities of Dorpat, Tübingen, Göttingen, and Leipzig, entered the services of the University Library at Strassburg in 1875, as Volontar. He was afterwards connected with several libraries, until in 1893 he was appointed to the post which he held at his death. The reorganization of the Leipzig library after its removal to its new house is largely his work, but his name will perhaps be remembered longest in connection with the great manuscript catalogue, of which three volumes have been issued. Like many other German librarians, he found time for much independent scientific work, and published many contributions to theological bibliography and palæography. In the same magazine the art bibliographer, W. L. Schreiber, calls attention to the importance of woodcuts for the determina-

tion of undated incunabula. Although he has received much assistance in his studies of German book illustration from such works as Proctor's Index, Voullième's list of incunabula in Berlin, and Haebler's Typenrepertorium, his own studies have enabled him to supplement and correct some of their investigations. Thus, by examining the woodcuts in the earlier, undated editions of Æsop, he found the one by Johann Zainer in Ulm to be the original from which the others were reprinted.

The thirteenth summer meeting of the American Mathematical Society will be held at Yale University, New Haven, on Monday and Tuesday, September 3 and 4. The colloquium will open on Wednesday, September 5, and close on the following Saturday morning. One course of five lectures on the theory of bilinear functional operations will be given by Prof. E. H. Moore of the University of Chicago; and two courses of four lectures each by Prof. Max Mason of Yale University, and Prof. E. J. Wilczynski of the University of California. Professor Mason will discuss selected topics in the theory of boundary value problems of differential equations, and Professor Wilczynski, projective differential geometry.

The committee nominated by the "Classical Association of England to consider the pronunciation of Latin and Greek has issued a draft report. We are not surprised to find that they have discarded the "English" method so-called, and taken as their starting-point the pronunciation of the Romans and Athenians themselves, of the Romans of the first century B. C., of the Athenians of the fourth. The scheme they have adopted for Latin is substantially the same as that of the Oxford and Cambridge Philological Societies, the text of which is also given here. In both alike a special point is made of "quantity," which is to be strictly observed.

The Royal Engineering College at Cooper's Hill, Windsor, is a striking illustration of one of the principal means by which the English have achieved their success in empire-building. The lessons which the constantly recurring famines impressed upon those sent out to govern India was the absolute necessity of the development of the railway system and the construction of irrigation works. They recognized also that in order to carry out these works speedily and effectively a training in engineering having special reference to Indian requirements was needed. So in 1871 this college was founded, and in the thirty-five years of its existence it has sent out 979 men to the Indian Public Works Service. The character and importance of their work Mr. Brodric, secretary of State for India in the last ministry, eulogized at the closing exercises of the college on July 26. He said that the immense progress of the country was due to nothing so much, not even to education with all its advantages, as to the building of railways, which formed at once a guarantee against famine and a security for commercial development; and to the irrigation works which had not only caused a decrease in the famine areas, but had shown in the more recent famines that the process of recovery, which used to be long and difficult, had been made easy and secure.

At the Sorbonne, the last session of the scholastic year of the Paris University Council was marked by the final leave-taking of the faculty of Protestant theology. In virtue of the law separating Church and State in France this faculty, from the 1st of November next, ceases to be a State institution. The Catholic faculty—an ineffective post-Revolutionary revival of the mediæval creator of *Doctores Sorbonici*—lapsed from existence in the early days of the Third Republic. The Protestant faculty was a matter of patriotism, having been transferred to Paris from Strassburg when Germany annexed Alsace. Before the recent Separation law it was a necessity; the State recognized as Protestant ministers to be salaried and pensioned only university bachelors of divinity. Of recent luminaries the late Dean Sabatier, whose works on the philosophy of religion have been much read in the English edition, was best known. Among present professors M. Bonet-Maury has left many friends in the United States.

Baron Franz von Lipperheide, the well-known Berlin publisher, who has just died in Munich, was a distinguished figure among Berlin publishers and literary men. The publisher of *Modewelt* and the *Illustrirte Frauenzeitung*, he was better known as the generous donor of the Library of Dress and Costumes in the Berlin Museum of Industrial Art. This comprises eleven thousand volumes and thirty thousand valuable fashion-plates, a veritable treasure-house for painter, sculptor, or writer. Baron von Lipperheide was also an author, his latest work being a very elaborate dictionary of adages, proverbs, and maxims.

According to the annual report of the University of Berlin for 1905-1906, which has just appeared, no less than eleven doctents died during this period, while sixteen left and eleven others were called. Seventeen *privat-dozenten* obtained permission to teach, one in the theological, one in the law, three in the medical, and twelve in the philosophical faculties. Last summer 6,856 students attended lectures, and last winter 9,204. Two hundred and forty-five students took degrees, two of them with special honors. The University received during the year a bequest of \$25,000 from Frau Anna Weinhold, the widow of the Germanistic professor, the interest of which is to be used to aid indigent orphans or widows of professors of the university. It is interesting to note that the total sum paid out in scholarships or other aids in 1905-06 amounted to \$27,586.75. The readiness of professors to utilize their own means to aid the work of the University appears from the fact that Prof. Adolf Wagner bestowed part of the money given him by friends and admirers in recognition of his seventieth birthday upon Frau Marie Schwab as a prize for her published work on Chamberlain's tariff policy. A similar gift conferred upon Professor Tobler on his seventieth birthday was bestowed by him, in accordance however with the terms of the gift, upon the library of the Seminary of Romance Philology. The new seminary for Musical History occupies this year rooms of its own in the old Academy of Architecture, and uses there a valuable collection of music and books, partly a gift, and partly a loan of duplicates from the Royal Library. The new building of

the Hygienic Institute, just finished, has cost the University \$175,000, inclusive of the scientific apparatus.

There are few university teachers in Germany to-day who enjoy so widespread an esteem or are exerting so wholesome an influence upon large masses of students as Prof. Friedrich Paulsen of Berlin. It is gratifying to note that the 16th of last month, Paulsen's sixtieth birthday, was made the occasion of an impressive and entirely spontaneous demonstration of good will toward him. Hundreds of former pupils and friends from all parts of the world sent their greetings; the Germans of Transylvania presented him in a body with an address and with views of castles and churches of their country; while thirty of his Berlin pupils and friends united to give him a bust of Immanuel Kant. In a circular letter, which lies before us, Professor Paulsen expresses his gratitude for all these tokens of affection in his well-known genuine and simple manner, and pledges himself anew to the ideals of his work. The sturdy independence of his temper is freshly illustrated in this letter by his applying to himself the words of Erasmus: "Semper solus esse volui nec quicquam peius odi quam iuratos et factiosos." Fortunately, in Paulsen's case this Erasmian independence has led to the very opposite of Erasmian isolation and acrimony.

Prof. Eugen Kühnemann of Breslau University, who, it will be remembered, is to be the visiting professor of German literature at Harvard University during the coming winter in the interchange of professors between America and Germany, has just published an account of the work that has been done during the last ten years in Prussian Poland for the cultivation of German intellectual and artistic life in that province—a work in which he, as the first president of the Royal Academy at Posen, has had a prominent share. The booklet, which bears the title "Von der deutschen Kulturpolitik in Posen" (Merzbach'sche Verlagsanstalt, Posen), is mainly concerned with the development of three institutions: the Kaiser Wilhelm Library, the Kaiser Friedrich Museum, and the Royal Academy. All three institutions are outgrowths of what in the first place were rather insignificant local organizations; but through the subsequent coöperation of the Prussian Government and the widespread interest taken in them by the German people they have come to be of national importance. The Kaiser Wilhelm Library received aid from 400 German cities; 279 publishing houses from all parts of the Empire made gratuitous contributions of their publications; all German railways handled freight for it without charge; the Prussian Government contributed to the building expenses the sum of 549,000 marks. It is interesting to note that the library, which at present embraces more than 100,000 volumes, is designed as a "Volksleshalle" on a grand scale and as a "reservoir for all popular libraries and reading rooms in the whole province," thus clearly indicating its indebtedness to American methods of library administration.

The Kaiser Friedrich Museum is installed in a building toward which the Prussian Government contributed 900,000

marks. It is devoted partly to provincial history, art, and physical products, partly to reproductions of masterpieces of ancient and modern sculpture; and it contains provisions for regular courses of lectures by specialists on the general history of art. The Royal Academy, finally, is intended to form a centre for all the higher intellectual and spiritual interests of the province. It embraces nearly all the subjects included in the "philosophische Facultät" of a German university; but it does not give any diplomas to its hearers, and it admits as bearers both men and women possessing certificates equivalent to the *Einjährig-Freiwilligen Examen*. As a matter of fact, the hearers belong largely to the official circles, both military and civil, and to the business world of the provincial capital. The first semester, in the winter of 1903-04, had an attendance of 1,160 persons; last winter showed a falling off to 986, of which 455 were women.

"Neolithic Man in Northeast Surrey," by Walter John and William Wright, illustrated by Sidney Harrowing and Percy Frank Smith (cheap reissue, Eliot Stock) embodies the archaeological investigations of several years in the corner between the Thames on the north and Boxhill and Oxted on the south. It contains all that its authors have been able to gather as to the Neolithic inhabitants of this region; dealing in turn with their burial-places, their trackways and fortifications, their methods of work, their food, and their implements, celts, scrapers, borers, arrowheads, etc. By way of introduction to their main subject the authors discuss the geological features of Surrey in Neolithic times, and the sequence of races in Britain. The book is certainly worthy of praise. The local knowledge displayed in it is extensive and thorough, and the standard of scholarship unusually high. The would-be antiquarian for whom this edition is obviously intended, will find it a useful and accurate guide.

That anonymous and admirable English poet of the fourteenth century who wrote "Pearl" and "Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight" has enjoyed of late a somewhat singular vogue. The enthusiastic but rather sentimental praise of Ten Brink and others and the excellent edition of Mr. Gollancz have given the poet, whether Chaucer's "philosophical Strode" or another, an academic repute for many years, but now he seems about to cut a considerable figure in contemporary belles-lettres. Two years ago, his "Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight" was made the basis of a whimsical paraphrase by Prof. Charlton M. Lewis, who approached the old romantic story in something of a Byronic temper, or, to be more precise, in that gay spirit wherewith Pulci and Boiardo treated the heroic legends of Roland. In the present season we have two modern English metrical versions of "Pearl" conceived in the most serious and sympathetic mood; one by G. G. Coulton (Nutt), and one by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell (The Century Co.). Both poets avow a disbelief in the theory now of wide acceptance that the poem is wholly a religious allegory written by an ecclesiastic; and both earnestly assert it to be the sincere and poignant lament of a father for his daughter. Both minimize rather too decidedly the hearing of Prof. W. H. Scho-

field's recent important discovery that the piece is in substance a translation of Boccaccio's fourteenth eclogue, written in memory of his daughter Violante; but both make a good case for the unecclesiastical humanity of their author. This contention, in our opinion, might have been still further strengthened by a reference to "Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight." The poet who penned the sympathetic, and, so to say, Shawesque, temptation scenes between Sir Gawayne and the Lady of the Castle might, as a layman, have compassed without insincerity the range between them and the idealizing devotion of "Pearl,"—but scarcely as a priest.

In the case of two versions of the same piece so honestly wrought as these, comparisons are not odious but interesting. Mr. Coulton has attempted to render the poem in entirety with the utmost fidelity, and in the metre and rhyme system of the original; Dr. Mitchell, on the other hand, has aimed at a pleasing and suggestive paraphrase; he has omitted a number of stanzas of the more allegorical cast and has adopted a slightly easier metrical form. The virtues of the two versions are consonant with their diverse aims. Mr. Coulton's is the more resourceful and adroit in solving difficulties and in communicating something of the color and tang of the original, though these qualities of his work could perhaps hardly be savored without some technical knowledge of Middle English idioms; Dr. Mitchell's version is the suaver in tone, and conceived, if with less zest for the flavor of the old poet's style—yet with a deeper partaking in his mood. It concludes with "an afterword," which, whatever we may think of its substance, considered as scholarship, is of a penetrating poignancy:

A little grave, a nameless man's distress,
And lo! a wail of lyric tenderness,
Unheard, unseen for half a thousand years,
Asks from love's equal loss the praise of tears.

Under the rather misleading title of "The Undying Past," Beatrice Marshall, whose British nationality shows itself in such words as "bar-maid," "luggage," and "parcel," offers, through John Lane, the first translation into English of Hermann Sudermann's "Es War" ("Once Upon a Time"), written by that author in 1884, and only published ten years later when encouraged by the success of "Frau Sorge." It is a story familiar to all students of Sudermann as setting forth, with a somewhat weaker hand, the same antipathies observable in "Dame Care"—disbelief in penitential tears without good works as a means of salvation, disgust with the established German church and the fattened clergy, and contempt for the corps-student, with his challenges, duels, and idle hours. The writer, who has already translated Sudermann's "Regina," sticks faithfully to the text, refreshing it here and there with colloquial talk or such a variant as "snigger," and touching up the prosy places with more or less untranslatable German. That which is eminently unsatisfactory, besides the title, however—and it is a deficiency usually observable in translations of novels whose publishers eye too parsimoniously every additional page of type and paper—is the absence of any biographical introduction by which the reader may learn something of the German author, his place in modern literature,

when the book in question was written and to what degree of success it has attained. Such a note, for example, could have told us that Sudermann has penned but few novels, and that he seems to have now given himself up entirely to the drama; that "Es War" has been only about half as popular abroad as "Frau Sorge," a translation of which in English has been out since 1891; and that yet "Es War" had, by July of the present year, almost reached its fortieth edition in Germany.

There is very little of the blend of realism and mysticism usually associated with the name of Emilia Pardo Bazán in "The Mystery of the Lost Dauphin," translated from the Spanish by Annahel Hord Seeger (Funk & Wagnalls Co). It is, on the contrary, decidedly melodramatic, and abounds in romantic elements of a kind to make Miss Corelli turn pale with envy. The novel is so well constructed, there is so much rich color in the landscapes, and so much clever character drawing that, at first sight, it seems strange it does not interest one particularly. But the reason is not far to seek. It is a novel of propaganda. Señora Pardo Bazán believes devoutly that Naundorff, the disreputable Jewish peddler of Prussia, is the true prince, and his present Majesty, Jean III., would be now enthroned in Paris, if everybody had his rights. Now, if the late R. L. Stevenson had set out to prove through the medium of an historical novel that Lambert Simnel, and not Henry VII., was the legitimate King of England, even his genius would have hardly succeeded in making the tale attractive to the general reader. The fact that Henry made Lambert a scullion in the royal kitchen would destroy all the romance of it. So the sordid characteristics of Naundorff's early life dispel the illusion in which the author envelops her hero. And yet it is a pity that so much high intensity of dramatic emotion should be so wasted. Not only is the señora an adept in the management of such old-time melodramatic paraphernalia as sliding panels, midnight murders, tortures, and such like, but, not unfrequently, we have a revelation of the profound insight which enabled her to penetrate into the core of the heart of Madrid in "Morrina," and to lay bare the most elusive qualities of the Gallician temperament in the "Pazos de Ulloa." The picture of Louis XVIII. might have been done by Balzac: the placid irony, sentimentality, and pedantry of the monarch "who read Horace in public, and yellowbacks when alone" is hit off admirably, although the exigencies of the case require that he should be something of a fiendish scoundrel, which is unjust to the poor *goutteux*; and Volpetti, the spy, though evidently suggested by the Corentin of "Une Ténébreuse Affaire," does not suffer by comparison with his prototype.

Miss Alice C. Gausson has definitely joined herself to the band of English writers who are exploiting the eighteenth century, not for the most part, it must be said, with much learning or talent. Two years ago she published a work of some bulk and seriousness, which was built about the correspondence of Sir William Weller Pepys (1758-1825; of the family of the great diarist, to which Miss Gausson is herself related) with Mrs. Montagu, Hannah More, and other much-writing folk of the age.

Now she adds rather a flimsy volume entitled, "A Woman of Wit and Wisdom" (E. P. Dutton & Co., \$3 net), which introduces us to the same fluttering society of the *bas bleus*. Her subject, Elizabeth Carter, has the advantage of being really erudite, whereas most of the ladies of that set had a large amount of pretension, not to say conceit, on a small basis of knowledge. Mrs. Carter read Latin and Greek and Hebrew, besides most of the modern languages, and she read them with understanding. Her translation of Epictetus brought her a deserved reputation—and a very comfortable sum of money. Fanny Burney once said of her that she knew books, but that of life and manners she was as ignorant as a nun. As a matter of fact, Mrs. Carter, while not possessing Miss Burney's dramatic skill, had a very fair vision of life and far more of reflection than the author of "Evelina" could boast. Her letters are filled with shrewd comments and bits of humorous philosophy. Though most of her eighty-eight years were passed in the remote Kentish town of Deal, where she fortified herself for continued study with the use of snuff, wet towels, and the chewing of green tea and coffee, yet she was not a recluse in any sense. She writes once to a friend:

I have played the rake enormously these last two days, and sat up till near three in the morning. I walked three miles in a wind that I thought would have blown me out of this planet, danced nine hours, and then walked back again. I am not so devoted to these earthly entertainments, but that I still retain a great regard to the stars.

She was a friend of Archbishop Secker (whom Horace Walpole so ridiculed for his hasty time-serving) and a frequent visitor at Lambeth Palace. Dr. Johnson, too, gave her a genuine admiration, which he never bestowed on Mrs. Montagu or any other woman of the circle, except his thrice-dear Fanny. All this happy life Miss Gausson sets forth, but in a fashion so scrappy and inconsequent as to destroy half the interest of her theme. She has, moreover, a peculiar trick of irrelevance. "It was written," she remarks casually, of a play, "in 1784, the year of his death, by James Thomson, author of 'The Seasons,' the Roxburghshire poet, who was born at Ednam in 1700." The habit is absurdly conspicuous in most of these semi-literary exploiters of the eighteenth century. It would appear that literature is a new discovery for them.

Higher critics of the Old Testament have often urged that their arguments can be approved by non-technical students; they ought not, therefore, to take it amiss if a stranger to critical studies conducts an examination of some of their principal theories, even though the verdict be unfavorable. Such is the case with the Rev. Randolph H. McKim of the Church of the Epiphany, Washington, D. C., in a volume entitled "The Problem of the Pentateuch" (Longmans, Green & Co., \$1 net). Dr. McKim writes as "one of the jury" to whom the case for the documentary origin of the Pentateuch and the theory associated with the names of Graf and Wellhausen has been submitted, and he pronounces himself thoroughly unconvinced. He does not deny that documents were used in the composition of the early books of the Bible, but that any literary analysis can

now separate them he will not believe. In this respect, he is not as open-minded as Prof. James Orr, who admits freely that the separation of the priestly document from the prophetic histories is now too firmly fixed to be shaken. The Josian date of Deuteronomy and the exilic origin of the priestly portions of the Pentateuch are views particularly objectionable to Dr. McKim. Despite the pains he has taken in the investigation of these matters, it cannot be said that he has comprehended the case put forward by historical criticism. Had he done so, he could not have written that the Graf-Wellhausen hypothesis is "based predominantly on philology." Philology, to be sure, enters into the argument, but the basis of the critical views is the historical principle of development. As long as men could believe that a highly developed system of morals and a noble religious faith could spring up almost in a day among a few tribes of Bedouins lately escaped from slavery, so long the traditional view of Hebrew history was possible. In a world which believes that moral ideals and religious beliefs grow slowly, as do all things else, some such view must certainly be held as that which Dr. McKim rejects. It is of no use to plead that the higher criticism is "destructive of the divine origin of the Jewish religion and destructive also of the divine authority of our Lord Jesus Christ." In the face of such warnings critical views have steadily gained converts, and they must be met, if they are to be met at all, by a yet more credible construction of the history, based on examination of the sources, rather than by exhibition of disagreements among competent Hebraists and by waving the red flag of danger to piety.

At a time when the pioneers of Western exploration are honored daily by marble statues and expensive reprints, it is impossible to ignore La Salle. Father Hennepin has reached the dignity of being modelled in butter at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, and Wisconsin sends a striking figure of Father Marquette to represent her in the statuary hall of the Capitol; but however great the fame of these and other ecclesiastics, it can never eclipse the renown of the intrepid layman who with self-confidence went on his way even when it carried him athwart the Jesuits. The perennial interest in La Salle's career is once more attested by the simultaneous publication of two works which contain original accounts of his expeditions to the Mississippi valley. One of these—"The Journeys of La Salle"—is edited by Dr. I. J. Cox, and forms a contribution in two volumes to the "Trail Makers" series (New York: Barnes). The other is Joutel's "Journal of La Salle's Last Voyage," with an introduction and notes by Dr. H. R. Stiles (Albany: McDonough). As Dr. Cox's second volume is occupied with the text of Joutel's "Journal," these two reprints run parallel to that extent. But Dr. Stiles gives without change the first English translation of 1714, whereas in the other edition the spelling has been modernized. This difference is accounted for by a corresponding difference in aim. Dr. Cox contributes to a popular series in which each volume is sold at a low figure, while Dr. Stiles, avowedly

following in the footsteps of Shea, appeals to the smaller circles of scholars and collectors. Dr. Cox's first volume embraces such narratives of Tonty, Membré, Hennepin, Douay, Le Clercq, and Jean Cavalier, as deal with La Salle's expeditions. Dr. Stiles, on the contrary, restricts himself to Joutel. Both editors have, in the main, accomplished what they set out to do, for Dr. Cox furnishes the general public with the leading texts in convenient form, which apparently is all that he and his publisher designed. Dr. Stiles, restricting himself to a single classic, has worked upon it intensively, though he cannot be taxed with overminuteness. If his annotations were more detailed the result perhaps would be more satisfactory than it is, but we are not disposed to cavil at such a beautiful example of book-making, when, after all, it gives us a careful recension of an important text. We subjoin Joutel's verdict upon La Salle's character since, with the utmost terseness, it seems to bring out the essential facts:

He had a Capacity and Talent to make his Enterprize successful; his Constancy and Courage and his extraordinary knowledge in Arts and Sciences, which render'd him fit for any Thing, together with an indefatigable Body, which made him surmount all Difficulties, would have procured a glorious Issue to his Undertaking, had not all those excellent Qualities been counterbalanced by too haughty a Behaviour, which sometimes made him insupportable, and by a Rigidity towards those that were under his Command, which at last drew on him an implacable Hatred, and was the Occasion of his Death.

A. P. C. Griffin, of the Congressional Library, has enriched Dr. Stiles's edition of Joutel with an excellent "Bibliography of the Discovery and Exploration of the Mississippi Valley." However, as bibliographers love absolute accuracy, we may point out that M. Benjamin Sulte does not spell his name with an accent.

A portrait of Mrs. Edwards by Fantin-Latour has been presented to the city of Paris, for the Petit Palais, by Madame Fantin-Latour. This will be one of very few portraits of a living personage in the Petit Palais. Mrs. Edwards and her late husband were almost lifelong friends of the artist. Another gift to the Petit Palais is "La Carola," by Edouard Dufeu, presented by Mme. Esnault-Pelterie; another is a bust of Harpignies by Ségoffin.

The French Minister of Finance, looking everywhere for money, has suggested a tax on imported pictures and art objects. The *Athenaeum* comments on the proposal as follows:

As the tax . . . is estimated to produce only £60,000 a year, some suspect that the real object behind it must be rather protection than revenue. But would not the chief effect be to protect the great French masters of the eighteenth century against their British rivals of that date? If the objects imported were to be stamped on the back, there might, however, be some incidental check on the arrival from London of "Turners" of high merit never known to Turner.

The life of Vincenzo Foppa (*ob.* 1492), the founder of the early Lombard school, is being written by Miss C. Jocelyn Ffoulkes and the Rev. Rodolfo Maiocchi of Pavia. This book, which will be published by John Lane, will embody the results of the most recent and exhaustive researches in Italian archives, and will contain repro-

ductions of all the known works of this rare master. The authors wish to make the list of works as complete as possible, and would be glad to hear from any collector possessing paintings or drawings by Foppa or his immediate followers. The period of the artist's activity covers a space of more than sixty years—a fact only recently discovered—so that some of his late works may now be in existence unrecognized.

An important example of Lucas Cranach the Elder has just been bought by the Städelsches Institut, Frankfurt. It is a triptych, painted, as an inscription attests, in the year 1509. It is believed to be the famous altar piece painted for the church at Torgau. The central panel represents the Virgin and St. Anne seated in a columned hall; St. Joseph sleeps in the background. The infant Jesus and St. John play in the foreground. Portraits of the princely family of Mecklenburg are recognized in the picture. In the left wing the Virgin gives suck to the Holy Child. A princely donor is in the distance. There is a fine landscape as background. In the right wing St. Anne, a portrait, again appears, caring for the Christ Child and St. John; a donor reads in the background. The work is said to show strong Flemish influence, and to rank with the best of the Cranachs' productions.

Wagner and Puccini, we read, accounted for more than two-thirds of the total number of performances given at the late opera season in London.

The English assert that both of Puccini's most popular operas, "La Bohème" and "Madame Butterfly," have reached the world from Italy via England. The last-named work, indeed, did not win favor in Italy until after London had put on its seal of approval. This resulted also in a production in Budapest, in the promise of a performance in Paris, and in arrangements for both English and Italian performances in New York. When first given in Milan, it was hissed, and the composer has confided to a friend that he will have no more operas produced in that city, and will probably favor London for his next *première*. He has already chosen a subject for his next opera—Pierre Long's novel "La Femme de Le Pantin."

It is amusing to find in a volume recently issued in Munich, containing the reminiscences, diaries, and letters of Hermann Zumpe, the following estimate, dated 1871, of Wagner's "Die Meistersinger": "The opera left me perfectly cold. There is no soul here, no noble passion. Cleverness and dexterity one cannot deny Wagner, but that is no praise for a great composer. The fact is that, to put it in a few words, Wagner is not a composer by the grace of God. Better none at all than such a one." The man who wrote this subsequently became one of the most ardent Wagnerian enthusiasts and missionaries, although he was not one of the greatest of his interpreters. In his Bayreuth notes, Zumpe gives an instance of Wagner's willingness to change his mind. Wagner had entertained a prejudice against the famous Munich tenor, Vogl. Efforts were made on all sides to overcome this feeling, and finally Wagner invited him to Bayreuth. The tenor came, sang, and conquered. Wagner embraced him and begged his forgiveness.

Among Zumpe's aphorisms occur the following two: "There are two types of conductors, pigs and martyrs. Few die the death of the latter."

Mr. Harvey Worthington Loomis is preparing for publication a collection of seventy-five original children's songs. Heretofore the leading American composers have strangely neglected this field, and it is therefore encouraging to find Mr. Loomis devoting himself to this task, which is one of the utmost importance, for it is only by educating these adults of the future up to good music that America can ever become a musical country. Mr. Loomis is very optimistic. He believes that the music of the Tenderloin is our real folk music, and that some day a genuine American art will be built upon it. Perhaps it will—somewhat in the same way in which the rags a tramp wears may be converted into fine writing paper; but in no other way that we can see.

One of the events of the next musical season will be the first performance in this country of the violin concerto of Sibelius, by Maud Powell, at the second pair of Philharmonic concerts under the direction of Mr. Safonoff. Sibelius is one of the most interesting of the younger composers; he has not only local color characteristic of Finland, his native country, but he has what so few have—melodic ideas. It will be remembered that Dvorák invited Miss Powell to give his own violin concerto its first hearing at a New York Philharmonic concert. Last season she played Henry Holden Huss's concerto, for the first time anywhere. Camille Saint-Saëns requested her four years ago in London to play his B minor concerto under his own direction, and, when Max Bruch heard her play one of his own concertos he was so much pleased that he assured her she played it better than Sarasate, to whom he had dedicated it. Miss Powell also gave the Tchaikovsky concerto its first American production under the baton of Theodore Thomas.

RECENT POETRY.

When a young poet publishes his works dramatic and lyrical in a quarto volume nearly two inches thick on a very expensive grade of paper it is difficult for the poetic critic to approach it in the genial and receptive temper wherewith he turns to the traditional slender and modest book of song. It is inevitable that he should be provoked to measure it by more difficult standards and search it with a more judicial eye. It cannot be said that the handsome volume of "Plays and Lyrics" by Cale Young Rice (McClure, Phillips & Co.) wins through such a test very triumphantly. Though Mr. Rice states 'In his preface that his desire has been to include only his best work, he has omitted his vivid, if youthful, tragedy, "Charles dl Tocca," in favor of his melodramatic and unsatisfactory "David," of which mention has already been made in these columns; and it is extremely questionable whether "Yolanda of Cyprus," the new play with which the volume opens, can afford any reader as much poetic pleasure as the earlier piece. "Yolanda" is a play of adultery, intrigue, and sacrifice, which, however, ends with the happiness of its chief character. It is conceived with a certain

vigor, and executed with a considerable richness of romantic background, but it begins too violently, and it is carried through at fever heat with little or no relief or artistic modulation of mood, while the ejaculatory blank verse, with its numerous violences of phrase, does little to mitigate the mad precipitation of the plot. A little more restraint, a little firmer handling of structural form—in short a little more "seriousness" might have made it an admirable and a pleasurable performance.

The lyrics which make up the bulk of the book have the merits and defects of the dramatic pieces. Part of the poet's equipment Mr. Rice has amply. He is moodily aware of the passionate issues of life, particularly as they have been revived in the pages of the English romantic poets; he has an excellent command of picturesque diction; but the defects of these qualities are his in excess. Too often a certain fragrant mood, expressed in too picturesque diction, gives his work a gasconading flavor which fails to afford the reader the fullest aesthetic pleasure. If it be true, as many have thought, that the dark night of poetry which now envelops us is the sequel of the long day of romanticism, and soon to be succeeded in turn by a more enlightened, more humane classicism, then Mr. Rice's ambitious work is a significant document. For, like the writing of some of the latest of the Jacobean dramatists, it presents the spectacle of a passionate romanticism, unballasted by true poetic scholarship, and unplotted by effective art. But it is perhaps unfair to Mr. Rice to allow the magnitude and material splendor of his volume to incite us to swell that cold wind of criticism, which, we may hope, foreruns the dawn. Occasionally he writes in simplicity as well as sincerity, without labored linguistic bravuras; or moody excesses: at such times, if not impeccable, he is often pleasantly poignant; as in this little song:

I met a child upon the moor
A-wading down the heather;
She put her hand into my own,
We crossed the fields together.

I led her to her father's door—
A cottage mid the clover,
I left her—and the world grew poor
To me, a childless rover.

I met a maid upon the moor,
The morrow was her wedding.
Love lit her eyes with lovelier hues
Than the eve-star was shedding.

She looked a sweet good-bye to me,
And o'er the stile went singing.
Down all the lonely night I heard
But bridal bells a-ringing.

I met a mother on the moor,
By a new grave a-praying,
The happy swallows in the blue
Upon the winds were playing.

"Would I were in his grave," I said,
"And he beside her standing!"
There was no heart to break if death
For me had made demanding.

"Corydon, an Elegy in Memory of Matthew Arnold and Oxford," by Reginald Fanshawe (Henry Frowde) is no such "slender shallop of lament" as its author modestly alleges. It is a volume of two hundred and twenty-four Spenserian stanzas, preceded by an elaborate and somewhat tremendous analysis, wherein we are told that this stanza treats of "Arnold

Toynbee and a new social ideal," that of "T. H. Green and idealism," etc., etc. Yet in passing from the programme to the performance itself the reader is most pleasantly surprised to find it continuously informed by a mellow poetic mood, and containing scarcely a lapse from suave and accomplished workmanship. The tone is frankly academic and traditional, and most successfully so. Save for the sensitiveness to vaulting intellectual systems and the lack of the instinct for compression, one could almost imagine some later Gray living retired in "sullen" chambers, and composing such polished, thoughtful stanzas as these. Perhaps the first trait that strikes the reader is the curious felicity of critical characterizations, but a line long—a felicity recalling the masterly triumphs in this kind of William Watson. Take this of Arnold:

A sad Ulysses of the spirit's quest,
or this of Tennyson:

Imbued

With tears and tender gleams of grave Virgilian mood,

or this of Browning:

Subtlest apologist of groping souls that grow,
or this of Mr. Swinburne:

The lavish lord of sweet sonorous lyre.

Or take as an example of set criticism in verse this elaborate "codification" of Arnold—occupying an entire stanza:

O nature strangely blent; light petulance
Of airy laughter; huoyant ease urhane
Of world and youth; the lucid lips of France;
Some breath of Byron's sick romantic pain,
Dispassionate, purged; bright cynic-edged disdain
Of Heine, clean unpolignant; peace austere,
Wordsworth's high woodland peace, unrapturous, sane;
Goethe's grave calm Olympian; Attic clear
Vision and wistful doubt and Stoic will severe.

The texture of the piece, however, is imperfectly represented by such close-packed stanzas as this. The whole poem is pervaded by the spell of the "sweet city with the dreaming spires," by "the last enchantments of the middle-age." Not seldom it rises from admirably versified criticism into poetry of grave and haunting music:

O south-wind sougning in the peulsive pine!
O haunting flute of silent Corydon!
What mystic hurden mingled, his and thine,
Speaks to my spirit ever and anon
Of half forgotten things, of roses gone,
Echo of empty life's long monotone,
Warm wafts from magic woods of Marathon,
What hope of deepening meadows, still unmown
After long arid May! What breath of spring unblown!

Now the last cuckoo hardly seems to cease
In liquid silence. Lingers twilight-stoled
Peace on the height and in the hollow peace.
The brooding elms with purple wings unfold
The steading's russet roof, the nestling gold
Of carven haystack. Eye, calm eye, hath strewn
Her incommunicable stillness old
Over the fragrant face of midmost June,
Bowed to the benediction of her mellow moon.

Perhaps even more than in most formally elegiac verse there is a lack of intensity, of original poetic energy in the conception of this that makes against its wide and enduring appeal, but for lovers of the old sonorities of the academic muse who are not averse even from her a-priorities, this mellow, deeply meditated monotone will have a potent charm.

In "The Door of Humility" (Macmillan Co.) Alfred Austin, also, has, as is habit-

ual with him, rested content with the academic manner. "The Door of Humility" is a poem of some two hundred pages, resembling "In Memoriam" in its structure of quasi-lyric sections in four-line stanzas, though it is slightly differentiated by alternate rhyme. The substance of the poem is an account of a kind of sentimental *Wanderjahr*. The poet, being in love with an English maiden, is yet too proud to please her, and is told to keep away until he shall come with humble mind. He thereupon visits Florence and Rome, experiencing the customary emotions, and finally goes to Constantinople, whence he is recalled by the news of his sweetheart's dangerous illness. He arrives, acceptably humble, in time to receive her last valediction in eighteen stanzas, of which these four may be taken as an adequate sample:

As in the far-off boyish year
When did your singing voice awake,
Disinterestedly revere
And love it for its own great sake.

And when life takes autumnal hues
With fervent reminiscence woo
All the affections of the Muse
And write the poem lived by you.

And should, until your days shall end,
You still the lyric voice retain,
With its seductive music blend
A graver note, a loftier strain.

While huoyant youth and manhood strong
Follow where Siren sounds entice,
The Deities of Love and Song,
Rapture and Loveliness, suffice.

The piece is as a whole marked by suavity and a kind of thin dignity, though not seldom there is a lapse into banality, as where Mr. Austin, in a section faintly recalling a famous lyric by his great predecessor, writes:

The belfry strikes the silvery hour
Announcing her propinquity.

In passages the poem is not unpleasant reading, but as a whole it is an illustration of the old way of kings' laureates, who have too often felt at liberty to be as tedious as a king.

"Love's Testament," a sonnet sequence by G. Constant Lounsbury (John Lane Co.), differs from most sonnet sequences of idealizing passion in a certain piquancy of thought under-running the mood, and in the somewhat singular phenomenon that the cycle ends in a situation of cynical disillusion. The rather attractive quality of the sequence may be judged from this sample:

The gracious ghosts of those old sonneteers,
Whose memory glows with an immortal flame,
Wearing the mantle of a deathless fame,
That fades not with the falling of the years:
Shakespeare and Dante, Petrarch, equal seers,
Each with his threatening and majestic name,
To me, a humble poet, proudly came,
As I sat dreaming in the vale of tears.

And pity and rebuke I seemed to read
On every face at my audacity,
Till suddenly, in my bewildered need,
I bid them look, oh love of mine, on thee!
Then all astonished at the joyous sight
They vanished, and an unseen voice cried, "Write!"

After a dozen years we have a new edition of A. E. Housman's little book of vivid verse, entitled "A Shropshire Lad" (John Lane Co.). Mr. Housman has a masterly way of concealing an accomplished poetic art. His songs, put into the mouth of his Shropshire lad, are, in their preoccupation with the light loves of lads

and the girls, a kind of rustic Anacreon for the times; but with a difference. Ale here takes the place of the subtler juice of the grape as a subsidiary inspiration, sometimes with Kipling-esque results, as where the lad sings—

Oh many a peer of England hrews
Livelier liquor than the Muse,
And malt does more than Milton can
To justify God's ways to man.
Ale, man, ale's the stuff to drink
For fellows whom it hurts to think.

But the epicureanism of the lad is shadowed by a hue of modern fatalism which suggests that the temper of the peasantry in Shropshire may be little different from that of Mr. Hardy's Wessex. Perhaps the most characteristic, and in a way the most significant things in the book, are certain lyrics like "The Immortal Part," wherein a view of the world invincibly macabresque is phrased with a certain British obstinacy of manhood, that sharply contrasts with the turn a similar theme is apt to take in the hands of a continental poet:

When I meet the morning beam,
Or lay me down at night to-dream,
I hear my bones within me say,
"Another night, another day.

"Wanderers eastward, wanderers west,
Know you why you cannot rest?
'Tis that every mother's son
Travails with a skeleton. . . .

"Therefore they shall do my will
To-day while I am master still,
And flesh and soul, now both are strong,
Shall hale the sullen slaves along.

"Before this fire of sense decay,
This smoke of thought blow clean away,
And leave with ancient night alone
The steadfast and enduring bone."

Lloyd Mifflin's "My Lady of Dream" (Henry Rowde) is a collection of love lyrics informed with that pleasantly sentimental, fluent lyricism with which Mr. Mifflin's readers are familiar. The little piece entitled "The Tryst With His Love" fairly embodies its fragile charm.

When the wings of the twilight-legion
And the ghosts of the sunset pale,
I float in the nebulous region
Of a spirit-haunted vale:
By the marge of the mystical river
I make of my love a lyre,
For she is a reed a-quiver,
And I am the wind, her desire.

The poems of Meredith Nicholson (Bobbs-Merrill) show most of the merits of the enlightened Indiana muse. Despite many fine single lines in the book, it is mainly pleasurable because of its variety of reminiscent moods. The fantastic melodies of Poe, the glamour of the neo-Celtic renaissance, the large patriotic strain of Lowell, the polish of Præd—Mr. Nicholson has admired them all, and has written in similar strains with intelligence and taste and with a certain clear-headedness and right feeling of his own that keep the result from being disagreeably imitative. But perhaps Mr. Nicholson is most memorable as well as most wholly himself when he adopts the tone of bookish but pithy quaintness, as in "Wide Margins."

Print not my Book of Days, I pray,
On meagre page, in type compact,
Lest the Great Reader's calm eye stray
Skippingly through from fact to fact;

But let there be a liberal space
At least 'twixt lines where ill is writ,
That I with tempering hand may trace
A word to dull the edge of it.

And save for me a margin wide
Where I may scribble at my ease
Elucidative note and guide
Of most adroit apologies!

The five volumes of Bliss Carman's series, "Pipes of Pan," are now published by L. C. Page & Co. in what purports to be the definitive edition, but which is actually only the sheets of the five separate volumes bound together, each with its separate preliminary matter and pagination. As we have spoken from time to time of the separate volumes as they have been issued, there is no call to discuss them here, though it may be said that this grouping of his later work in one portly volume makes even more clear than the separate volumes have done that Mr. Carman is paying the penalty of too great poetic fluency. There is perhaps nobody in his generation who is more uninterruptedly master of poetic tone. There is scarcely a piece in the present volume that is devoid of melodious cadences and poetic imagery, yet the effect of the whole is of sunrise on a foggy morning at sea. There is a seductively colored mist of poetry, but an obscuration of landmarks. Mr. Carman's later work lacks poetic intensity, and the reader of it takes little away with him.

Miss Florence Wilkinson's "The Far Country" (McClure, Phillips & Co.) is a volume of uneven, but on the whole, singularly poetic verse. Miss Wilkinson has evidently wandered long on the misty moorlands of the Celtic renaissance, but though she has become imbued with much of the spirit of that haunting music, there is a humanism behind her writing, a vividness of imagination and a cling of phrase, that differentiates her work at its best from most of that which has been produced under the inspiration of the harp that now sounds again in Tara's halls. There is something of wildness in the flavor of her work, but it is not the offensive wildness which is sometimes the result of an earnest effort to escape the commonplace, for Miss Wilkinson, we believe, could not be commonplace if she tried. Her volume gives abundant evidence of the possession at least of those elements of genius which are set forth in this characteristic poem:

What seest thou on yonder desert plain,
Large, vague, and void?
I see a city full of flickering streets,
I hear the hum of myriad engine beats.
What seest thou?
I see a desert plain
Large, vague, and void.

What seest thou in yonder human face,
Pale, frail, and small?
I read a page of poetry, of sin,
I see a soul by tragedy worn thin.
What seest thou?
I see a human face
Pale, frail, and small.

What seest thou at yonder dim cross-roads
Beside that shuttered inn?
Untravelled Possibility,
The Inn of Splendid Mystery.
What seest thou?
I see the dim cross-roads
Beside a shuttered inn.

A little sharper discrimination between profusion and diffusion, a little sterner renunciation of unreal and extraneous adornment, a little firmer grasp of organic structure, and Miss Wilkinson will be a poet to reckon with.

Mrs. Louise Morgan Sill, in a collection entitled "In Sun or Shade" (Harper & Bros.), shows a predilection for looking down to

Camelot which suggests Miss Wilkinson. With less of original endowment, she has perhaps a firmer touch with the file. Although there is much in her book which is rather dull, occasionally, as in this "Song of the Paving-Stones," she strikes a fairly searching chord:

We are the paving-stones;
Over our ancient hones
The restless people pass—
Over our patient hones
As breezes over the grass.

Endlessly to and fro
Man and woman and beast,
Hither and thither they go,
Beating to west and east,
Beating to east and west,
Like ships on the ocean's breast.

Some of them laugh in glee,
Some of them weep in woe;
Over our rattling hones,
On, with their moans and groans,
On, with their laughter free,
Over and over they go.

Brides all smiling and fair
Pass in their bridal white;
Babes that wonder and stare,
Men that have died that night,
Lovers whose hope is bright,
Lovers who know despair.

Men of a thousand fates,
Women of countless aim,
Each with his loves and hates,
Famed, or without a name;
Some that luxury know,
Some that hunger for bread,
Over and over they go,
Living and dying and dead—
Over our ancient bones,
Bones of the paving-stones,
As breezes over the grass
The folk of the city pass.

"A Modern Chemist and Other Poems," by Lee Wilson Dodd, stands out from the flood of poetry published by Badger, with something of distinction. There is brain work behind Mr. Dodd's verse, and poetic information. His reading is apparent in his work, but it is reading of an admirable variety, embracing such disparate writers as Landor and Dante, Browning and Beddoes. There is at present a certain overemphasis in Mr. Dodd's phrasing which blunts his fineness, and he has as yet imperfectly realized the vital truth that poetry is a fine art resulting in an objective product, as well as a means for turbulent self-expression. But there is a vigorous body in his work which makes the reader hopeful for its future growth. This nobly conceived, but somewhat jolting, sonnet to Carducci, presents Mr. Dodd at his average level of poetic attainment:

Carducci, hail! Hail, pagan poet! None
Has better loved the laughter of the sun,
Has better loved the earth's abundant breast,
Whereon the opulent summers sink to rest
Reluctantly, one after one, and thence
Draw the rich fountains of their opulence!
Your nature is like summer, ample, free
(Hail singer of the heart of Italy!)
From winter's chill secretive sophistry;
Winter, who frights us for a little space
By drawing death's white veil before his face,
Who thwarts the sun with shadow. . . . You
are not one

To fret with vapors the impetuous sun!
Life, life's abundance, these you still proclaim:
And life seems lordlier when we name your name!

A rather notable aspect of the recent outburst of poetic drama has been the frequent occurrence of Hebraic subjects—David, Herod, Saul, Judith, have all been made the theme of romantic plays in verse,

and now Richard Burton has dramatized with considerable success the brief story of the harlot Rahab as it is told in two chapters of Joshua (Henry Holt). As a criticism of life the play is not conspicuous, for with the exception of Rahab herself, the characters are but outlines, and even in her case her abandonment of her evil courses through faith in the warlike God of Israel and her subsequent love affair on a high plane with one of the Israelitish spies are not very convincingly conducted. Indeed, the introduction of the love motif weakens the artistic vitality of the story as it is in the scriptures. Yet if the play lacks sufficient vigor to foretell for it length of days it has some qualities that are uncommon in contemporary verse. It is devoid of surplusage and bombast, its "sentiments" are often moving, and its backgrounds always picturesque. It is written in admirably workmanlike blank verse.

Another play from Christian material is "Augustine, the Man," by Amelie Rives (Princess Troubetskoy). This is a closet drama of the extreme type, only dramatic in that it is conducted in dialogue, though place is given to soliloquies of some hundred of lines. The theme of the play is the humanizing of the religion of Augustine through the death of his son, Adeodatus, whom, in the first ardor of his reformation, he had renounced along with his oldtime mistress, Melcara. The piece is written in fluent and highly flavored verse, and is not devoid of a good deal of an Euripidean poignancy.

THE BATTLE OF REASON AND FAITH.

The History of English Rationalism in the Nineteenth Century. By Alfred William Benn. 2 vols. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$7 net.

Leslie Stephen closes his survey of "English Thought in the Eighteenth Century" with the significant words: "I have reached the opening of a new period in the history of thought; and here I must pause, without even venturing to cast the most perfunctory glance upon later developments." Mr. Benn's two volumes may be taken at once as a rival and a continuation of the work thus brought to a close. Though the use of the word "rationalism" in his title might seem to indicate a narrower purpose than Sir Leslie Stephen's, this does not prove to be really the case; for "thought" in the preceding century was pretty well confined to the wavering conflict between reason and faith which Mr. Benn takes more frankly for his theme. The point of view of both writers is the same, and their literary methods are not greatly dissimilar. The chief difference is that, where Sir Leslie attacks the opponents of rationalism with irony and dry humor, his successor uses the heavier but less effective bludgeon of contempt. Apart from greater literary cunning, it cannot be said that the victory is always with the earlier writer, and this comes out emphatically in a comparison of his work with Mr. Benn's third and fourth chapters, which by way of introduction run through the history of the eighteenth century. In one particular, indeed, Mr. Benn has a decided advantage; his knowledge of the classical sources of philosophy is far deeper than Sir Leslie's, and it is,

perhaps, owing to this that he succeeds in presenting such an author as Shaftesbury in true light, where Sir Leslie might have been expected to show his superiority, but where in reality he has gone all astray. Shaftesbury's "strongest antipathies are excited by that ugly phenomenon which our ancestors condemned under the name of enthusiasm," says Sir Leslie. That no doubt is the negative side of the "Characteristics," but without some such corrective as the following from Mr. Benn it quite misrepresents one of the most influential of English writers:

That enthusiasm from which even the cultivated Addison shrank with alarm was shown by the far higher culture of this young patrician to have no necessary connection with sour faces and narrow conventionalities. Greek in origin, it had been recognized by Greek philosophy as the secret of every great achievement in statesmanship, in creative art, and in speculative thought.

It is a pity that Mr. Benn glides so hastily over Bolingbroke, the other philosopher who quite escaped Sir Leslie's logical net.

Elsewhere, in dealing with such a work as the "Analogy," Mr. Benn becomes confused and loses his guiding thread. "Butler, and it is the great secret of his power," says Sir Leslie, "is always depressed by the heavy burden of human misery and corruption." It is because Mr. Benn has little imaginative sympathy with all this side of human nature, because his interest, so much more than Sir Leslie's, is bound up with the single faculty of the reason, that his work as a whole falls below its predecessor. In the wider sense of the word he fails through inability to mark literary values. The *homo rationalis*, as Mr. Benn himself remarks, is a pure abstraction, and it is the distinction of literature that it never forgets this fact, whereas in the last analysis Mr. Benn deplures, if he does not actually ignore, it. Here, however, the fruitful comparison is not with the work of Leslie Stephen, but with such a history as Sainte-Beuve's "Port-Royal," where a religious and philosophical controversy is made part of the presentation of a whole civilization, and reason is properly related to the other faculties of man. Such a comparison shows how much nearer to the truth literature may approach than pure philosophy.

In the end this literary criticism must be directed against each of the two main parts of Mr. Benn's work, between which the survey of the eighteenth century lies as a kind of interlude. His first task is to analyze that conflict of reason and faith which he is later to follow historically, and here it would be hard to overpraise the subtlety and clearness of his argument. He does not veil his thesis. "Rationalism," he states frankly, "is the mental habit of using reason for the destruction of religious belief." His subtlety consists in showing how religious belief, or faith, shifts from one stronghold to another as it is attacked by reason. He begins with authority, which, under the form of a principle consciously entertained, is the oldest, the most widely diffused, and perhaps even now in the most advanced communities the most potent of all. At first this principle is obeyed unquestionably, but later there comes a time when these authoritative dicta are found to be at variance with one another or with the lessons of accumulat-

ed experience. The *quod semper, quod ubique*, is discovered to have endured but a little while, over a small portion of the earth. Driven from this outwork, faith makes its next stand in mysticism. All corporate feeling, whether evoked by family, school, army, city, country, or any other community, tends toward a personification through which the surrendered life of the component parts is returned to them in an enlarged and purified expression. "The peculiarity of communities constituted by identity of religious belief lies in their power of converting that belief into what we call faith, that is a belief held, if need be, against reason by virtue of a higher evidence than reasoning on facts of observation can afford. And this higher evidence is simply the self-consciousness of a creative act, which, in the words of the great Italian philosopher Vico, knows what it makes." The sense of communion is lifted up into an assumption of unity or contact with deity. But this very act carries with it a principle of anarchic and dispersive individuality destructive of the sense of community from which it springs. Skepticism follows, and this, too, becomes a bulwark of faith. A man knows nothing, and can know nothing; yet he eats and drinks, shows decided preferences, and exchanges information with his associates. All this, he tells you, is done by habit. Why, then, not go a step further and accept the prevalent religious dogmas as probably the safest, and certainly the easiest, course? This revulsion to faith through intellectual apathy may seem distinctly modern; as a matter of fact it is very old, and may be seen in the later schools of Greek philosophy and in their Roman disciple Cicero. But so obvious is the weakness of skepticism as a support to religion that commonly it merely serves to prepare the way for that last resource of struggling faith, the appeal to results. Here Mr. Benn feels compelled to create a new word to convey his meaning, and, as the term is really a valuable addition to our philosophic vocabulary, we may quote his explanation at some length:

For this, which I have called the method of appeal to results, there is no name in the English or any other language known to me, no single word answering to the three words traditionalism, mysticism, and skepticism, each of which sums up in itself a whole philosophy of faith. In these circumstances I propose with all diffidence to coin a new technical term; and Ophelism suggests itself to me as the most suitable that can be devised. It is formed from the Greek *ὀφελος*, "use," and therefore has etymologically the same force as Utilitarianism, a word that would have answered our purpose had it not been already appropriated as the denomination of a well-known ethical system, the system of those who hold that the ultimate end of action should be to promote the greatest happiness of the greatest number. Ophelism, on the other hand, has to do with belief rather than with action, or with action only so far as it is determined by and justifies belief. But there is this much resemblance between the two, that ophelism, in at least one of its forms, measures the truth and falsehood of propositions by the same standard that utilitarianism applies to the value of actions, in other words, by the amount of pleasure or pain that their acceptance is calculated to produce.

This "ophelism" may be intellectual, corresponding to the mental attitude of those who hold that certain propositions, otherwise unproved, must be accepted because

their rejection would involve the surrender of other propositions which we are bound to believe; or it may be ethical, springing from the fear that morality would perish without the belief in God and the control of the church. This last appeal to results is also, according to Mr. Benn, doomed to failure, less from its logical irrelevance than because it exhibits with such startling clearness the essential incompatibility of the religious with the ethical ideal. In the end ophelism, like mysticism and skepticism, tends to resolve itself into a mere reliance upon authority, and we are thus brought round in a vicious circle.

It is in one sense, of course, a grave injustice to reduce a chapter of minute and powerful logic into so bald a summary, yet in no other way could the basis of Mr. Benn's history be laid bare. What he fails to perceive is that this very elusiveness of faith before its enemy reason shows that it is founded in a psychological *quod semper* of vastly greater force than the appeal to authority as that is commonly understood. He forgets that the *homo rationalis* is a mere abstraction. Reason may dissolve the forms which religion assumes and re-assumes; it has no hold upon the faculty which creates the necessity of religion. As the greatest of Mr. Benn's masters, David Hume, once wrote: "What peculiar privilege has this little agitation of the brain, which we call thought, that we must thus make it the model of the universe?" Mr. Benn's rationalism falls ultimately as an argument because it is insufficiently literary, because, that is, it fails to blend and consider together the whole intellectual, imaginative, and spiritual nature of man.

And this same defect is displayed even more evidently in the main portion of the book devoted to the actual history of rationalism in the nineteenth century. It is, considering the purpose of the work, a relatively small matter that the distinctly literary judgments scattered here and there are feeble, if not perverse. Yet, even in a treatise, professedly rational and un-literary, we are a little shocked to find Walter Scott described as one who worked up romantic materials into classic forms, and are a good deal more shocked to read that Wordsworth could at no time in his life be identified with the romantic tendency. To misconceive the philosophy of romanticism so totally argues some considerable misconception of the springs of human nature. Nor does the arid and flipbrant chapter on Tennyson's mysticism bring reassurance. We are not surprised, therefore, to find a certain insufficiency in the chapter on the philosophy of Coleridge, which opens the reactionary movement of the century. Mr. Benn dissects the inconsistencies and waverings of Coleridge's metaphysical system, or lack of system, with merciless vigor. All this is well and legitimate. But it seems to us, nevertheless, that a still higher criticism would find a striking unity—or shall we say imaginative tendency?—underlying all of Coleridge's intellectual vagaries. It is this latent and sub-intellectual unity which gave him so much weight with his own generation and the generations that immediately succeeded; and just because Mr. Benn fails with his rationalistic plumb-line to reach that

deeper stratum of Coleridge, he misses in part also the profound influence of his philosophy. Prof. Goldwin Smith was nearer the truth when he said that "Coleridge rather than Butler has been the anchor by which the intellect of England has ridden out, so far as it has ridden out, the storms of this tempestuous age."

On the other hand, where no other instrument is needed than Mr. Benn's shrewd rationalism, his argument often attains something like finality of persuasive clearness. We have never read anything better in its kind than the pitiless logic which is brought to bear on the inherent inconsistencies of Spencer's synthetic philosophy. Perhaps our admiration here has something of its etymological sense of wonder, for we should have expected to see Spencer treated more as a friend of the rationalist and less as a lurking enemy. It would only be fair to a work for which as a whole we have a very high regard, however much we may differ from its conclusions, if we were to draw copiously on this section concerned with the synthetic philosophy. But to summarize Mr. Benn's close argument, would he to weaken its force, if not quite to distort it. We must be content to refer the reader to the chapter itself, as indeed to the whole history of the Protean battle of reason and faith throughout the nineteenth century. The discussion is necessarily far less simple than Sir Leslie Stephen's account of the eighteenth century, and its dramatic unity correspondingly weaker; but it has a richness and variety that are not without their compensating interest.

A GREAT HUNGARIAN VIOLINIST.

Edouard Remenyi. By G. D. Kelley and G. P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

No one can read this volume on and by Remenyi without regretting sincerely that the eminent violinist did not live to carry out his intention of writing his memoirs. The specimens of his letters included in it justify the characterization of his mis-sives by one of his friends as "intensely interesting," and several of his essays are remarkably well written, as well as suggestive; whence we may infer that the story of his life from his own pen would have been a volume to treasure. However, what Gwendolyn Dunlevy Kelley and George P. Upton have written and collected makes an acceptable substitute; a volume which is much more than what they call it—"the skeleton of a work that might have been." Beside their own sketches of the artist, they have gathered reminiscences of the violinist's wife and half a dozen friends; tributes to his genius from the press; a collection of anecdotes; fourteen essays; and selections from the correspondence with Robert G. Ingersoll and other friends. There are also ten portraits.

Although Remenyi was born in Hungary, we might almost claim him as an American, for he was barely twenty when he first visited this country; it was here that he won many of his greatest triumphs; it was American life and scenery that inspired his best essays; and he died in San Francisco. He was of Jewish descent, his father's name having been Hoffmann, which

the son Hungarianized to Remenyi. His coming to the United States at so early an age was for political reasons. In life as in art he was always an ardent Hungarian, and his patriotic fervor was aroused, in 1848, by the uprising against Austria organized under the leadership of Kossuth. He wanted to be a soldier, but Gen. Görgey would not allow him to go to battle because he considered his violin a mightier weapon than the sword; so Remenyi was asked to encourage the soldiers to action by playing patriotic battle airs, which he did with surprising success. He played not only in camp, but went from village to village, arousing the inhabitants with the Racokzy march, with such tremendous effect that the Government became alarmed and issued an edict forbidding his playing with this purpose, under the penalty of death—surely one of the grandest tributes on record to the power of music. He refused to stop, but was at last compelled to flee.

Having little money, he came to America in the steerage. His first concert was given at Niblo's Garden, on January 19, 1850. Six months later he returned to Hamburg, where he made a remarkable discovery, which was nothing more or less than—Johannes Brahms. Schumann is the man who usually gets the credit of having discovered that composer; but to Remenyi belongs the honor of having been the first to recognize his ability and to introduce him (to Liszt) as a new genius. Brahms was at that time giving lessons in Hamburg for fifteen cents an hour. He was sent as a substitute for Remenyi's regular accompanist, who happened to be ill; and the violinist was so much impressed by his playing that he engaged him at once. So the two travelled together, paying their way by giving concerts at various places. To Brahms this association proved of incalculable value; for while Schumann's proclamation of him as the new "musical Messiah" called the attention of professionals to him, it was through his "Hungarian Dances" that he first came into vogue as a composer; and for these dances he was indebted to Remenyi.

The account of this affair given to the world by Remenyi (op. 82-95), after a silence of twenty years, does not show Brahms in a noble light. While the two were travelling, Remenyi used to kill time in the hotels at night by playing and composing Hungarian airs. These he submitted to Brahms, in whose judgment he had great confidence. Great was his surprise, in later years, to find his own melodies, with others well-known in Hungary, attributed to Brahms, who did not mention in the score the sources of his "Hungarian Dances." It was for this reason that the violinist never played the "Brahms" Hungarian Dances. He even had reason to fear that, had he played them, the public might have thought, to cite his own words, that he was "not playing them in the right way, inasmuch as they have been accustomed to hearing them given in a style totally different from my own, although I think you will concede that I ought to be the best judge of the manner in which my own compositions should be performed." Other composers have appropriated the Magyar airs of Remenyi as folk music (as they have the melodies of Grieg); and Mr.

Upton remarks that "if his Hungarian compositions and arrangements could be collected and carefully edited they would prove an important addition to the music of that nationality." A partial list of his pieces and arrangements is printed in the Appendix.

When Remenyi returned to Hungary the second time (in 1891; the first time was in 1860) he was, his son relates, "greeted with a reception very much like the one Admiral Dewey had on his return to America. I was with him then. Soldiers lined the streets from the depot to the hotel, and my father had to make speeches. I saw an old man at a way-station shake him by the hand and say that now he had seen Remenyi, he could die happy." This enthusiasm over him had two sources—remembrance of his youthful help in the war and pride at the honor he had since shed on his native country by his art and his success in familiarizing the whole globe with Hungarian melodies and the true Magyar way of playing them. He was one artistic globe-trotter *par excellence*. There are records of him in Egypt, Australia, Japan, China, Java, the Philippines, India, Ceylon, Madagascar, South Africa, and nearly every other corner of the globe. There would be long silences regarding his whereabouts, followed by lurid reports of shipwrecks, capture by cannibals, and assassination; but, fortunately, as in the case of Mark Twain, the reports of his death were always "grossly exaggerated."

Every one has read of how he played one day on the top of the Pyramid of Cheops. In India he played for native princes, and heard their musicians in return. In our own country he appeared at symphony concerts with Anton Seidl, but that did not prevent him from subsequently playing medleys of American airs at Colorado mining camps. On one of these occasions, when he was completely exhausted, after repeating his patriotic medley three times, the audience became a howling mob demanding more, standing on stairs, and demolishing the furniture. His last appearance was at the Orpheum Theatre in San Francisco, where there were similar outbreaks of frenzied enthusiasm. They proved too much for him. His physician had advised him not to play, but he disregarded the warning. He had just begun a new piece when he fell forward, unconscious, thus fulfilling his own prediction to a friend: "I shall die fiddling."

If we inquire into the cause of Remenyi's remarkable power over vaudeville audiences on the one hand, and such great connoisseurs on the other as Anton Seidl and Carl Schurz (who, when Minister of the Interior, once presented him with a watch, the case of which was inlaid with twenty-florin gold pieces of Kossuth's money of 1848), we shall perhaps find it chiefly in the facts that to him music was an actuality, not a mere accomplishment, and that he had a unique and fascinating personality. In the war of 1848, he learned to know the power of music as something infinitely more than a mere diversion; and such it remained to him all his life. "Art possesses me entirely," he wrote in one of his brief essays. "With me it is not an agreeable pastime; it is my life, my blood, my everything." And he played like one of whom this was true. How utterly unconventional his performance was

we realize from such remarks by himself, his friends, and the critics, as these: "I always improvise my variations before the audience, never playing them twice alike, and, before commencing to play, generally commend myself to the good will and charity of some musical guardian angel not to leave me in the lurch." Remenyi was impatient of any break in the stillness of a room in which he was playing, and often he would wander back and forth, his instrument in hand, his music growing fainter and fainter, as he moved farther away, and swelling as he returned, perhaps, to lean against a table or a chair, playing with eyes all but closed." Apparently absent-minded, "he rarely seems to realize that an audience is in front of him until he is awakened as from a dream by the applause."

With his complete tonsure, he looked so much like a priest that once, at a Colorado camp, a miner called out: "Hello, old man! give us your blessing first!" He was as abstemious as an anchorite. To his vegetarian diet he attributed his remarkable vigor, firmness of muscle, and strength of arm. It is to this peculiarity that Col. Ingersoll referred in a note, dated December 27, 1897: "This is letter No. 2. I forgot to say in the first that we would have baked apples, milk, and bread like the soles of shoes. You can get fat. Apples and Art, Bran and Brain, Milk and Music—what a blessed Trinity!" Remenyi's own letters are a quaint mixture of languages, puns, colloquialisms, superlatives, fun, and enthusiasm. Of his essays, the one on "Popular Music" is to be commended particularly. Two sentences will show its drift: "What beautiful strains we possess in his [John Bull's] glees, madrigals, merry songs, and jolly, jolly hornpipes! Don't laugh—those hornpipe dancing tunes are very fine, a thousand times finer and better than thousands of pale-faced uncharacteristic compositions of our own day." In "American versus European Civilization," he takes issue with those who disparage our country, so far as the people are concerned; and in "Love of Natural Scenery," he waxes eloquent over our Indian summer foliage and our mountains: "A Rousseau, a Dupré, could have painted in these valleys for fifteen thousand years, and could only have been at the beginning, just as Calame could have gorged his unquenchable thirst for glorious wild rocks and alpine grandeur in Colorado, New Mexico, and in some parts of Arizona for ages"; remarks which help to explain Remenyi's power over his audiences.

The Revival of Aristocracy. By Oscar Levy. Translated by Leonard A. Magnus. London: Probsthain & Co.

Prophets are wont to be hopelessly out of joint with their times, and men of genius are often difficult of comprehension to their contemporaries; but it is also true that a man may easily be both difficult of comprehension and out of joint with his time, and yet be neither a prophet nor a genius. We fear that this is the situation with Dr. Levy, if indeed he really means what he says. In his main thesis he is plain enough. Our modern civilization is a gloomy swale of inanity into which humanity has sunk through the mawkish Christian notion of

human brotherhood and equality. Napoleon aimed at the revival of aristocracy, but the age was too paltry to recognize and grasp the hand held out to it. Napoleon passed, and the flood of triumphant Christian Democracy swept over the world unchecked. "For the first time in the world's history Christianity was not only believed in (which is comparatively harmless) but practised and made real." The common people, under the fructifying sunshine of this universal love, married and multiplied, and being now without their natural aristocratic leaders fell into strife among themselves. "Everywhere the weak met the weak in combat, crowding, scuffling, hot, and angry; and, thanks to the prevailing principle of humanity, the weak ever multiplied and increased, and with every decade their leaderlessness became greater." The abdicating aristocrats, instead of clubbing the herd down to its proper level, even contaminated their gentlemen's blood by marriages with their servants, and naturally "European noses grew flatter, foreheads narrower, the ironical smile became rarer, eyes smaller, glinting more craftily, and with less divine composure." In place of that peace which consciousness of an ideal (the aristocratic ideal) confers on man came "neurasthenic spasms, an atmosphere of haste and scurry." So much have the pitiable virtues of Christianity done for the world!

But into this Cimmerian darkness three genial sunbeams have penetrated—Stendhal, Goethe, and Nietzsche. If it does not seem natural to classify Goethe with the other two, that is because the cat was too cautious to display his claws unnecessarily. "Goethe was an expert hypocrite, borrowing from cats their noiseless step, and concealing his carnivorous nature under a prudent sheepskin—*vulgo*, ministerial coat; clad in which, and bedecked with orders, he used to promenade about like an ordinary man." Goethe died, completely misunderstood by every mortal of his time except Heine, and after his death "an atrophy of intellect in history unparalleled seized upon Europe." Men jargoned of the altruistic life, and blamed their unvirtuousness "if two doses a day were not swallowed of the bitter medicaments, self-sacrifice and self-denial." And then the third gleam of a possible daybreak came in the form of Friedrich Nietzsche. Changing the figure, with our author, "the voices of Stendhal and Goethe have been only as the mumbling under earth of spirits of a healthier epoch long bygone; with Nietzsche the volcano shot up, and over the crosses and cloisters and torture-chambers of Christendom there burst the glowing lava-stream of heathendom, fated to sweep away the ancient civilization, ready to rebuild a home for a happier posterity." The author's faith in the success of this summons to a revived and happy heathenism wavers somewhat. Protestantism, democracy, industry, are nowadays triumphant all along the line, and with the Germans and English so deeply rooted in these Teutonic virtues there is little hope from the North. There, "a solitude called civilization could be made; but in Italy, to her good luck, heathen passions have never been entirely uprooted." And again, "To this wondrous people's eternal glory, they never through all the ages of Christendom have taken Christianity seriously. . . . In Italy

heaven was not deemed worth earthly buffings, nor the Christian faith a dagger thrust. The Italian stabbed to satisfy himself and not his God." And so Italy, building on Stendhal and Goethe and Nietzsche, may take the lead in "conferring on men more strength and mirth through more suffering; that the feeble may go to the wall and the strong find either slaves they can command or opponents worthy of them, on whom to steel and test their strength." But we have gone perhaps farther than necessary in the effort to give adequate samples of the substance and quality of Dr. Levy's book. The translation is dedicated in a special preface to the English, who are quizzically advised not to read it and assured that if they do they will most likely altogether misunderstand it. The desire to stir up a storm is evident on every page, but there is little indication that the key to the cave of the winds is in the author's hands.

The Constitutional Decisions of John Marshall. Edited, with an Introductory Essay, by Joseph P. Cotton, jr. Two vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$10 net.

This is an elaborate study of Marshall's judgments, designed for both laymen and lawyers. It is a complete collection of all his decisions, both in the Supreme Court and on circuit, and is therefore fuller (though not, we think, better) than John M. Dillon's collection published three years ago, and annotated by himself and John F. Dillon. In both books the notes take the form of legal, critical, and historical essays on the text of the decisions, so that the reader is furnished with a gloss or comments of a valuable sort. The present volumes are the work of a lawyer who has aimed at popularizing his subject; we should be very glad to think that he had succeeded, for a United States in which these decisions should become widely studied and read would certainly be an extremely enlightened and probably soon an exceptionally well-governed country.

Marshall's decisions, however, important and enduring as they are, do not lend themselves to the attempt. They are too strictly legal to be capable of complete comprehension save by lawyers and publicists trained in this special field, although here and there the principles laid down, as in the case of the great rule on the subject of the obligation of contracts, and the control of the judiciary over unconstitutional legislation, have become matters of common knowledge. They can never be made a hand-book of the Constitution like the "Federalist" (essays written for a popular audience). They are the decisions of a very great judge, who had the good fortune to be able to develop and expound a new branch of jurisprudence. Marshall did this for American constitutional law as Sir William Scott did it for a great branch of international law; and as his subject involves the most important legal questions of government which can engage the attention of statesmen and publicists or affect the public welfare, so his judgments must always be, for us, those of our greatest judge. But they appeal to the enlightened reason and conscience; there is little in them to touch the fancy or arouse the curiosity of the general public. What can be done to make them intelligible by and commend them to the at-

tention of that public, the present editor accomplishes by means of very readable historical notes, which bring before us dramatically the men, the times, and the situation. This critical study of the decisions presents an analysis of Marshall's exposition of the Constitution, proving and carrying on, to use his own language, "the opinions of the late Prof. James Bradley Thayer, of the Harvard Law School, who more than any other man of recent years has contributed to the better understanding of Marshall's genius."

For this technical criticism we must refer the reader to the book. It does not seem to us to throw any distinctly new light on what Marshall did, and, indeed, the editor seems to regard that as practically impossible. The new light in which he has himself made his studies seems to be that of the recent decisions of Marshall's court in the "Northern Securities" and "Insular" cases; and while fully agreeing that this may fairly be done, we are inclined to doubt whether a patriotic bias has not led Mr. Cotton to find in those decisions a radiance and illumination where others of high authority have found a discouraging obscurity. At any rate, it seems going pretty far to say of Marshall's general language in *McCullough v. Maryland* on the subject of implied powers, that it is the "judicial warrant" for "the power of our Presidents in grasping and establishing colonial empires."

What may be called Marshall's system really consisted of two parts, which have, at bottom, very little to do with one another: first, the subordination of State authority, wherever it conflicted with the constitutional power granted to the central authority (Federalism); second, the subordination of the Legislature to the Judiciary as the final arbiter of constitutional questions. One was political; the other legal—the great underlying principle of American constitutional law. The views of Marshall relating to the first subject proved completely triumphant. Of the old States-rights theories hardly a vestige is left. In his efforts to establish the second he was by no means so successful: the Dartmouth College case is still accepted as law, but the principle of the decision is so hedged about with qualifications and limitations that it has grown to have less importance to-day than any one would have dreamed possible fifty years ago. The development of the "police power" in the last fifty or sixty years has given all legislatures a weapon of the most formidable sort in their struggle with the judiciary.

We are inclined to think that much confusion would be avoided if commentators in future would endeavor to keep the line between these two parts of the system of Marshall distinct, and that, once clearly traced, it would show that there is no evidence for the opinion that the principles of Marshall's decisions are logical props for an omnipotent Congress. The recent decisions giving Congress plenary power over the "colonies" did not raise any of the old States-rights questions at all; they turned on the power of the Federal legislature under the Federal Constitution. Would Marshall have held that Congress could lay duties on articles imported from the Philippines, in the face

of a clause in the Constitution requiring that "all duties . . . shall be uniform throughout the United States"? There was nothing in his Federalism which would have prevented him from denying to Congress any such power, and Loughborough vs. Blake looks very much as if he would have denied it, as the other theory underlying his system would have inclined him to do.

If the line which separates those of Marshall's decisions directed against the old doctrine of States-rights from those dealing with the fundamental questions of property, contract and common constitutional right, against which legislative attacks are generally directed, be kept in view, he will, we believe, always be found in the latter the staunch enemy of the encroachments of any legislature, as he was in the former the constant supporter of the supremacy of the Federal authority. If this be true, no effort to make him responsible for those theories of constitutional law which give Congress the power to "extend" the Constitution or at its pleasure to withhold it from territorial possessions, will be successful.

The Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania. Vols. XIV. and XV. Documents from the Temple Archives of Nippur. By Albert T. Clay. University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia. 1906.

Somewhere about 1700 B. C. the Cassites or Cossæans, from the mountains eastward of Babylonia, overran and conquered the latter country and established there a dynasty which is said to have reigned 576 years. The University of Pennsylvania expedition to Babylonia discovered at Nippur large quantities of documents belonging to these Cassite rulers, of whom up to that time very little had been known. The first considerable discovery of documents of that period was made during the second campaign, 1889-1890. Some 300 complete tablets and a large quantity of fragments, all baked, were found buried in the ground, just outside of and beneath the level of a very interesting building, about the origin and date of which there has been considerable controversy, the palace of the Court of Columns. These tablets were identified as archives, containing records of payments for the temple service, etc. Later in the same campaign large numbers of tablets of the same period, chiefly unbaked, were found at other places, and in the later expeditions apparently still larger numbers of tablets, mostly unbaked, of the same general period were discovered; the whole constituting an amount of material of very considerable proportions from a theretofore almost unknown period.

The 363 tablets and fragments of tablets published in these two volumes cover the reigns of eight kings, extending over 131 years, in the fourteenth and thirteenth pre-Christian centuries. Most of these tablets are derived, Dr. Clay tells us, from the original discovery described above. These were clearly identified as temple archives. He says further: "Owing to the unfortunate fact that the provenance of much of the material excavated at Nippur is not known, there are some tablets here published which doubtless did not belong to the official archives, discovered in the northern or southern sections of the city, but are of a

private character" (vol. xlv., p. 2). It seems to us regrettable that those whose provenance is known and which came from a certain definite collection found in a certain definite place, which constitute the great bulk of the tablets here published, should not have been indicated by some mark which would enable the student to identify them.

In the introduction we find a very brief discussion of "a few points of historical importance which have come to light through the study of these documents" (vol. xiv., p. 3), viz., "the number of years that each king here represented reigned according to the dating of the tablets," the correct name, Kadashman-Bel, of a certain disputed king, and the meaning of a certain title. But these are rather points of historical unimportance. Surely Dr. Clay must have derived more historical material of greater importance than this for the Cassite period from his study of the tablets published in these volumes and the hundreds more collated by him. One obvious historical value of dated tablets is to establish or correct chronology. Now in vol. i., part i., of this series of publications Professor Hilprecht gave a chronology of the last twenty-four kings of the Cassite dynasty, of part of which he somewhat characteristically said that it "must be regarded as absolutely correct." The dated tablets in these two volumes fall almost entirely in this part, and neither as to names of kings, order of succession nor length of reigns do these seem altogether to agree with Professor Hilprecht's list. We certainly should have expected, in the discussion of "a few points of historical importance" in the introduction to the publication of these Cassite tablets, something about the light they throw on the chronology of that period.

While these volumes are numbered xiv. and xv. they are really only the fifth and sixth of the series of texts from Nippur. The first volume, by Professor Hilprecht, the publication of which began in 1893, contained old Babylonian inscriptions from 3000 to 2000 B. C. Then followed in 1898 vol. ix., "Business Documents," of the years 464-424 B. C., by Hilprecht and Clay. Six years later, in 1904, appeared vol. x., "Business Documents," of the years 421-404 B. C., also by Clay. In the current year we have part I. of vol. vi., by H. Ranke, and vols. xiv. and xv., by Clay, all covering periods in the second millennium before Christ. In thirteen years there have been published six volumes of the texts found at Nippur. We are glad to see that the rate of publication is being accelerated.

These volumes follow the same scheme as the preceding volumes of this series. The main body of the work consists of a very careful facsimile pen and ink copy of the texts of the tablets, seventy-two full-page plates in each volume, with a dozen or fifteen plates of photographic reproductions. To these are prefixed tables of contents, concordances of proper names, lists of signs used and introductions dealing with various matters of interest, the introduction ordinarily containing a few transliterations and translations of specimen texts. And precisely here it seems to us that the editorial scheme of the series is faulty, in comparison, for example, with the publications of the French exploration in Susa, which, al-

though appearing with great promptness, contain transliterations and translations of all the texts published.

The Cassite tablets, it must be frankly admitted, are not in themselves documents of general interest. They are records of taxes, or rather rates collected, loans made, receipts for seed, cattle, grain, etc., and salary receipts from various temple officials, material to which only an expert hand can impart the form of life. One or two are pay-rolls, lined perpendicularly for the months (in one case for a whole year, with divisions into two periods of six months), and horizontally for the names and official positions of the persons on the pay-roll. In a list of payment of grain and dates as temple stipends for twelve months during the thirteenth year of Nazi-Maruttash there are forty-six names on the pay-roll. Of these four are marked as *harranu*, "on the road," or absent by permission or on business and receiving no pay. Three, against whose names no payment is entered, are marked as dead. Three "bread-grinders," one "gateman," and a woman, who is described as some one's daughter, are marked as *HA-A*, which Dr. Clay supposes to mean *halqu*, "fugitive." There are two more names with no payment attached and no explanation given. In all, out of the forty-six persons, fourteen for various reasons draw no pay. In some cases whole families appear on these pay-rolls, it would seem as though of hereditary right; and *vice versa* it would seem that the temple had an hereditary claim on them, and that they were bound to its service without their own consent; hence the "fugitives." The titles of many of the officials are not clear. In fact we as yet know very little about the organization of a Babylonian temple. It is clear that the system of administration was very highly developed. There was a huge army of functionaries and employees. The temple was a great corporation, owning lands, houses, and cattle, and engaging in industries. But Dr. Clay has not been able to interpret his material in such a manner as to throw new light on the methods of organization and administration.

The amount of labor expended on these volumes, both in the exact autographing of the text and also in the careful examination of all sorts of details, is enormous. Dr. Clay has made a series of experiments to determine the precise form of the stylus and the way in which it was used. He has experimented on the manufacture of case tablets to determine how the envelope of clay was placed over the interior tablet. He has shown that many tablets found without envelopes were originally "case tablets." When payment was made, the envelope was broken, but the inner tablet preserved for record. In minute and painstaking labor Dr. Clay excels. His autographic copies of the tablets leave little to be desired. His carefully garnered lists of proper names, place names, names and epithets of deities, contain material of much value to future students. In the broader field of the interpretation of the tablets and their utilization for chronology, for history, to reveal the life of the men who wrote them, the field of the introduction, his work is disappointing. We regret to have to add that the style is involved and cumbersome; the

actual meaning of a passage is often difficult to determine; and some sentences are absolutely ungrammatical. There are also several mistakes due to careless proof-reading. The mechanical execution of these volumes is, as in the case of the previous volumes, irreproachable.

Cultes, Mythes, et Religions. By Salomon Reinach. 2 vols. Paris: Ernest Leroux.

Under the foregoing title, which is almost a translation of the title of one of Andrew Lang's most familiar books, Salomon Reinach has brought together in two volumes seventy of his essays and reviews dealing with the history of religions, and a third volume of similar character is promised. Although the work consists entirely of republished materials (in some instances revised and brought up to date), it deserves more than passing notice. The articles, originally scattered through a number of literary and technical periodicals, are bound together by a unity of subject and method and constitute something like the chapters of a coherent treatise. If they occasionally repeat one another, they also confirm and illustrate one another; and the two prefaces supplement them all by a brief general exposition of the religious theory of the author. Thus it is more than a mere matter of practical convenience to have the essays in a single work. The material, it is hardly necessary to say, is of great interest, for the learning and acumen of M. Reinach are familiar to students of all branches of archaeology, and the present collection only brings new and impressive evidence of his extraordinary productivity. He disavows all claim to originality for his general theory and method, and declares himself a follower of the English anthropological school. He acknowledges particular indebtedness to MacLennan, Tylor, Lang, Frazer, and Jevons, and most of all to the late Prof. Robertson Smith, to whose memory the work is dedicated. In the introduction to the first volume he describes his efforts to spread the knowledge of their work among Continental scholars, and he makes the surprising statement that in the year 1900 Mommsen had never heard of a totem.

M. Reinach's own doctrines are in some respects more "totemistic" than those of his masters. Andrew Lang, for example, has taken exception to his explanation of the Christian communion as a survival of the totemistic feast, and to his theory that the domestication of animals was a result of their preservation by a religious "taboo." In support of the former opinion, which M. Reinach really based upon Robertson Smith, interesting considerations are urged in the chapter on the death of Orpheus in the second volume, but the evidence is still far from complete. With regard to the domestication of animals, M. Reinach appears to us to invert the relation of cause and effect. His theory, however, is consistent with his whole conception of the preëminent importance of religion, or of the magic which represented it, in the life of primitive man. Religion, and not utility, he maintains, lay behind the development of all the practical arts. Primitive piety, and not necessity, was the mother of invention. The discovery of fire, the working of metals, and the culture of cereals, as well as the domestication of animals, he would attribute to the

priest or magician. Rationalism itself, which he declares will ultimately supplant religion, was at first a product of it. Starting with this fundamentally religious, or superstitious, state of society, he defines the history of mankind as a progressive "laicization," which is still far from being accomplished, and in a few vivacious pages of his second preface (volume ii., pages xv. ff) he sketches the course of this process in the religions of Europe. The Reformation he describes as a retrogression from the rationalism of fifteenth century Italy, brought about by the ascendancy of German barons and peasants, newly born to intellectual life. Now the crude Protestant world has in turn been largely rationalized, and M. Reinach predicts for the twentieth century the further extension of enlightenment to the lower classes of the population who have never attained it hitherto. This formula is doubtless inadequate, both for the analysis of modern religion and for the conjectural reconstruction of primitive life, but M. Reinach's statement of it is earnest and vigorous, and his application of it to special problems is fertile in suggestions.

It is, of course, impossible here to give suitable consideration to the individual essays in the collection. Within the general field of the science of religion they deal with a large variety of topics, ranging from the origin of modesty to the recent controversy about "Babel und Bibel," or the writings of the Abbé Loisy. One chapter discusses a passage in Lucan and another seeks to defend the very doubtful religious interpretation of Virgil's fourth Eclogue. Others are concerned with the analysis of ancient myths or of mediæval legends. The most connected treatment is given to totemism and the taboo, which are studied in the first volume with reference to the domestication of animals, to marriage, and to the origin of sacrifice. A number of important chapters in the same volume deal with the religion of the ancient Celts, and on this subject, as on many others, M. Reinach's opinions are destructive of accepted doctrine. We cannot agree with him in his total denial of the existence of any Celtic pantheon, but we fully recognize that much of the Celtic mythology that has been constructed will not stand his searching scrutiny.

A Memoir of Jacques Cartier. By J. P. Baxter. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

We have brought together here a considerable variety of contents. The Memoir itself is an essay of about fifteen thousand words, and occupies less than one-seventh of the space. In point of bulk the body of the book is taken up with a translation of Cartier's three 'Voyages,' a bibliography of works relating to the mariner, and an itinerary which follows his advance from day to day. Several collateral documents, such as Roberval's 'Voyage' and the 'Course of Jean Alphonse,' are also given, besides sundry papers from the archives of St. Malo. To conclude the list, we may mention the publication in facsimile of an important manuscript which was found as far back as 1867 in the Bibliothèque Impériale. This is the account, probably prepared by Cartier himself, of the voyage made in 1534. It dif-

fers in several respects from the version given in Ramusio, and may be taken to represent the earliest narrative of this enterprise which we possess. Mr. Baxter not only gives an independent translation of the 'Voyages,' but supplies extensive notes. We have not been able to make out from the Memoir that Mr. Baxter has added much to former knowledge regarding the antecedents of Cartier or the circumstances under which he set forth to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Such material, for example, as Mr. H. P. Biggar has been collecting for the past few years (material which will soon be rendered accessible to the public), is excluded from the present work. Mr. Baxter, however, has collected all the essential data now available, and has given value to his geographical notes by going over in person the region which Cartier explored. One rather interesting fact which Mr. Baxter's researches have elicited, is that Cartier's 'Voyages' have been translated only into Italian and English. "I was not aware of this," he says, "until I began to prepare a bibliography of the literature relating to them, but I found, upon application to the principal libraries of Russia, Sweden, Germany, Holland, and Spain, that they possessed only French versions." Despite his perfidy in kidnapping Donnacona and other Indians, Mr. Baxter rightly gives Cartier credit for ranking among the creditable rather than the disreputable discoverers of the sixteenth century. This volume, which seems to have been a true labor of love, is a worthy tribute to his memory. Printed at the De Vinne Press, the typography deserves a special word of praise.

The Life and Letters of Alfred Ainger. By Edith Sichel. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.50 net.

The "Life" of a man like Canon Ainger is easily written and he ran no risk of an unsympathetic or indiscreet biographer. He lived the dignified, well-ordered existence of the English ecclesiastic of secondary rank. His canonry and the readership and mastership at the Temple came to him without effort and were the rewards of a charming voice, a lively wit, and an exquisitely correct taste in literature. Sydney Smith, in his day, was not more invited out, but Ainger's jests were never mordant and few are likely to survive. They were apt to be intricate and they depended on the associations of the moment. Many of them, like that on Hæwais's baby, "Pa will mind your music, but who will mind your morals?" or the epigram on Mr. Le Gallienne, which ends:

O give us more of the godly heart
And less of the Bodley Head,

will soon need a commentary and owe their merit to their spontaneity. Ainger was in fact a humorist rather than a wit. Sydney Smith himself said he was convinced that the tendency of wit is "to corrupt the understanding and harden the heart," and Ainger was fond of repeating Pascal's "Disseur de bons mots, mauvais caractère." He was a rare instance of the heart getting the better of a sharp tongue.

His personality was so entirely out of the common, like Lamb's or Stevenson's, that no one who had once seen him could ever forget his frail figure, frequent gestures, and worn ascetic face. His career was de-

termined by the fascination of his voice, which so charmed the Benchers of the Temple when he presented himself, young and unknown, as a candidate for the readership, that they elected him unanimously to that coveted post. He lived and died among the associations of the Temple, and filled the Temple church with the most distinguished congregation in London. His lecturing grew out of his sermons, and his favorite subject was Shakspeare, which gave him a chance to display his great talent for acting. He had the whimsical, fantastic temperament of his favorite, Charles Lamb, and Elia will never have a more sympathetic editor. He was, of course, an exceptionally well read man, and when he speaks, on page 261, of Menander as quoted by S. Paul (he should have said, of course, Aratus) the slip of the tongue is obvious.

Miss Sichel's biography derives its chief interest from the letters, especially those to and from Du Maurier, who was Ainger's closest friend. Ainger's delight in *Punch*, over which he used to "write with amusement" every week, is less mysterious when one remembers that he furnished many of the jokes that were illustrated by Du Maurier. Less easy to explain is his passion for punning. The habit was ingrained, and though he often kept back an unkind witticism he was never known to resist a bad pun. In the first of the excellent full-page portraits in Miss Sichel's volume one may see clear evidence of that French Huguenot descent on which Ainger prided himself. The book is well got up and light for its size.

Animal Snapshots and How Made. By Silas A. Lottridge. Illustrated with photographs from nature by the author. New York: Henry Holt & Co. Pp. xv, 338. Price, \$1.75.

Mr. Lottridge has spent many of his annual vacations in the field, photographing and studying wild life. In the present volume he has woven his observations upon some of the familiar animals and birds of eastern North America into a series of short life histories, which he has illustrated with the products of his camera.

The book is divided into two parts, the first of which deals with mammals and discloses an intimate knowledge of the affairs of such forms as the fox, woodchuck, skunk, raccoon, opossum, muskrat, white-footed mouse, and squirrel. The pictures are uniformly good, while some of the series, for instance of the woodchuck and the muskrat, are splendid. To one familiar with the difficulties of outdoor mammal photography, they speak of great patience and prolonged effort.

The second part of the book is devoted to birds, and opens with a chapter on migration, in which our present knowledge of this complex subject is reviewed at some length. Of the birds as of the mammals the author has selected the well-known forms rather than the rare. They have not been chosen from any one group, but cover the greater part of the land birds in their range; and although the reader may be familiar with the bluebird, the robin, swift, bobolink, woodcock, crow, great-horned and screech owls, and the hen and sparrow hawks, to each of which a chapter is devoted, he will, nevertheless, find many in-

teresting notes about their daily life and domestic affairs. These sketches, too, are illustrated by good photographs, those of the great horned owl and the red-tailed hawk being especially fine. There is also a chapter on the photographer's outfit, which has many helpful suggestions, especially for the beginner. With the apparatus here described and an endless store of patience he may add many ornamental and valuable trophies to his collection of photographs.

The New Sketch-Book. By W. M. Thackeray. Edited with an Introduction by R. S. Garnett. London: Alston Rivers, Limited.

The volume consists of a number of reviews originally published in the *Foreign Quarterly* from April, 1842, to July, 1844, now collected and attributed by the editor to Thackeray. None of the subjects is of first-rate importance; Hugo's "Le Rhin," Dumas's "Crimes Célèbres," Balzac's "La Presse Parisienne," and Sue's "Les Mystères de Paris," are perhaps the most notable. Nor do they include any very remarkable criticism. Their interest consists almost exclusively in the ascription to Thackeray. The evidence upon which the editor relies to substantiate his assertion is mainly internal, with the exception of that which may be called coincidental. For instance: "In 1842 Thackeray wrote to Edward Fitzgerald that he had read, . . . by way of amusement, Victor Hugo's new book on the Rhine. 'He is very great, and writes like a God Almighty,' continues Thackeray." "And on the first page of the review . . . we find him parodying Victor Hugo, who is very great; and on the third page he shows him posed as a divinity." The argument from style is equally conclusive or not as you look at it, particularly as it is not the mature and inimitable manner of the novelist which it would be likely to resemble under the circumstances, but rather the more or less conventionalized medium of the journalist or the hack. As it happens, then, no one but an expert, a thorough student of Thackeray's style on all subjects and at all periods, would be able to pronounce with assurance upon the authenticity of the papers. And yet there are passages here and there which would probably strike the ordinarily attentive reader as Thackerayan in tone and sentiment, even if he had never been warned of them. Such little terms and phrases as a "how d'ye do vein of eloquence"; such an apostrophe as "Ah, Monsieur Hugo—be careful of your jocularly, you are at best but a poor hand at wit; your pleasantries are for the most part old, very old, and weak, and stale. If joke you will, gibe at the rich as a philosopher may, but do not sneer at the poor"; or such a very characteristic tirade on snobbery as occurs in the "German in England:" "What a strange, simple adulation it is that we pay to that picture of an English coronet; we who look down with such grand contempt upon all foreign titles, talking of swindling French counts, beggarly German barons, shabby Italian princes, with lofty indifference and scorn!" These are certainly very like—as is also the general resemblance to Thackeray's partialities and prejudices. On the whole, the editor appears to have made out a

fair case; and the curious may be referred to his own presentation of it in the third section of his Introduction. For the matter is, after all, of small consequence, except to the curious; the essays, even if they are Thackeray's, will add nothing of value to his literary monument, and will merely serve, in future editions, as so much additional lumber to a work which is bulky enough already.

James, the Lord's Brother. By William Patrick, D.D. New York: Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.00 net.

In a book of some 350 pages purporting to be a biography of a man about whom little information is to be had, there are naturally lengthy observations on minute questions, as well as inferences for which there is slight justification. There is really no means of knowing whether James studied Biblical Hebrew, or whether he could speak Greek, or whether he was instrumental in the conversion of his mother. The latter Principal Patrick pronounces "highly probable," and similar conjectures which have not the slightest foundation in fact abound in his pages. One of the first lessons in historical criticism is to learn that there are a host of questions which one has no business to ask, since the requisite data for their answering are not at hand. The author of this essay has not learned this lesson, and he can write a chapter of thirty pages on "James, from the Beginning of our Lord's Ministry to the Resurrection." There is, on the other hand, no adequate discussion of the authenticity of the Epistle. It is simply remarked that "the genuineness has been called in question, but improperly," and that the evidence in its favor "is more than adequate to convince any reasonable man." This is hardly respectful to those who hold the opposite view. Such an article as that of the late Orello Cone in the "Encyclopædia Biblica" demands more consideration. One wishes that Principal Patrick had endeavored to make clear how a loose collection of moral precepts such as the letter of James, the Book of Proverbs of the New Testament, which contains about as much information concerning Jesus as it does concerning Elijah the Tishbite, could have come from an own brother of the founder of Christianity, who was sufficiently in sympathy with the prophet of Nazareth to have become a leader in the Church in the days of its first enthusiasm and fire, when

Jesus the Messiah was its gospel in season and out of season, and when with expectant, exultant hearts, the Christians watched the heavens daily for the coming of their Lord. "James" is too calm, too quietly good, for the date to which Principal Patrick endeavors to ascribe it. In an essay which undertakes to present all that can be known concerning James, the Apostolic Council at Jerusalem described in Acts xv. naturally receives full treatment. The author has a brief for the traditional opinion. He insists on the reliability of the narrative in Acts and interprets Paul's words in harmony with it. This is not a new solution; it has been definitely abandoned by the majority of critics and Principal Patrick advances no good reasons for returning to it.

Confederate Operations in Canada and New York. By John W. Headley. New York: Neale Publishing Co. \$2.

John W. Headley is a cool hand, whence his extraordinary, if not altogether edifying, experiences at the time of the civil war. A Kentucky man, he joined the Confederate forces, and became mixed up in much of the guerrilla fighting and spying that fringed the contending armies with a wide zone of adventures. Some clever escapes from capture, and an in-born capacity for going nearly anywhere and doing anything marked him out for special service when, in 1864, Jeff Davis grew desperate and began to hit wildly. Then a few score Confederates, most of them escaped prisoners, began operations on the opposite frontier from Robert Lee, and in an opposite manner. The United States were invaded from the north. Forty Confederates held up the town, and, especially the banks, of St. Albans, Vt. Mr. Headley, with another band, effected a lodgment in New York city, via the New York Central, and, with a skill open to criticism but a coolness that compels amazement, prepared to burn down the city. This delightful feat, the details of which he now complacently offers to an insatiable public, was to celebrate (or perhaps accelerate is the word) McClellan's election to the Presidency; and, until a suitable date for the event could be fixed in agreement with a local Copperhead committee, our author, apparently bent on self-improvement, attended the then popular entertainments—Barnum & Bailey, Henry Ward Beecher, Tammany Hall, and Arte-

mus Ward. On the night of the 25th of November, 1864, the great and noble enterprise was carried out. Nineteen hotels and Barnum's Theatre were fired—for in what twenty localities could more innocent victims be found conveniently herded together? But, alas for Mr. Headley and his friends, a very few minutes sufficed to put the fires out, and he had to retreat, defeated, by sleeping car, to Canada. The police were all apparently in Virginia with Grant, or asleep.

Mr. Headley's book is mostly an inaccurate rehash of the facts of the civil war; but a few chapters contain an account of the New York affair that might, if better presented, have been interesting. As it is, the style is graceless as the narrative is shameless.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Analytical Holy Bible. Edited and arranged by Arthur Roberts. Carbondale, Ill.: Egyptian Publishing Co.
- Blum, Léon. En Lisant. Paris: Société d'Éditions Littéraires et Artistiques.
- Campbell, Frances. Dearlove. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50.
- Dancey, Mrs. Campbell. An Englishwoman in the Philippines. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.50 net.
- Dictionnaire International des Écrivains du Monde Latin. By Angelo de Gubernatis. iv and v.
- Fletcher, Ella Adella. The Philosophy of Rest. Dodge Publishing Co. 75 cents.
- Fogazzaro, Antonio. The Saint. Translated by Agnelli Pritchard. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Gausson, A. C. C. A Woman of Wit and Wisdom. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3 net.
- Kelly, Margaret Ducaan. Story of Sir Walter Raleigh. E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents.
- Kenyon, Orr. What God Hath (Not) Joined. Dodge Publishing Co. \$1.50.
- Lang, Andrew. Story of Joan of Arc. E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents.
- Lang, John. Story of Captain Cook. E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents.
- Lewis, C. M. Principles of English Verse. Holt & Co. \$1.25 net.
- Master-Man, The. John Lane. \$1.50.
- Michelson, Miriam. Anthony Overman. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1.50.
- Nabuco, Joaquim. Pensées Détachées. Paris: Hachette et Cie.
- Nelson's Encyclopædia. Vols. II. and III. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
- Newark, Newton. Recollections of a Gold Cure Graduate. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co. 75 cents.
- Quiller-Couch, A. T. From a Cornish Window. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50 net.
- Rickett, Arthur. Personal Forces in Modern Literature. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25 net.
- Russell, A. D., and A. A. Shurawady. First Steps in Muslim Jurisprudence. London: Luzac & Co.
- Stuclair, May. Audrey Craven. Holt & Co. \$1.50.
- Smith, F. Hopkinson. The Tides of Barnegat. Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.
- Tokyo Imperial University Calendar, 1905-1906. Published by the University.
- Vaux, Patrick. The Shock of Battle. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Vay de Vaya, and Luskud, Count. Empires and Emperors of Russia, China, Korea, and Japan. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$4 net.
- Volter, Daniel. Der Erste Petrusbrief Strassburg: J. H. Ed. Heitz.
- Washington, George. Letters and Recollections of. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$2.50 net.
- Webster's New Standard Dictionary. Intermediate School Ed. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
- Weston, Thomas. History of the Town of Middleboro, Massachusetts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$5 net.
- Whates, H. R. Canada, the New Nation. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50 net.

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Heredity in Royalty: A Statistical Study in History and Psychology.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 23, 1906.

The Week.

Mr. Root talked at Buenos Ayres very like an anti-Imperialist and an old-time believer in republics, democracies, and self-government. He spoke with warmth and grace, and his praise of the Argentine Republic was thoroughly to the point. That country is justifying our American faith in the ability of peoples to govern themselves, precisely as the Filipinos will after they have had a fair chance; and citizens of the United States who follow South American affairs have taken great comfort in Argentina's remarkable prosperity. As an ambassador of good-will and friendship, no one could have done better than Mr. Root in all his speeches thus far. But, unfortunately for the practical side of his mission, his lips are sealed on one subject. He cannot hold out to South Americans a prospect of closer trade relations. He cannot say to them: "By means of reciprocity treaties and otherwise, we shall now seek to have close and mutually profitable business ties with you." He cannot forget, if he would, that McKinley and Hay, after negotiating a reciprocity treaty with the Argentine Government, were forced to see it rejected by the Senate, and that the bold Roosevelt has not had the stomach for a contest with the stand-patters, on this or any other subject.

And he has topped off his successful trip to Argentina with a more explicit adherence to the Drago Doctrine than this country had yet made. In all his addresses he has struck the tone suitable for his Latin-American audiences, contriving to be both florid, sincere, and dignified. If one were to seek the unique merit of his various addresses, it would be found in their freedom from condescension. He has nowhere talked down to the South Americans, or admonished them as to their racial shortcomings, but throughout has treated them as equals of the United States. This was, to be sure, an obvious counsel of good breeding; but in view of previous dealings with South America, Mr. Root's course evinces positive originality. To assure these sister republics that, with all their faults, we love them still—to advertise them in our state papers as *enfants terribles*—is not precisely the way to win their abiding affection. Mr. Root is to be heartily congratulated upon rejecting the old formulas and following his instincts as a gentleman.

A victory, said Wellington, speaking

of the miseries of war, is only less terrible than a defeat; but last week's "Odell Victory" in the Republican State Committee is of a sort more disastrous to the party than any defeat. It shows that the Republican organization in New York—the President's State—is not only torn into factions, but is made a prey of by disreputable bosses using unscrupulous means. The long plotting by which the discredited and hated Odell, combining with the discredited and despised Platt, succeeded in retaining control of the State Committee, may be fun for the bosses, but it is death to the party. Such proceedings will dispose thousands of Republicans to forswear allegiance to a political organization that is now simply competed for by wreckers. And even if Gov. Higgins's friends had succeeded in defeating Odell by a vote or two, the result could have been little inspiring. A party that could be saved by a parcel of State officeholders, headed by Aldridge and Hendricks, would already be beyond saving. As for the Governor's own attitude, it seems to become more pitiful every day. Too timid to fight and too uncertain of himself even to run away, his course has both amused his enemies and disgusted those who try to be his friends. His telegram commenting on his own rebuff by Odell—that it has his "hearty approval" if it "proves to be in the interest of the Republican party"—certainly touches low-water mark for bathos and ineptitude. But the party all around is at low-water mark.

The resulting Democratic opportunity is magnificent. Never was there a finer chance to break the Republican hold on New York. A feeling akin to nausea pervades the people of the State as they contemplate the performances of the Republican bosses, big and little. Indeed, so strong is the contempt and anger aroused by the goings on of the party machine, so deep is the resentment at the complacent weakness of Higgins, that a "desire to punish" is reported as becoming more intense each day in all parts of the State. If the Democrats were to present a strong and clean candidate, on a sound platform, their triumph at the polls would be conceded by every impartial political observer. This is the situation which makes the call for Jerome so significant. There is a general sense that he could fire the party and inspire a campaign as could no other man in the public gaze. There is, to be sure, the Hearst menace, or diversion, or whatever it may be called. It plainly constitutes the only hope of the Republicans. But for Hearst, they would go into the struggle confess-

ing defeat in advance. But if the follies and vices of the Hearst movement have to be exposed and fought, who so well fitted for that work as Jerome? With him as Democratic nominee, we should have a leader whose fearless tongue would give us such just but blistering characterizations of Hearst and his motives as would make for the public well-being.

The Texas Democrats nominated their State candidates last week in their first trial of the new primary-convention law. Even before the convention was held, the press of the State was practically a unit in favor of the amendment, and especially the simplification, of this remarkable statute. The feature of it which most invites comment is its unique provision for preventing mere plurality nominations. The adoption of the direct primary in Wisconsin, Oregon, and Mississippi has meant the entire abandonment of the nominating convention. In Texas, however, the framers of the law devised an ingenious combination of the two methods of selecting candidates. The people vote on primary day for the candidates themselves, of whom there were four this year in Texas. Each county, meanwhile, has been allotted a certain number of votes in the convention. Suppose that in a county entitled to five convention votes there are 1,000 ballots actually cast in the primary; then 200 votes for a particular candidate will have the effect of peremptory instructions upon one delegate, 400 votes upon two delegates, and so on. The first ballot in convention is, in effect, merely a return of the vote in the primary. In this instance, it stood: Campbell 212½, Colquitt 169½, Bell 164½, and Brooks 155½. No one having a majority, the lowest candidate, Brooks, was eliminated. His delegates, except as some of them may have been instructed in the primary for the second or third ballots, were free to use their own judgment, and enough of them went to Campbell to nominate him. If they had not, Bell, the next lowest candidate, would have been dropped, and the same process repeated.

The immediate objection to this plan is that it is too complicated; but the real question is whether it is possible to combine the features of the convention and the primary system. Every one would probably agree that it is well for a convention to meet with so many of the delegates instructed that the ballot merely records the will of the rank and file of the party. But it is a virtue of the convention that, when there is no such agreement in advance, it, or its

leading spirits, can deliberate—or dicker—until some acceptable man is agreed upon. There was a time when an election itself, if carried by a mere plurality, was not regarded as valid. That feeling still persists in regard to plurality nominations. In Louisiana or Mississippi, when the primary election develops a majority for nobody, a second primary is held between the leaders, just as, two generations ago, in many of the States, a second election would be held in case no candidate received more than half of the votes at the first. That is as troublesome and expensive as possible, but it is simple and easily understood. In practice, the tendency is to eliminate all but two candidates before primary day. The Wisconsin law now permits nomination by a plurality, but all the candidates for Governor, we believe, are in favor of changing this provision. La Follette wanted an expression of second choice on every primary ballot, substantially the plan suggested here some years ago by Daniel S. Remsen, but the Legislature would have none of it.

The Statehood fight, as regards Arizona and New Mexico, having been transferred to those Territories themselves, there appear to be surprisingly few indications of any active campaign. Indeed, if we take the news dispatches as the sole authority, the large majority of both parties in Arizona must be opposed to joint Statehood which, of course, would dispose definitely of the present chance for the admission of a forty-seventh State. Only 24 per cent. of the Democratic and 29 per cent. of the Republican Territorial Committeemen are said to be in favor of accepting the provisions of the law of 1906, as President Roosevelt so strongly advised. Whether this dogged persistency for separate Statehood is inspired by mining and railroad interests, as the champions of union always contended, or is an absolutely sincere manifestation of local patriotism, it has certainly been a wonderful demonstration. If Arizona wishes to remain a Territory on the chance of finding some day a Congress ready to vote two new States, she has a perfect right to do so. But it has wisely been settled, we think, that the interests of the whole country are paramount over mere sympathy for a people who evidently want what they want very badly. If Arizona should develop to such an extent as fairly to justify Statehood alone, the new State would be welcomed with added cordiality for having so long displayed the courage of its convictions.

Neglect of small industries in the South is at last beginning to arouse the attention of farmers and the press. The Raleigh, N. C., *Progressive Farmer* recently printed a letter from an expert

who protests against the habit of ignoring everything save cotton. It is "King Cotton" over again, in a fresh sense. True, new industries like mining, timbering, cotton manufacture, and the making of turpentine and rosin are steadily being expanded, but these involve large amounts of capital. The incidental opportunities of the man with an acre or two, who raises a few bales of cotton, are sadly neglected. Bee-culture, raising of silk worms, hay growing, and the production of seeds for Northern markets, the keeping of goats, the culture of pecan nuts—these are some of the valuable small industries to which the *Progressive Farmer's* expert calls attention. Moreover, near Raleigh he finds valuable water power going to waste, to say nothing of the folly of taking no advantage of the hard woods, white oak, hickory, and dogwood, with which the neighborhood is enriched without being aware of it. There are fields in sight of Raleigh, and we might add, of about every other Southern city, which have not been in cultivation for the last twenty-five years, and yet would make excellent truck farms. One difficulty is, of course, the laziness and indifference of the poor whites, with the uncertain labor of the blacks. Time and education are the remedies.

Formal acceptance of the new Pennsylvania State Capitol has drawn attention to the fact that it is one of the few important public buildings in the country which have been completed on time within the estimates. With the Library of Congress, conditions were unique; the work being under the almost absolute control of Gen. T. H. Casey of the War Department and Bernard R. Green, who were vested by special act of Congress with unusual powers. The new Pennsylvania Statehouse was provided for by the Legislature of 1901. The appropriation was \$4,000,000. Of this amount, Mr. Joseph M. Huston, the architect, will turn back some \$40,000 into the State Treasury. Ground was broken November 7, 1901, and on October 4, 1906, the building will be dedicated. That this unusual record was made with no sacrifice of æsthetics, is indicated by the fact that \$430,000 was expended for statuary and mural decoration—to say nothing of the famous animated busts of Pennsylvania "types" on the bronze doors.

It is a fine thing to be a Government employee; it is a fine thing to be a union man. When one is both at once, felicity can no further go. Therefore, the whole country shared in the sense of outrage when a cold and brutal foreman ordered a union binder in the Government bindery to do some extra work. Apparently, there was some obsolete United States statute which authorized

him to give the order; but there was also a union-made restriction on the maximum amount of work which any one man should do. Much the same situation existed, therefore, as if the resolution of some remote board of village trustees should come in conflict with the Constitution, or our treaty with Great Britain. What makes the matter worse is the fact that Acting Foreman Ashton, who issued the latest extra-work order, was the man who caused the removal, only three years ago, of the assistant foreman of printing over the open-shop issue. If he is allowed to continue much longer in his mad course, we shall presently find the heresy spreading that the Government Printing Office exists to turn out work, and not to create easy and remunerative jobs.

The Pope's encyclical is a flat declination to accept the terms of the French Separation Act. The actual issue concerns parish administration. The law requires that a "cult association," virtually a board of trustees, shall be established in each parish. This board is made responsible for the maintenance of worship and in general for all the actions of the church. Of these committees, which, of course, have no standing in canon law, the Pope says, "they cannot be formed without a violation of the sacred rights which are the life itself of the Church." Very serious consequences must follow this decision. In every parish in France the faithful will be subject to ejection from the churches. The Pope's encyclical leaves every commune free to apply the resources of recalcitrant churches to the poor fund, hospitals, and the like. A wholesale exercise of this right would in certain regions, especially Brittany, come near to provoking a revolution. But the law has wisely retarded the march of confiscation by requiring in every case a decree of court. The hope of Pius X. must be that the enforcement of the act will make so much trouble that the Government will be led to adopt amendments acceptable to the Church. The encyclical, indeed, contains a hint that the passive resistance enjoined upon French Catholics is tactical in character. Still, we hardly expect to see M. Sarrien or any successor in the near future go to Canossa.

The German Emperor's severe criticisms of the press of his country, as detailed by the great chocolate manufacturer, M. Menier, in a Parisian interview, have naturally given deep offence to the profession. Columns upon columns of criticism of his criticism have filled the German newspapers. The Emperor is reported to have declared that journalists of twenty-two, writing with an anonymous pen, are capable of disturbing the world. Editors are lacking

in a sense of responsibility; they have pursued no prescribed course of study, and passed no State examination such as is required in other regular professions. The Berlin *Nation* slyly quotes the Paris *Matin's* remark that, if it is true that editors pass no examinations, neither do kings and emperors. The King of Spain, for instance, was much younger than twenty-two when the destinies of the Spanish people were placed in his hands; and the Great Elector of Brandenburg was but twenty-one, when, unexamined, he laid the foundations for Prussia's greatness. It might be asked, too, whether rulers like the Czar have developed sufficient sense of responsibility. The Berlin *Tageblatt* fears that the Emperor has made the error of thinking that the opposition to his policies of a large portion of the press is only to be defined as irresponsible conduct. The *Frankfurter Zeitung* thinks that William's attitude towards the press is merely that of many another: "He complains of it when he is angry with it, praises it when it pleases him, and knows how to use it when he needs it."

The hatred of the people of Warsaw for the Governor-General and his chief of police is largely explained by their having the right to punish, without trial, any person whom they think politically untrustworthy. This is the statement made in a letter from Count Tyszkiewicz, leader of the Polish Nationalists, to Prince Mirsky. It was written in 1905, with the understanding that it would be laid before the Czar, and it is therefore an accurate summary of the wrongs of Poland and the desires of her people. A translation of this document has just appeared in the London *Tribune*, and the list of grievances it contains is long. Primarily, Poland protests against the process of Russification to which she is subjected, then against the persecution of the Catholics. No less than 87,994 families, it is declared, suffered severely in 1899 "because they endeavor to maintain the sacred religion of their forefathers and keep their consciences clean." The Polish Catholic clergy has to submit to the same passport laws applicable to persons under police supervision; many of their churches have been closed, while new ones may not be erected. Even the children do not escape:

The obligatory application of the Russian language to almost every circle of public life shows its destructive effects, especially upon young children who are obliged to express their thoughts in a foreign tongue, thus delaying and restricting their mental development. The schools in such circumstances tend to wipe out national individuality, to warp the thoughts and the hearts of the young, and to force them to grow up in an atmosphere of passive revolt, falsehood, and hypocrisy.

If only the "exceptional laws" for Poland could be repealed, Count Tyszkiewicz declared, his people would "move forward in steady and peaceful progress." His appeal received no attention, and the lot of Poland has grown so steadily worse that now, after a year and a half, there is open anarchy in Warsaw. The Nationalist party has been compelled in the interim to become one of action, and terrorism is epidemic. Despite their name, the Nationalists are not at the moment agitating for separation from Russia. They are apparently perfectly willing to remain under the control of the Czar, if he will but give them rights as a State within the Empire and as individuals within the State. Here are their main desires, in briefest form:

- (1.) The free use of the Polish language in the schools, the law courts, and in all Government and public institutions.
- (2.) The employment of Poles in Government and public posts.
- (3.) Local self-government in both towns and rural districts.
- (4.) The restitution of the rights of the Roman Catholic Church, and full liberty to the subject to profess what form of religion he chooses.

A wise and farsighted ruler would think the pacification of Poland cheap at the price. Instead, there comes the slaughter of policemen on every corner in Poland's capital, the order of Gen. Kaulbars to military officers not to go on the street, lest they be murdered, with perhaps greater terrors to follow.

There is something pathetic in the spirit in which emissaries of the Russian revolution have come among us, and the different spirit in which they have departed. Before sailing for Europe, Gregory Maxime summed up his impressions of this country as follows: "In America, where the people enjoy so much liberty, the standard of civilization and culture is on a much lower plane than in Russia. Americans know nothing of idealism. The question the American always asks is, 'How much?'" Other Russian radicals have left on record similar opinions, the justice of which is not of so much importance as the fact that they should be such bitterly unfavorable opinions. They cannot be due simply to disappointment. If Gorky's mission had proved completely successful, his views of us would not have been very different from what they are. The great majority of this country, on the other hand, would have regarded him with mixed feelings—with admiration as an artist and champion of liberty, and with puzzled distrust as a theoretical anarchist.

So the anomaly remains. Here is a country endowed with land and liberty, with a democratic form of government,

with freedom of speech and the press, with exemption from oppressive military burdens. In Russia, the revolutionaries are staking their lives to conquer the same blessings for the people; and yet—they don't like us. The reason may possibly be found in the predominantly "intellectual" nature of the Russian revolutionary movement. In the new Russia which is to be, the people will enjoy not only the material advantages which we have, but also the fine flavor of culture, the idealism, which are now the possession of a comparatively small number. That culture is perfectly compatible with absolute equality, the leaders of the revolution take for granted. That in a democratic Russia, idealism, after our own example, would disappear, they will not admit. Every one will vote, but principles will not give way to interests. The peasant and the proletarian are to shoulder their way into street cars, cafés and halls of assembly, but manners are to remain urbane. The *mujiks* will read the newspapers, but there will be no yellow press. They will invade the theatre, but Ibsen will reign there, and not musical comedy. An intelligent Russian revolutionary once privately laid down the thesis that in culture the Russian peasant is immeasurably the superior of the American farmer. Putting aside the mere question of competency for judgment in a stranger who had studied the American farmer in his natural habitat southeast of Union Square, some one asked for a statement of just what ideals the peasant acknowledged that were superior to our deified dollar. The answer was: "Why, they may be crude and indefensible ideals, but they are nevertheless there; unselfish and spontaneous and therefore exalted, as, for instance—the Czar or the Holy Orthodox Church!"

That all is not going well in Korea, under Japanese protection, is grudgingly admitted by the Tokio correspondent of the London *Times*. The facts, as he states them, are not essentially different from the account of the Tokio correspondent of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, who asserts that Korea is practically falling into open revolt. Insurrection is rampant. There are numerous skirmishes and sieges of towns. The centre of the uprising is in the province of Chyung-Chyöng, on the western coast, an inaccessible mountainous region. The town of Hong-tju was occupied by the insurgents, on account of the large stores of ammunition and arms in the place. Several times the troops sent to reduce it were repulsed. At last the Japanese concentrated a force sufficient to carry the town with great slaughter. Similar uprisings are reported in many of the Korean provinces, the whole country approximating a state of guerrilla warfare.

FLAT-FOOTED MR. CANNON.

"Fortune does not favor men of our years," said Louis XIV. to Marshal Villeroi, after the battle of Ramillies. Dependent Louis was then not quite seventy, and did not foresee that an American would arise to prove his maxim false. Youth will be served, indeed! Speaker Cannon, a likely young fellow turned seventy, has steadily risen in popularity as he has risen in age. The formal launching of his Presidential candidacy in Illinois last week is but the culmination of that good fortune which, in defiance of French proverbs and the sour sayings of the Ecclesiast, has steadily increased with his years. We do not mean that he is to be taken too seriously as a candidate; but the universal feeling of amused kindness for a gallant veteran, with a sort of diffused personal interest in the quaint and frank character of the man, is a more striking tribute than the bestowal of many offices.

In his recent speech at Danville, some of Uncle Joe's most engaging qualities were revealed again. His downright and square-cut ways are in refreshing contrast with the tricking facilities of the ordinary politician. On the tariff, Mr. Cannon is positively delightful. Here, at any rate, is one sincere believer in it as the source of every blessing. Others may hedge and blush and hem and haw, but your Uncle Joe roundly tells you that "since the enactment of the first revenue law under Washington down to the present time, the periods of prosperity have been under protection, and the periods of adversity have been under the policy of free trade or tariff for revenue only." This, of course, he devoutly believes. Some protectionist orators, or historians like Biaine, will admit that the country was fairly thriving and progressive under the low tariff of 1846-57. Of course, they try to explain the fact away. They will say, with Horace Greeley, that it was only "a factitious but seductive semblance of prosperity." But no such doubts or shifts for Uncle Joe. He lays down his "platform facts," that a high tariff is always and in all ways beneficent, and a revenue tariff ever and in all places a curse, without a quaver or qualification. He believes this just as an old farmer believes that if he hangs a horseshoe on his apple tree at Christmas, he insures a good crop in October. "It may sound queer, but I've tried it too often not to know that it is so." All the tariff part of Mr. Cannon's happy speech was marked by this charming simplicity. One has not the heart to challenge any of his statements made in such unwinking good faith. This was the perfunctory and expected feature of his address. He always preaches tariff that way. We suppose that the innocent Vermilion County farmers who

heard him imitated their Yorkshire brother by saying:

I niver knaw'd whot a mean'd, but
I thowt a 'ad summut to saay,
An' I thowt a said whot a owt to 'a
said, and I coom'd awaay.

What will truly interest the country in Mr. Cannon's position is the direct and manly way in which he met the pretensions of the Federation of Labor. To its demands, he applied the old-fashioned method of giving a plain answer to a plain question. Alluding to the class legislation asked for arrogantly in the name of labor, and known as the anti-injunction bill, the Speaker first properly characterized it, and then said flatly, "I am not in favor of this legislation demanded by Mr. Gompers," and then clinched the nail by adding, "I will be at all times opposed to this legislation." Surely a fine old gentleman, who says it is too late for him to learn to quibble or stoop or truckle! It might be well if some other public men would make haste and grow old along with this Rabbi Ben Ezra of ours, provided that the process would stiffen their vertebrae a little. There has been a vast amount of ducking and wabbling in connection with this anti-injunction bill. President Roosevelt himself, commendable as was his plain speaking to the labor delegates last winter, has not taken a clear position in regard to this demand of organized labor. He could not bring himself to favor it, yet he would not condemn it, and looked about for his customary compromise. Congressman Littlefield, whose minority report from the Judiciary Committee of the Fifty-seventh Congress did much to put the matter in its true light, has not been dismayed by labor threats, any more than Speaker Cannon, though he, too, has been marked for political destruction by Mr. Gompers. Doubtless he is willing to say with Uncle Joe that he is ready to take his chances at the ballot-box with the real laboring men of the country, as against those whose votes Mr. Gompers professes to be able to control.

This is the aspect of Mr. Cannon's campaign the present year which promises to be most significant. He is to speak for Mr. Littlefield, principally, of course, to show that he despises the threats of the labor leaders. The sound doctrine of equal rights for all he will doubtless write on his banner in the other places where he is to be seen. His course, in this respect, and its political results, it will be most important to study. If he stands pat on the tariff, he also stands pat on equity and the principles of law and justice older than the Constitution and underlying it. For that kind of stand-patter the country has urgent need, and may well admire and applaud one of that rare breed among politicians, when it is lucky enough to find him.

MAKING FRIENDS WITH "ABROAD."

The Paris *Temps* has seriously offered a novel explanation of Mr. Bryan's Odyssey. We are told that this twice-beaten candidate has found an ingenious way to rehabilitate himself by a subtle appeal to American vanity. We all of us have an extreme sensitiveness to the opinion of the Old World; we exult immeasurably in the notoriety of Mr. Roosevelt; we regard as paid to our nation and to ourselves individually the honors and courtesies so lavishly showered upon the editor of the *Commoner*. Mr. Bryan has been astute enough to personify the adulation of Europe for the giant Republic. So in substance the *Temps*. Without going the whole way with our Parisian contemporary—for there are Americans who regard the European vogue of Mr. Roosevelt with amaze; and there are some millions of us to whom the opinion of Europe is remote as the canals of Mars—Mr. Bryan's foreign feats mark a fairly revolutionary change of sentiment. The tribune of the tolling masses, the stern accuser of plutocracy, consorts with the great of the earth, breaks the bread of royalty—and all this unrebuked, without in the slightest degree diminishing his acceptability as a popular candidate.

Now, whether or not this evinces an enormous growth in snobbishness among Americans, it certainly testifies to an entirely new attitude. Only look back a few years and imagine Samuel J. Tilden putting his legs under royal mahogany to improve his chances; those legs would assuredly never have served him again for political purposes. Every one remembers that Lowell, Phelps, Bayard, and even John Hay were roundly berated for no other reason than that they did not make themselves offensive to the court to which they were accredited. For a matter of twenty years, no Presidential election passed without the dread that from the overflowing coffers of the Cobden Club, "British gold" in enormous quantities would be poured in to swamp our prosperity and republic together. The watchword of the period was, "What have we to do with abroad?"

Well, we have learned that we have various things to do with it. Expanding trade has taught us something; the auspicious appearance of our Government in the diplomacy of the world has perhaps taught us more. The growing habit of European travel has shown that "abroad" regards us with no malevolence, at least, but with curiosity not unmixed with dismay and admiration. Beyond this, scholarship and art have gradually established very substantial bonds between the intellectual élite of both worlds. It would be foolish to exaggerate the extent of such cordial understandings—in fact, any genuine comity between nations is rather based on

perceiving and accepting real differences than on ignoring them; but it is clear that the old suspiciousness and hostility towards Europe have largely abated. It still pleases a certain type of Jingo to knit his brows over the devilish plots of the Kaiser, but, generally speaking, there is no political or personal capital to be made to-day by abusing any potentate of Europe—not excepting the obviously vulnerable Czar.

The suddenness of the change is so surprising as to suggest that the traditional detestation of "abroad" was less ominous than it seemed. As a matter of fact, the improvement in our national manners is in a very evident relation to the disappearance of the "Irish vote" from politics. It was possibly not an actual hatred of perfidious Albion, but a sense of an Irish-American balance of power that set our aspiring politicians to twisting the tail of the British lion whenever the unhappy beast was in evidence. Everybody took a hand, but naturally it was the Irish Republicans who excelled at this pastime. Patrick Egan cuttidd O'Donovan Rossa in caudal feats; Elaine commanded a fine diplomatic torsion by way of the fisheries disputes. And all this pretty comedy was played for the better entertainment of the Terry's and Mikes who were political powers in their respective districts. To-day the Irish vote, old style, has gone the way of the Barnburners and Locofocoos. Whoever would conciliate the Italian, Jewish, Greek, Polish, Finnish, Scandinavian votes, and whatever others there be, must be prepared to reckon with every monarch in Europe; and even the political intellect is staggered to find a formula that will please all lands. Crowned heads have lost practical significance, and the most robust politician wouldn't shy a billet at the most conspicuous of them. We shall have "votes" enough and to spare, but never again the fine, free way with the international cudgels.

As sensible men, we must accept what remains. There is compensation for the past in the fact that the domestic octopus has eight available members where the lion had but one. It is probable that the great mass of quiet people take just about as much or little interest in foreign matters as they did twenty years ago. In any case, such satisfaction as they may find in seeing a man of the people standing honorably before kings does them no discredit. And politics is likely to be a more possible occupation for a gentleman when foreign travel and associations require no apology. If the *Temps* wishes to be convinced that the interest in Mr. Bryan's universally good reception is not merely snobbish, let it inquire as to the effect of the equally distinguished hospitalities extended to that estimable young couple, the Longworths. That they caused emotion in

this country, is doubtless true, but it was not one of exultation.

THE UNION PACIFIC AFFAIR.

There has been enough confusion, in current discussion of the Union Pacific Railway's new dividend policy, to make advisable a thorough review of the circumstances. Ordinarily, it would strike an uninformed observer somewhat oddly to see an increase in a great railway's dividend rate received with a storm of protest and denunciation. No one asserts that the dividend was paid out of capital; enough was earned in the year's operations to provide for dividends at last week's rate, without trenching even on previously accumulated surplus. It would be quite in order for such an observer to ask why the directors' action, in marking up that rate from 6 to 10 per cent. per annum, should be subject to unsparing criticism.

The Union Pacific Railroad has been almost exactly nine years out of bankruptcy. Its financial collapse in 1893 had resulted from three causes: reaction in trade from the prosperity which had led, a dozen years before, to exaggerated hopes of the company's future; heaping-up of debt at a rate which far "over-discounted" that future, and payment to shareholders, in high dividends, of money much of which ought to have been re-invested in improvements. The financial reorganization of 1897 cut down very heavily the company's fixed charges, but increased the capital stock by \$75,000,000. It has since grown \$163,000,000 larger. The new common stock was regarded mainly as a "bonus" to reconcile old security-holders to the reorganization; it was so poorly esteemed that at the time it sold for 15 cents on the dollar.

It is true that in the hands of a very competent management the new company prospered; eventually, it got the benefit of the extraordinary "boom" in Western trade which has marked the past six years. The new managers met this situation with admirable conservatism; despite the suddenly increased earnings, they paid no dividends on even the new preferred stock until 1898, and none on the common shares until 1900, and for five years thereafter they kept the common stock dividend at the relatively moderate rate of 4 per cent. The surplus over this dividend was put back into the property—a fortunate policy in more ways than one. In nearly all annual reports of the company's president, continuance of this policy was foreshadowed, both on the Union Pacific and on the lines controlled by it.

With the marked swelling of Western prosperity, as a result of the great harvests of 1905, common stock dividends were increased last October to a 5 per cent. annual rate, and last April to 6.

This was a reasonably rapid increase; but the management's previous conservatism had been such that the advance was readily approved. It was even admitted that the exceptional harvest prospects of this season might warrant further increase—preferably, however, in the form of an extra dividend, which should arouse no exaggerated ideas regarding the future. Instead of taking such action; instead even of putting the common stock on a 7 per cent. basis—the highest rate now paid by any transcontinental railway—Union Pacific directors last week announced 5 per cent. for the half-year dividend, and proceeded to give out statements to the effect that this dividend might be regarded as permanent, thus putting the common stock on a 10 per cent. annual basis. Instead of paying out \$4,300,000 to common shareholders, as in 1904, the directors propose to pay out \$20,009,000. Part of this increase, though only a small part, is derived from dividends, simultaneously declared by virtually the same officers, on Southern Pacific stock, of which Union Pacific owns one-half; yet it is this very Southern Pacific of which Mr. Harriman, president both of that company and of Union Pacific, said, in concluding his annual report last autumn, "In view of the large expenditures required, . . . as well as to strengthen the company pending the effect of the aggressive building of competitive lines which are being projected into the territory served by these lines, it is important to hold in reserve and carefully husband the resources of the company." The same words might have been used of Union Pacific also. Its situation, as regards both new construction and prospective competition, is exactly similar.

Such conditions did not bar a prudent and gradual addition to the dividend; but they render such sudden abandonment of previous policy repugnant to all sound finance. When to this all but unprecedented increase in a dividend is added, from official sources, assurances that "the maintenance of these rates seems easily within the capacity of the properties"—it has to be conceded that the management has broken with its long-maintained policy of conservatism. Where, in the past they were regarded as an example to other railway boards, they have now set a pattern of recklessness. Their conduct is equivalent to serving notice to the world at large that business reactions, trade depression, and severe curtailment of railway profits, are, in their opinion, no longer to be expected.

Such is the attitude which accompanies a dividend increase that would almost certainly not have been made at all but for the wholly unexpected results of this season's harvests. That the management itself takes its assertions as to the future seriously, we do

not imagine for a moment. Unfortunately, there are plenty of other people who will take them so, and the Union Pacific directorate has itself to blame if the whole financial community is to-day accusing it of a huge stock-jobbing operation. Nor does it seem to us that such charges, even if backed only by circumstantial evidence, ought to be overlooked, any more than they were in the days of Fisk and Gould. Much has been written, these past few days, of the impropriety of directors speculating in the stock of their own companies. We greatly fear that the ethical side of the matter will not deeply impress our "practical men" of Wall Street, who have grown used, in recent years, to seeing pillars of the church using insurance trust funds to support their own "underwriting syndicates," and reputable bankers lending the benefit of their names to promoting schemes not far from swindling.

But even if ethics be ignored, an extremely practical question remains; it is, whether directors who speculate in order to get the benefit of a dividend policy on which they alone decide, can be trusted not to fix such a dividend policy as will favor their speculations. We regret to have to say that some at least of Union Pacific's directors are not above this suspicion. The two directors of the Amalgamated Copper Company in whose behalf, in 1901, a notorious stock-manipulator marketed \$22,000,000 Amalgamated Copper stock—the transaction is a matter of public knowledge—were engaged at the time in so handling the company's finances as to delude the whole public into the idea that the high dividends paid were warranted. When the directors' stock had been marketed, the pretence was dropped, and the dividends fell. These two men are members of the Union Pacific board; their presence there, with Mr. Harriman in the presidency, is enough at least to excuse this week's insinuations. Under the circumstances, it seems to us that men of unblemished reputation who also sit in the Union Pacific directory, ought themselves to be personally heard from in the matter.

A NORTH CAROLINA UPRISING.

There is in North Carolina an uprising of the press, the State officials, and law-abiding citizens generally, against Judge Lynch. Not within our memory has there been such plain talking in the South about mob law. No section of the Northern press has ever spoken out more strongly on this subject than our North and South Carolina contemporaries in regard to the triple lynching at Salisbury last week. It is universally regarded as a disgrace to the State; where the usual excuses are offered, they are indignantly repudiated. Indeed, no one can read the press of North Carolina

without feeling that the white South is at last realizing that lynching is no deterrent of crime, and that its sole effect is to demoralize and brutalize all who take part.

There are special reasons why press and public should feel outraged over the Salisbury lynching. The five negro prisoners were securely in jail; their trial had begun before a judge for whose election the people of Salisbury had voted not once but several times, and no one entertained any doubt of their conviction. The troops did have ball cartridges—not blanks, as at first reported—but were recreant to their duty. The officials of the jail deemed their work done after firing one or two shots into the mob and wounding one of its members—not an innocent bystander, as was announced. As the *News and Observer* puts it, "the more that is known of the crime the blacker it becomes, and the more certain it is that the crime might have been averted if the military, the sheriff, and the deputies had fired into the leaders of the mob." J. M. Julian, the editor of the *Salisbury Evening Post*, who bravely went into the mob to plead for the law, declares that no sudden passion, but a fixed determination to kill, actuated its members, who had no regard for legal processes. He adds: "It was all wrong. That the negroes who were lynched would have been convicted seemed certain. We realize that this is not the popular view, but it is the only right way of looking at the matter. The time will come, if it is not already at hand, when all the county will pay the penalty that inevitably follows contempt for the law."

It is to the *Charlotte Observer* that we turn for the strongest and bravest words about the State's disgrace:

Lynch law is on the increase in North Carolina. There is no negro vote, no negro legislation now; but there is a growing disrespect, not to say contempt, on the part of the white people for the laws which they themselves make. The mob hoots and jeers senators, judges, and other officers, whom it helped to elect, when they get up before it to expostulate with it and pray of it to observe the laws which it helped to frame. There must be an end to this, or worse days will come. Tufts of grass have been thrown at lynchers to no effect and volleys have been fired over their heads without result. When a North Carolina mob is fired into by deputies or the military, and a dozen or fifteen of the law-breakers are killed, there will be an instant end to mob law in the State. The longer the appreciation of the remedy is delayed the faster the disease will spread. It should be applied to the next mob that thunders at the gates of a jail.

For the crime itself the *Charlotte Observer* has no words properly to characterize it. "No subterfuge will cover the case"; "it is an instance of wholly unjustifiable blood guiltiness"; "apology or excuse for it there is none." Its words

are echoed and endorsed by the *Wilmington Messenger*, and the *Raleigh Evening Times* is not far behind; for it sees in the conviction of the leader, Hall, "cause for profound gratitude." The *Raleigh News and Observer* adds that "there are one hundred more who deserve to wear stripes for participation." Outside of the State, papers like the *Richmond Times-Dispatch* and the *Columbia State* are congratulating North Carolina not only on the conviction of Hall, but upon the possession of a brave judge and a right-minded Governor.

Only one newspaper of those which have come under our notice has disgraced itself by praising the mob. This unenviable distinction belongs to the *Atlanta News*, which dared to say of the negro murderers that, "Nothing short of the stake would have meted proper punishment to them for their awful crime, but the North Carolina patriots who handled that case had mercy upon them, and simply took them out and hanged them to trees and shot them to death." Commenting on this, the *Raleigh Evening Times* indignantly remarks:

Every decent white man in North Carolina, every citizen who is not a blood-thirsty ruffian, will resent most bitterly the statement of the *Atlanta News* that the slayers of the Lyerly family were lynched by North Carolina patriots. The utterance is so astounding that we cannot let it pass over in silence. . . . The first man arrested for the crime of Monday night has served his time in the penitentiary. He comes from another State, he is a common thug, and yet he is held up to the gaze of the public as a patriot of North Carolina. God save the mark.

It adds that the writer has no right thus to slander a State "which has suffered enough already." The *Raleigh News*, another outspoken paper, is certain that the Salisbury crime was made possible by the recent miscarriage of justice at Monroe, where two lynchers were allowed to go free on the merest technicality. "These prisoners," says the *News*, "were received as heroes, fresh from a conquering war. Men fell upon their necks at Monroe and wept for sheer joy. On the way home, they had an ovation; Wadesboro, in fact, had a sort of celebration when they returned." Writing from Salisbury, W. G. Briggs, the staff correspondent of a North Carolina paper, declares that the sudden prosperity of the neglected poor-white class has added to its menace. He believes that the Salisbury mob would have lynched whites as readily as blacks, and reports that it was composed of ignorant, thoughtless, unrestrained people, "with whom North Carolina must deal at once."

Finally, we are glad to record that Judge Long and Gov. Glenn have received letters of praise from all over the South, as well as from the North. Law-

yers and university men have united in lauding them for their patriotic stand against the lynchers. And the pulpit has not been lacking in plain speech.

THE GERMAN COLONIAL SCANDALS.

The report that the Prussian Minister of Agriculture, Von Podbielski, has been dismissed from office for his connection with the colonial scandals, will not come as a surprise to the German public. For some weeks past it has been evident that the Imperial Government could not long postpone a thorough-going housecleaning, much as it has so desired. Its colonial ventures have cost heavily in money and prestige, and now it must drain the cup of bitterness to the bottom and admit that it can no longer hold up its hands at American or English "grafting." The Prussian bureaucracy, justly famed for its integrity, if not always for its intelligence and enterprise, is now sadly besmirched. Yet the contamination is of colonial origin; the desire to get rich quickly out of the inferior races, whose destinies they controlled, seems to have brought about the downfall not only of Von Podbielski, but of others. Even more striking is the fact that the civil service rules seem to have been ignored. At least, it is charged, with considerable evidence in proof, that favoritism and the "pull" have done their deadly work here as elsewhere.

The recent financial collapse of the colonial administration was due to the Southwest African uprising and the failure to grasp its importance. A couple of million marks was the first war budget, and it was assumed that the triumphant march of troops from Germany through the revolted districts would be useful in stimulating popular interest in the colonies. When Bebel declared it would cost 50 millions of marks, he was denounced as extravagantly pessimistic. Now it is admitted that the war will cost several hundred millions, and the end is not yet in sight, though proclaimed as often as our own pacification of Samar, Leyte, and the Moro country. Gradually, the press and public discovered that the Colonial Bureau is hopelessly inefficient. Yet last winter, all rumors of corruption met with vigorous official denials. With the arrest at the end of July of Major Fischer, the chief of the clothing supply department of the Colonial Bureau, the Government confessed the existence of grave irregularities. Major Fischer's immediate superior, Col. Ohnesorg, found that his health required immediate treatment in a sanitarium, and the position of Von Podbielski became extremely critical.

It is a sordid enough bit of "grafting" which has now been uncovered. The firm of Von Tippelskirch & Co., in which at first Von Podbielski, and later his wife, had a large interest, entered

into close relations with the Colonial Bureau in 1896. In 1903 it received a complete monopoly in the supplying of clothing and equipments for the troops and officials in various colonies. Its profits have been from 30 to 40 per cent. above the normal business reward; the net earnings in 1905 were declared in the Reichstag last winter to have been at least \$500,000, on the basis of Government orders of two to two and one-half millions of dollars. This appalled the Reichstag, and it ordered a closer inspection of the product of the firm than Major Fischer had instituted. Gradually it appeared that, although Von Tippelskirch & Co. had pledged themselves to manufacture their supplies, they were practically middlemen, making on each pair of shoes \$1.30 profit, and selling to the Government for \$500 harness purchased by them for \$225. Naturally, the members of the firm were loudest in their insistence that German honor demanded the suppression of the South African revolt—at any price.

Major Fischer being a very worthy officer—he had been dropped from the Prussian and Saxon armies for financial irregularities before 1880—Von Tippelskirch & Co. were naturally interested deeply in his affairs. When the concern learned seven years ago that, owing to a family affliction, he had got heavily into debt, they were so much troubled that, out of pure kindness of heart, they raised for the Government inspector of their products a sum generally believed to be \$25,000. Von Tippelskirch has adroitly denied that the firm gave Fischer anything. He has admitted, however, that he advanced \$1,000, and will not deny that the other members of the firm contributed the remaining \$24,000. It is a curious coincidence that the year of these "loans," 1899, was the same in which the firm's Government contracts, originally made in 1896, were renewed. Herr von Tippelskirch omitted also, with genuine life-insurance forgetfulness, to mention that Fischer's Christmas in 1904 was made happy by a check for \$500, in token of the firm's affectionate appreciation of his splendid character. Another little trifle which escaped Von Tippelskirch's memory was his "yellow-dog" fund of \$5,000 for keeping the press contented and happy. In brief, this firm of contractors was quite as benevolent an institution in its way as any of our packing or insurance companies, or our manufacturers of army gloves and clothing. Even in "grafting" national boundaries now fail to mark distinctions.

There is, of course, nothing to be gained by asserting that this German scandal proves Americans not to be sinners above all. We should, rather, regret that the symptoms of governmental decadence are so widespread. Ameri-

cans, however, ought to ponder well these Berlin revelations in connection with their own colonial policy. The Von Tippelskirch-Fischer incident is only a part of the indictment of the Colonial Bureau. Its officials have been proved to be in many instances corrupt, tyrannical, and brutal. The stories of atrocities, of abuse of prisoners, of the degradation of native women, of open immorality, pour in from all sides and from nearly every colony, the trial of the Governor of the Cameroons for gross abuses being a case in point. According to all the current theories, German colonization ought to have been a great success. It was the undertaking of a monarchy secure in its control of the Reichstag, with a splendid set of officials and a perfectly developed and safeguarded civil service. If, under these circumstances, there is not only failure, but waste, extravagance, and corruption, surely a democracy which has to reckon with time-serving politicians should avoid all such demoralizing ventures.

EXIT THE AMATEUR SCIENTIST.

Dr. E. Ray Lankester, in his presidential address before the British Association, noted and deplored a falling off in the popularity of science. Few now follow "general science and natural history" as a recreation. "The field naturalists among the squires and country parsons," he observed, "seem nowadays not to be so numerous and active in their delightful pursuits as formerly, and the mechanics' institutes and lecture societies of the days of Lord Brougham have given place, to a large extent, to musical performances, bioscopes, and other entertainments more diverting, but not really more capable of giving pleasure, than those in which science was popularized." Dr. Lankester finds the cause of our disinclination to scientific pursuits partly in the growth of specialization, but even more in the competition of cheap and almost mechanical entertainment. "No doubt," he says, "the organization and professional character of scientific work are to a large extent the cause of this falling off in its attraction for amateurs. But perhaps that decadence is also due in some measure to the increased general demand for a kind of manufactured gaiety, readily sent out in these days of easy transport from the great centres of fashionable amusement to the provinces and rural districts."

The passing of the scientific amateur is due largely to the fact that science has become too difficult for him. In the good old days when physics was natural philosophy, and biology natural history, almost any one with a capacity for observation and the habit of carrying a notebook, might hope to make modest contributions to the classification of birds, plants, and minerals. It was the

day when the country gentleman was very likely to have his "cabinet of curiosities," and missionaries were sending back to their colleges strange implements and utensils, representing the culture of virtually unknown races. It was a time of discovery, and almost anybody might have a share in the work—at least, might contribute a lively curiosity. Moreover, science then dealt in the palpable. The average man may collect fur, fin, and feather, and render a very accurate account of the superficial aspects of animal and plant life. In England, perhaps, such nature-study may be on the decline; here, if the publication and sale of nature manuals be any indication, there has been a decided revival of interest in outdoor pursuits. But nobody to-day presumes to call himself even an amateur scientist merely because he makes old-fashioned studies in natural history.

To-day, science has withdrawn into realms that are hardly understood of the people. Biology means very largely histology, the study of the cell by difficult and elaborate microscopical processes. Chemistry has passed from the mixing of simple substances with ascertained reactions, to an experimentation on these processes under varying conditions of temperature, pressure, and electrification—all requiring complicated apparatus and the most delicate measurement and manipulation. Similarly, physics has outgrown the old formulas of gravity, magnetism, and pressure; has discarded the molecule and atom for the ion, and may in its recent generalizations be followed only by an expert in the higher, not to say the transcendental, mathematics. All this gives to scientific work what Dr. Lankester justly calls a severely "professional character." To-day, no layman may fairly hope to keep up, and all sorts of popularization meet with increasing difficulties. The well-meaning person who tries to "get up" any science will surely meet the fate of that judge who decided to renew his youthful studies in electricity. He went to the woods with an armful of books, but came back no wiser than before, the literature of the subject having become too abstruse for the lay intelligence. In short, one may say not that the average cultivated man has given up science, but that science has deserted him.

A further cause for the change is the mere familiarity of what used to be called "the wonders of science." In the boyhood of all but the youngest of us an air pump was a matter of curiosity; to-day our offices and apartments are cleaned by the vacuum process. We can recall when there was something awesome in the tiny spark of an electrical machine; now in rainy weather the discharge from the trolley slot illumines a whole street unnoticed, and our offspring amuse themselves with wireless tele-

graphy. The capacity for wonder has thus become jaded. It still exists, for it responded nobly to the sensational discovery of liquid air and the X-rays; but it requires some spectacular and rather valueless demonstration to give a fillip to the sated imagination of an age to which the marvellous has become the commonplace. When science serves us in our daily walk, we perforce assume towards it that impersonal attitude, that possibly inhuman lack of curiosity, with which we accept the daily ministrations of our butcher and baker.

If the appeal of science to naïve curiosity has greatly diminished, so also has its promise of an ultimate interpretation of nature. A generation or two ago men were sustained by what seemed a triumphant approach to final reality. They confused, to be sure, the mere accumulation of data with the far greater task of interpretation, but no one doubted that the explanation would be forthcoming. To-day science has assumed a more cautious and less hopeful tone. What we learned as ultimate principles in geology, astronomy, chemistry, and physics, only a few years ago, are to-day regarded as mere hypotheses, and partly discredited ones. In short, rightly or wrongly, the great scientists of the day proceed as if general theories were vanity, and the real work of science merely the accumulation of particular observations ever more accurate and minute. For this modesty, for this perhaps wise agnosticism, science should not be blamed; but inevitably the waiver of anything like a philosophical outcome diminishes the attraction of the subject for thoughtful outsiders.

Possibly a generation that has seen the demonstration of the germ theory and the discovery of radium is ungrateful to complain that science does not maintain so good a show as formerly; and yet one can hardly imagine that either bacteriology or radiology will ever become popular avocations. Indeed, the very magnitude of recent discovery baffles the unprofessional imagination and evades ordinary curiosity. We are content to let the masters work their white magic and profit by their lore, without profaning the mysterious precincts where the great discoveries are made. In fine, an age that as no other has utilized the practical applications of science seems in a large measure to take science itself for granted—to leave it contentedly to the large but special class of professional inventors and investigators.

We cannot agree with Dr. Lankester that this will necessarily diminish the study and enjoyment of visible nature. In fact, the asperity of science may have quite the other effect. People who have forgone the speculative and philosophical view of life, are very likely to be thrown back upon the enjoyment of their uninterpreted sensations and im-

pressions. It is noteworthy that in literature impressionism, symbolism, and other forms of unrestrained individualism, have followed the more or less scientific methods of a Balzac a Flaubert, and a Zola. One may expect a somewhat similar reaction as the dominion of the Darwins and Spencers wanes. The human spirit, in short, wants both cates and nourishment. If science fails to provide these, it will seek them elsewhere. It would be no strange thing if the baffled devotees of modern science should largely take refuge in that pleasant field of nature-study which not so long ago passed for science itself.

ON TRANSLATING THE OLD TESTAMENT.

It is singular proof how far present-day Biblical studies have moved from any literary or even humanistic position that, in spite of the rush of translators into other fields, practically no attempts are now made to present the Old Testament to English readers as a monument of literary art. The multitudinous labors upon it smell of the midnight oil, and, worse, of the dissecting-room, and the scattered fragments of the literature of the Hebrews lost what few æsthetic appreciators they had when their students ceased to be theologians and became critics. They are now a mock to Philistines; eyeless in the mill with the slaves of science; condemned to yield dubious facts to the framers of conjectured hypotheses. When Prof. Paul Haupt secured Dr. Horace Howard Furness for some parts of the English form of his *Rainbow Bible*, he rendered unique recognition to a suppressed fact, and, even then, Dr. Furness had only the liberty of putting in decent English the results of others; he was far from the creative labor of the primary translator. And when the "Tudor Translations" accepted the King James version as a belated comrade, it was as an English classic, and not as a primary translation.

Naturally, then, there is a general notion that the problem is solved and done, and that we have already in English amply adequate renderings of the Old Testament. Even the respectable authority of Dr. Lavendar can now be alleged in support of this view, and it is only a few months since an erudite writer in the *Outlook* based on it a plea for the abolition of the requirement of Hebrew from theological students. Since we had such excellent and sufficing translations what was the need of further toil and trouble, he urged. The time saved from the study of one of the bases of the Christian faith might be devoted to the cultivation of rhetoric or the pursuit of settlement researches.

This, of course, is absurd enough and exhibits ignorance of a very peculiar character in a cleric; but it amply illustrates the present point, and shows, first, that the Old Testament is supposed to have been adequately Englished so far as the sense is concerned, and, secondly, that no one ever seems to dream of translating it from a purely æsthetic point of view. Homer is attempted once, at least, in every decade, but from Lowth with his "elegant"

Latin versions it is a far cry to the beginning of the twentieth century.

A few words will suffice for the accuracy of the present vulgar renderings. In the Revised Versions, English and American, the New Testament is admitted, very generally, to be a fair substitute for the Greek original, though voices even now are becoming audible that the revision was carried out too classically for the text, and that the old version, following ecclesiastical tradition, came in many points nearer to the sense of its Hellenistic Greek. But the weakness of the Old Testament translation has been notorious from its first appearance. The times, apparently, were not then ripe, and the majority of the translators were able to vote down the few who really knew Hebrew. The general standard also of Hebrew scholarship was not nearly on a level with that of Greek. The real students of the language have always been few; they have studied more or less by themselves; and their knowledge has not been criticised and vivified in the rough and tumble existence of schools and colleges. Only in some such way does it seem possible to explain the persistence of hoary misconception on points of grammar, lexicography, and usage. If it had been the duty of the schoolmasters to teach Hebrew to classes of boys year by year, these things would long ago have vanished. As it is, not only are the more difficult books, such as Job, disfigured to the point of nonsense, but in the simplest prose there occur "howlers," which in Greek would work the sore unhappiness of a two years' schoolboy. The defect is not merely in insight and power of expression—the higher faculties of a translator—but in ordinary grammatical knowledge.

In this, it is true, there is great advantage for the teacher of Hebrew. His task would be much harder if the so accessible "pony" were of a better quality. As it is, the present writer finds it possible to give his classes complete freedom to compare, as much as they please, the English versions even of Genesis, secure that illegitimate use will be speedily apparent. The advantage is even positive. The value of a student's labors is brought home to him in a way otherwise impossible when he discovers that he has really got behind the current versions, and that the devotion of the "Little Minister" to "the original Hebrew" was something more than a jest. After a few chapters of Genesis have been read, it is an exercise of the first value to set a student to pick out of the English versions the innumerable blunders which his few months of study have taught him to avoid. Revising the revision may be turned to pedagogical profit as well as to ecclesiastical heart-burnings.

But where, in all this, does the mere English reader come in? "A plague on both your revisions!" he may say. "I will follow Dr. Lavendar back to the old Elizabethan wine of King James. It needs no bush. 'Old books to read,' said Sir Roger. There I have good English and old familiar cadences; if the Hebrews had a better book, I can't get to it, and I must be content." And the pity is that at present he must be content. Mr. John Payne learns Arabic to translate the "Arabian Nights," he learns Persian to translate Hafiz,

and Omar Khayyam; but no one learns Hebrew to translate Job, Ecclesiastes, or Isaiah. Yet less than a year's work would put Mr. Payne, for example, in a position to attack any of these, and there could not well be need with them of limited editions and private printing. The boon would be general to the English-speaking world; and the much-talked of "study of the Old Testament as literature," which now means hypothetical dissections and reconstructions, wild-oats theologies, and star-myth histories, all made plain to the meanest understanding, might approximate to its title.

The causes of this backwardness on the part of non-theological literary translators are probably three; reverence for the King James version as a well of English undefiled, which it is; belief that it is a good translation, which it is not; fear of popular objection to non-Levitical hands laid upon the ark, which is vain. After so many Levitical hands have worked their will with the sacred text—often with results of jumbled style only falling short of Mr. Kipling's imitation of the book of Mormon: "And the Lord spake unto the children of Israel, saying, 'Great Scott, what air ye about?'"—the people would rather welcome an æsthetically satisfactory and artistically reverent Englishing, even though wrought by uncircumcised hands. Such a translator would be free from all questions of dogma or of theological results to flow from his renderings. His whole care would be to translate adequately and beautifully, and for the rest he would have as little thought as though he were handling the Vedas or the Koran. He would need—and this might be hard—to shake himself free from the mystery which, for so many, seems to hang over the Hebrew tongue, and to recognize it not as any language of Paradise or system of strange symbols from the antique world, but as a very direct and vivid—most exact when grasped clearly and flexible when wielded easily—means of communicating human thoughts, one adequate to their deepest burdens and highest emotional flights, born in the desert and nursed on pastoral steppes, a child of mountain and river and plain, in touch with reality at all points, and rendering the instincts and yearnings of actual men, nomads and farmers, soldiers, seers, and rulers. Of course he would have to learn his Hebrew thoroughly and not to translate—as do so many—with an English version to right, a dictionary to left, and no grammar in sight; but that would be no terrible labor if pursued in the good old-fashioned way of writing prose from the first. And he would render, as nearly as could be, as one of the earlier Elizabethans; not with the later smoothness; some parts might call even for the commatic style of Malory. In this he would, perhaps, be driven to envy the freedom of these writers and their wide possibilities, narrowed for him, of words and constructions, such as modern translators of "Don Quixote" envy the license of Blount, which they dare not imitate. They, too, would give him rhythmic movements with which to reproduce the less than Saturnian metres of the Hebrews, and would teach him how to play on words without losing dignity or pathos.

Some measure of criticism he must needs use. The modern chapters and verses would

go, as well as the divisions of the Jewish lectionary. He would make no chapters of his own, but simply paragraph for the sense; thus aiding the English reader, yet retaining the primitive and Oriental monotony of unbroken narrative. But one thing must be for him as the abomination of desolation itself. His text may no critic chop up and assign to A and B or X and Y. He must take the work of the last redactor who wrought in any whit as an artist, and render that, difficult as it may sometimes be. If time has gnawed the text since it left those hands, he may mark the gaps, but hardly more. If the redactor left harsh passages, he also must be harsh; or, where that is too impossible, must seek some escape. Such a delirium of insane literalists as "Jehovah God" must be undreamable for him; the old version will here generally guide him safely. His method, in short, must be that of the great translations from the Greeks and Orientals when made by poets or artists in prose.

And great, surely, will be his reward who can carry out this task. The specialists—the theologians and the critics—have failed us, our only hope lies with the practised *littérateur*. Thus the Old Testament, put at last fairly before the English-speaking world, may come again to its own, and the problem, how to gain for the mass of the people a true view of it, as a multifarious mass of Oriental literature struck through with a red thread of purpose, so well stated by Mr. Arthur C. Benson in the *National Review*, will move far towards solution.

D. B. M.

THE INVENTORY OF WASHINGTON'S LIBRARY.

Many of the papers in the old Fairfax Court House were scattered or destroyed by the Federal troops during the civil war, and among them was the Inventory of Washington's personal estate. It was, however, providentially, picked up and preserved by a Union soldier, and has now, after having been considered by Washington students for forty years as lost beyond chance of recovery, just come to light. It is a thin folio volume, fifty pages, bound in black morocco, lettered on the front "Original Inventory of Gen. George Washington's Chattels." The binding has probably been put upon it since the war. It may have been done twenty-five years or more ago.

The Inventory was first partly printed in 1860 by Edward Everett in his "Life of Washington." The document was too long for him to publish entire, and more than one-third (nineteen pages out of fifty) has never been printed. Moreover, the transcript furnished Everett "through the kindness of Mr. John A. Washington" was not accurate. Certain omissions were made through carelessness of the copyist, who, besides, appears to have found some difficulty in reading the handwriting of the original scribe. The Inventory has since been frequently reprinted, but always from the incomplete and imperfect one first published by Everett. According to this Inventory, Washington at his death owned a library of about nine hundred volumes, the value of which, as estimated by his executors, was \$2,134. What would Tobias Lear, Thomson Mason, Thomas Peters, and

William H. Foote, the appraisers, think if they could know that \$2,810 was paid for two volumes only, at the sale of Bishop Hurst's library in May, 1904!

Washington left all his books and papers to his nephew, Bushrod Washington. In his will, dated 1826, Bushrod divided the books between two of his nephews, John A. Washington and George C. Washington, and all the books, apparently, remained at Mount Vernon until 1848, when Henry Stevens, the bookseller, bought the portion which had been bequeathed to George C. Washington, and resold them to the Boston Athenæum, where they now rest.

The second portion of the library which had been left by Bushrod Washington to John A. Washington was, after having been exhibited at the Centennial Exhibition, auctioned off in Philadelphia in November, 1876. Of the collection then sold 282 volumes were said to have formed part of Washington's library. The largest buyer at that sale was John R. Baker of Philadelphia. In 1891 his library was in turn put under the hammer, and the books are now widely scattered.

As an important and most interesting Appendix to the Athenæum "Washington Catalogue," Mr. William Coolidge Lane, at that time the librarian of the Athenæum, but now the librarian of Harvard University, rearranged the Inventory as printed in Everett's "Life of Washington" (the original manuscript being then untraceable), classifying the books, and endeavoring to identify the imperfect or ambiguous titles and to trace as far as possible the present location of the books themselves.

The list of books in the original manuscript inventory now so luckily discovered was undoubtedly written down by one person as the titles were called off by another, and as the titles given are short and often curiously misspelled (especially in the case of books in foreign languages) the identification of the precise book or edition is often very difficult. For example, the second book on the list, Chamhaud's "Nouveau dictionnaire françois-anglais," etc., 1778, appears in the manuscript inventory as "Shamhead Dictionary 1 Vol. 4to, \$7.50." As printed by Everett this becomes "Skomhrand's Dictionary, 1 Vol., 7.50," a title which might have been very difficult to identify had not the book itself turned up in the 1876 sale.

The list as printed by Everett is continuous. In the manuscript the contents of each book-case is given. "Case No. 1," for example, had, on the bottom shelves, no doubt, the "American Encyclopædia," Johnson's "Dictionary," and other large quartos, while the upper shelves contained smaller octavos. The contents are given of eight book-cases numbered from 1 to 8, followed by a list comprising 125 volumes of various sizes, largely books on agriculture, which are marked "On the Table." After this are the headings "Pamphlets in No. 1," "Books in lower Part of No. 3," a few additional titles "In No. 5," "Maps, Charts, etc.," followed by four titles with the heading "Books Omitted."

Washington owned two copies of his own "Official Letters to the Honorable American Congress," in two volumes, 8vo., printed (without Washington's authority) in London in 1795. The editor, John Carey, a brother of Matthew Carey, the Philadelphia publisher, sent the two copies to Wash-

ington, accompanied by a letter of explanation, dated March 31, 1795, containing the following:

Respecting the plan of publication I have adopted, which I fear your Excellency will at first sight disapprove, and which is far from being satisfactory to myself—I would beg leave to refer to one of the copies above mentioned—the one in boards—containing some manuscript remarks expressive of the motives that influenced me on that occasion.

The copy with the manuscript notes by the editor (no longer "in boards," but rebound, probably by Washington's orders, in half calf) sold in the Hurst sale, in 1904, for \$2,810, the highest price thus far paid at public sale for any Washington book. Washington's autograph is on the title-page of each volume, but neither volume contains the book-plate. The other set, bound in tree calf, yellow edges (probably the binding put upon it in London by Carey, before it was sent to Washington) sold in 1876 for \$27, and was resold in Philadelphia, in May, 1895, for \$1,650. This set has Washington's signature on the title-page of each volume, and his book-plate in the first volume. The manuscript inventory shows that one set was in case No. 1, the other in case No. 5. Each set was valued by the appraisers at \$4. The set in case No. 1 does not appear in the printed inventory, having been overlooked by Everett's copyist.

Another book omitted by Everett's copyist is found in the manuscript inventory as "Hales contemplations, moral & divine, 1 vol. 8vo. \$50." This book was mentioned by Everett in his "Life" as still at Mount Vernon. It had belonged, he said, to Washington's father, and contained the autograph of each of his two wives, Jane and Mary. It came up in the 1876 sale, and again in the Baker sale in 1891. The leaf containing Jane Washington's name had meanwhile disappeared. The name Mary Washington is on the title-page and below in the early autograph of George Washington is written "Mother of G. Washington."

On February 5, 1788, Washington wrote to James Madison: "Perceiving that the Federalist under the signature of Puhlius, is about to be republished, I would thank you for forwarding to me three or four copies, one of which to be bound, and inform me of the cost." The Inventory shows two sets of "The Federalist," one valued at \$3, and the other at \$1.50. One of these, undoubtedly the \$3 copy, and the one which by Washington's orders was "to be bound," sold in 1876 for \$100, and was resold in February, 1891, for \$1,900. It was one of the rare "thick paper" copies, and each volume contained Washington's autograph and book-plate. Vol. I. also contained notes as to the authorship of the several essays, in the handwriting of James Madison.

Washington subscribed for twenty copies of the first edition of Barlow's "Vision of Columbus." This was done, undoubtedly, as a financial help to the author. At the time of Washington's death two copies remained. No one of the twenty copies can now be positively identified. Louis XVI. was even more liberal. His name occurs in the list of subscribers for twenty-five copies of the book.

On May 6, 1792, Washington acknowledged

the gift from the author of fifty copies of Paine's "Rights of Man." They were sent, no doubt, with the expectation that Washington would distribute them among his friends. That he did not do this is shown by the entry in the Inventory: "Tom Paynes Rights of Man 43 vols. 8vo. \$15.00." Even in 1800 it was Tom Paine, used as a term of opprobrium. In no other case is the given name of any author mentioned in the Inventory. L. S. L.

OXFORD IN VACATION.

OXFORD, August 6.

To-day is the August Bank-Holiday, when every true-horn Englishman's summer outing is supposed to begin, from the King's to the schoolboy's. Town is making, or preparing for, its exodus. For Gown the holidays formally began a month and more ago. Yet some half a hundred 'unfortunate candidates for the haccalaureate were left to pass their *vivâ voce* barely more than a fortnight ago, and a considerable number of unfortunate dons were fettered to that function. By nine o'clock in the morning the High in the neighborhood of the New Schools had assumed something of a faint reminiscence of term. Young men were gathering, dressed under the hoh-tailed gown of the commoner in the prescribed black coat and white tie, which is the vague relic of the former ecclesiastical character of the university student. Their solemn faces showed clearly their sense of the impending terror, and their exchanged prognostications were of the gloomiest description.

The *vivâ voce* examinations, which supplement the written papers, are formally open to the public, just as in some of our American colleges the candidates for the haccalaureate, on being presented for their degrees, are still pronounced *publico examine probatos*. But the public has ceased in Oxford to exercise its privilege. In the great and dignified room where the *vivâ voce* in *Litteræ Humaniores* was carried on, a double row of chairs stretched the full length of the apartment, and across one end, but I was the only occupant of them, save for one or two pale candidates, who entered somewhat before their appointed times and dropped into seats as near the door as possible. Behind a long table were seated three examiners, occasionally increasing in number to five, all in the master's gown and hood, and these not invariably in the most neat condition. Toward the end of the period one of the two University Proctors dropped in, and was received with official courtesy. He wore hands, and that more elaborate arrangement of gown which, I believe, was once merely the full-dress gown of the ordinary M.A.'s, whose representatives the Proctors especially are in the government of the university. On the other side of the table from the examiners were placed five chairs for the candidates, though each one of these in turn had the whole side of the table to himself, and was ordinarily subjected to catechism by only one of the examiners.

The examination was not as brief nor as simple as the famous one recorded of Lord Eldon, who was asked a single question each on Hebrew and history: "What is the Hebrew for a skull, sir?" "Golgotha."

"Quite right, sir, quite right. And who founded University College?" "King Alfred." With this answer, more loyal than veracious, his examination was happily ended. The examinations the other day were most of them brief and simple, less than fifteen minutes each being spent on most of the victims. "Ah, Mr. Smith, what can you tell us about Lucullus?" "He was a distinguished Roman, who held command in the East." "Against whom?" "Mithridates." "Quite right. And do you remember who succeeded him?" "Pompey." "Yes. And can you recall the names of the two laws that gave Pompey his extraordinary powers?" "No-o-o, sir, I can't." An examination in philosophy was, however, much longer and more searching. It is proposed, I am told, to give up these ancient oral examinations, except when the precise rank of a candidate from his written papers is in doubt.

The ceremony of conferring degrees for the last time before the new academic year took place only a week ago, in the beautiful and stately old Divinity School, where the disputations in divinity are still delivered, though without opponents, by candidates for divinity degrees, and usually with only the Regius Professor of Divinity to listen to them. In this respect divinity only shares the lonely fate of the *vivâ voce*. It was a less tense atmosphere the other day than when Archbishop Cranmer, as a prisoner, held his own in that same hall against the combined forces of the Romanist divines of Oxford and Cambridge. Last week two long rows of backless oak benches were set out along each side of the room, from the end door into "the Pigmarket" up to the loftier seats behind the railing, in front of which, on the floor, were the benches for the assembling Doctors and Masters. In the high seats were some privileged spectators; on the backless benches to the right of the entrance sat ungracefully the candidates for the master's degree; opposite them the candidates for the baccalaureate, and huddled against the wall behind the benches stood the unauthorized onlookers. Among the few Doctors at the other end, nearest the Vice-Chancellor's raised chair, in the differing glory of their stellar splendors, it was interesting to notice the effective scarlet and gray habits of the new doctorates in Letters and in Science. The dignified Bedel, carrying his portly silver staff wrong end up (it is carried right end up only before the Chancellor and the King) elbowed his way through the throng at the door, pronouncing, as he advanced, the prescribed Latin formula in the prescribed gentle tone, "Intretis in Congregationem, magistris, intretis," and then followed the two Proctors in their black and white, and the Vice-Chancellor in his scarlet and black. He took his place in the raised chair at the further end, with the Proctors lower down to right and left, and Doctors and Masters flanking them. There appeared to be hardly more Masters than enough to make the statutory quorum of nine for the conferring of degrees. The Vice-Chancellor presented at a distance a striking likeness to that old and rigorous Chancellor, the ill-fated Archbishop Laud, who may have sat in Congregation in that place; but Laud was a strict formalist, and I gravely doubt whether he would have allowed himself, or any other D.D., to say nothing of

a Vice-Chancellor, to wear the light gray trousers that peeped out when the presiding dignitary's gown fell slightly open. A few items of formal business, disposed of, I suppose, by the house sitting as Convocation, were quickly run through in fluent Latin, silence on the part of the members marking assent. Authorization had to be given to the affixing of the University seal to certain leases, and the unexpected appearance in the midst of the learned tongue of familiar English phrases—"cum The Associated Portland Cement Manufacturers"—caught the ear of the audience and raised subdued laughter. After each statement was rattled off by the Vice-Chancellor he added, snatching off his cap, "Placetne vobis, Domini Doctores? Placetne vobis? Placetne vobis? . . . Sigillum apponatur." It was curious to notice throughout this and the following part of the function the academic freedom that prevailed in the matter of the pronunciation of Latin on the part of the different speakers. Everything seemed to "go," from "Roman" to "English."

Then followed the ceremony for which all the audience were waiting, according to the forms that have been considerably shortened since the older days, but yet retain many elements of historic interest, especially to a Western observer. The Vice-Chancellor and the Proctors, the one representing the external authority, the others the joint right of the associated Masters, alone wore their caps during the entire ceremony, except at moments of salutation—the Proctors, however, removing theirs when the Vice-Chancellor lifted his. The form of admission to the Master's degree is more elaborate than that for the baccalaureate, marking the especial importance of the Master as received into full membership in the University as a legally constituted society of scholars. The Masters are admitted in groups of four only; the Bachelors all in a lump, after presentation by colleges. The Masters kneel before the Vice-Chancellor, and at the conclusion of the formula are touched on the head by him with a copy of the New Testament, "in nomine Domini, Patris, Filii, et Spiritus Sancti," as marking the originally ecclesiastical character of the function; the Bachelors stand in a confused group, and are admitted in a briefer formula. The pledge required from the Masters is more elaborate than that required from the Bachelors, as they alone are admitted to a share in the government of the University; but they are no longer compelled to promise, as they were from 1334 to 1827, not to recognize as a University any other institution in England except Cambridge, and especially not to lecture nor to listen to lectures in Stamford as a University. The Masters alone are said to "commence" (*incipere*) in their respective faculties (that is, of course, to commence teaching), the Bachelors being given license to read only. The Masters, after their degrees are conferred, are ushered out of the room by the Bedel to don their new gowns and hoods, and are then formally escorted in again in a group to make their silent bow before the Vice-Chancellor; the Bachelors are pointed the way out, and there abandoned to their own devices. Custom is in wait for them there, though, and lays its unwavering hand upon them. One

of the servants of his own College claims the right to bring the new Bachelor his gown and hood, and invest him with them on the spot, and to receive as tip therefor a sovereign.
E. T. M.

Correspondence.

"THE SECRET OF THE TOTEM."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The subject of Totemism is naturally unpopular, being complex, arid, and connected with that state of savagery from which, as Thackeray's Miss Tickletoe says, we willingly withdraw our view. Thus, few persons can be interested in my remonstrance with the critic of my "Secret of the Totem," in your columns for May 31; three copies of the critique have to-day reached me. Permit me to quote my critic textually. He says:

The book presents as the "secret" a fact known for centuries, and but lately worked out into a sober monograph by two Russian scholars. Further, Mr. Lang, in order to the upholding of his thesis, which, in a word, is simply that the totem was a kind of *Schriftart*, as Picker (*sic*) and Somlo called it in the monograph referred to, has to ignore all the recent facts collected in defiance of his theory. This he does with his customary coolness. The savages of Central Australia do not support his view, so he calmly advances them in the scale of civilization, and regards them as too advanced to be usable—for his theory. Mr. Frazer, who first revamped his old theory of totemism into a clumsy adaptation of modern views, subsequently, in several illuminating articles in the *Fortnightly Review*, threw over the notion that matriarchy necessarily precedes patriarchy; but this result, Mr. Lang in turn, throws over, for, as he admits, it invalidates his argument. Inheritance of the totem does not always come first from the mother—then away with the vile body which indicates this; or, in Mr. Lang's words, "I am unable to accept this tribe as an example of the most archaic state of affairs extant."

I had, in fact, advanced my theory of the *origin* (not the complete "Secret") of the totem, in various places, such as the *Athenæum* and *Longman's Magazine*, before "Picker" (as your critic amusingly styles M. Pikler), with another "Russian scholar," published his "sober monograph," which is quoted freely in my book. I also put forward my ideas on the whole evolution of totemism in "Social Origins" before I had so much as heard that there was any "Picker." But my idea is *not*, as my critic avers, "simply that the totem is a kind of *Schriftart*," in origin; that theory I am obliged to oppose. In origin the totem was no *Schriftart*, I think, but a name, and part of a system of naming. This opinion, this portion of the whole "Secret," may be "a fact known for centuries," since, as I say in my book, the theory that totemism arose in the differentiation of groups was put forward by Garcilasso de la Vega, an Inca by the maternal side, in his "History of the Incas." Of this fact I apprised Mr. J. F. McLennan, thirty-six years ago! Garcilasso, however, did not work out his theory into any of the details. To do this has been my aim: that is, to unravel the whole complex evolution of totemism, as far as it exists in Australia. My general theory is novel, of course; it has *not* "been known for centuries"; though centuries

ago, Garcilasso made a guess at one portion of my hypothesis.

My reviewer declares that, to uphold my thesis, I deliberately ignore facts, and (if I correctly interpret him) that this is my common practice. I have, he says, "to ignore all the recent facts collected in defiance of my theory," and "this I do with my customary coolness." With all deference I venture to suggest that the charge, as I find no vestige of a basis for it in my book, must be made in consequence of some misconception on the part of my reviewer. He quotes, from my preface, the statement that "I am unable to accept this tribe," the Arunta, "as an example of the most archaic state of affairs extant," but he does not quote the reasons which I give for my inability to regard the tribe as primitive. The reasons are many, and many inquirers, English and Continental, here agree with me. I am conscious, at least, of having ignored no recently collected facts bearing on the subject, of which I was aware when I wrote the book reviewed; though, in the present year, interesting facts have been collected which I could not notice before they reached me, in private letters from Western Australia. (April, 1906.)

If the critic means (as he appears to mean) that I "ignored" the facts from central and north central Australia, I reply that I carefully criticised them in two chapters (iv. and xi.), devoted to the discoveries and theory of Prof. Baldwin Spencer, and to a then recently published magazine article by Mr. J. G. Frazer. To state, to criticise, and, as a result of criticism, to decline to accept a *theory*, is not to "ignore facts." I have again criticised Professor Spencer's most recent statement of his theory, in the *Journal of the Anthropological Institute*, for July, 1906. Far from "ignoring the facts," I state and accept the facts, while giving my reasons for differing from the interpretations of them suggested by Professor Spencer and Mr. Frazer. In taking this course I agree with several British and foreign students of distinction.

I am said "calmly to advance the savages of central Australia in the scale of civilization," *because* "they do not support my views." I disclaim the imputed motive. These savages, according to Professor Spencer himself, and Mr. Howitt, are in about the fifth stage of what these students, and I, look on as progress in social organization. How, then, can I regard these tribes, with Professor Spencer, as "primitive" in respect to social organization? They might, of course, retain archaic survivals; I do not deny *that*; but I advance reasons, which, so far, have not, to my knowledge, been refuted, for thinking that, as regards totemism, these tribes are not primitive, but decadent and aberrant.

The notion "that matriarchy" does not "necessarily precede patriarchy," was not held by any one of our best authorities—for example, by Mr. Frazer, Mr. Tylor, or Mr. Howitt—till Professor Spencer discovered the organization of the central and north central Australian tribes, and even then Mr. Tylor, certainly, and, I think, Mr. Howitt, no more abandoned their previous opinion than I have done. In this country we were previously all agreed that, among totemic peoples, "matriarchy" was prior to "patriarchy." But some students

who look on these central and northern tribes as specially "primitive," have been led to the recently proposed opinion that one tribe may start with "patriarchy," and another with "matriarchy." On this theory, and not otherwise, the central and north central tribes—though confessedly far advanced in social organization—may, as far as their "patriarchy" is concerned, be as "primitive" as the tribes with "matriarchy." I do not, as my critic says, "throw over this result, *for*, as I admit, it invalidates my argument,"—if "*for*" here means "*because*." I might as well say that students who differ from me accept "this result," *because*, if they do not, *their* argument is invalidated. I reject, for myself, the new opinion that "patriarchy" and "matriarchy," among these tribes, are equally primitive, because, among other reasons, these tribes with "patriarchy" for the more part retain the most undeniable traces of a previous state of "matriarchy." Into this part of the subject, as Mr. Frazer's new opinion only came to my notice after my book was in type, I had not the opportunity to enter with desirable minuteness. I have since found another opportunity.

Let me express my regret that I have had to offer so long, and, doubtless, so dull an explanation.

ANDREW LANG.

London, July 30.

[We did not impugn Mr. Lang's honesty in stating that he coolly ignored facts; it would have been a mere paraphrase had we said that he easily disregarded them. We did say that he deceived his reader in publishing his book under the caption "The Secret of the Totem," since there is nothing to indicate that the totemism meant is only, as he now says, "totemism, as far as it exists in Australia." Dr. Pickler (the misprint "Pikler" is doubtless very amusing) had previously advocated the theory that "the germ of totemism is the *naming*," in contradistinction to the mystical theory of Frazer, and the purchaser of a fresher "Secret" might well expect to find something besides a mere modification of Pickler's view. Spencer and Gillen have shown that descent in the female line has not always preceded the counting of it in the male line, and Frazer has admitted that "the common assumption that the inheritance of the totem through the mother always preceded inheritance of it through the father need not hold good." Mr. Lang in the "Secret" himself admits that he has throughout argued on that very assumption, and that it is this assumption which is "fatal to the Arunta claim to primitiveness."—ED. NATION.]

PUNCTUATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For some readers by far the most interesting piece in the August *Atlantic* was Mr. Garrison's article on "A Dissolving View of Punctuation." It brought back to my mind the time when I used to gaze with a kind of awe at my father's library

and wonder—not how the men got their ideas for all those books, but how they ever managed to punctuate them!

I hoped Mr. Garrison was going to give a smart rap over the knuckles to those writers who obscure the sense of what they write, by their slap-dash use of the dash—often putting such a succession of them that it is hard to pick out the true meaning. And by the by, what rational justification is there for the use of comma and dash, as in the first sentence on p. 269 of the August *Atlantic*? "Ten or a dozen years ago,—the exact date is here immaterial,—an enterprising," etc. I happen to have before me two text books issued by the same publishing house: one of them always precedes the dash by a comma, while the other one omits the comma; and this surely seems to be the better way.

As to the interrogation point, every one who reads aloud must have learned to wish that we were as sensible as the Spanish are, in putting the question sign at the beginning of the sentence, so that the reader might instantly give the proper inflection to his voice. Another reason for putting the sign at the beginning is that sometimes the question affects only the first part of the sentence, the latter part winding up with an unquestioned declaration of fact, thus making it exceedingly awkward to carry the question-tone so far.

The Germans have such an extremely helpful use of the hyphen that it is strange it has not been adopted by other nations. A simple example is: "Owing to the wind- and snow-storm," which is not always the same as "the wind and snow-storm." But what we have taken over from the Germans in our Latin and Greek texts is the comma in front of every relative pronoun. Many of your readers can no doubt recall times when this vicious German comma for awhile completely obscured the sense by divorcing ideas that no man should put asunder. The Germans would not make the distinction that the comma makes for us in these two sentences: "Parents, who are the natural protectors of their children, must not let them govern themselves to their own hurt"; and: "Parents who let their children govern themselves are very culpable."

Have not some of your readers at times felt the need of a mark of less weight than the comma? If one writes: "Mary Jane and Jack have gone blackberrying," have two or three gone? If we write: "Mary, Jane and Jack have gone," are we giving Mary information about Jane and Jack? or have all three gone? If we put it so: "Mary, Jane, and Jack have gone," we do not punctuate as we speak, for no one says "Jack have gone." We *speak* a comma after Jack, whether we write one or not—and I do not think I ever saw the comma separating the last term of a series from the verb common to them all. The absence of the comma there seems to unite the last member too closely to the verb, giving it an unfair advantage over the preceding members of the series: if we put the comma, it seems to jar the terms too far apart.

If an appositive clause finds place in such a series, the matter is made still worse. To take a classical example, we read in "De Amicitia," 101; "Senes illos,

Œ. Paulum, M. Catonem, C. Gallum, P. Nas-icam, Ti. Gracchum, Scipionis nostri soce-
rum, dileximus." Now count your old men.
Five, or six?

In such places the parenthesis would re-
move ambiguity, thus: "Ti. Gracchum
(Scipionis nostri socerum)"—and then
comes the awkwardness of the comma, as
shown above.

ADDISON HOGUE.

Lexington, Va., August 14.

HISTORICAL PARALLELITIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While historical "parallelitis," as
you term it in your interesting article on
the Russian crisis, is an insidious malady,
is it not the case that the really important
point is not so much that one of our news-
papers is suffering from it, as that the
Russian people are? You blame the *Times*,
for which I hold no brief, for seeing in the
reported understanding of the Czar with the
Kaiser and the Emperor of Austria a
parallel to the relation of Louis XVI. with
the same Powers in 1792. The parallel may
be fallacious, but it may yet be extremely
effective if the members of the Duma had
something of the sort in mind when, after
their recent dissolution, they addressed
the Russian people as follows:

Our Government have gone to such
lengths that the Austrian and German Em-
perors have placed their troops at the dis-
posal of the Tsar's Government for war
against the Russian people. This is clearly
conspiracy with foreigners against the
Fatherland. This is a state of treason on
the part of the Government . . . etc., etc.

Was it not for treason of precisely the
same character that, rightly or wrongly,
Louis XVI. was beheaded? J.

Notes.

Edith Wharton will contribute the serial
story of Scribner's for 1907. The title of
the story is not stated.

L. C. Page & Co. will soon have ready a
new edition of "The Cities of Northern
Italy," by Grant Allen and George C. Wil-
liamson.

The latest section of the "Oxford Eng-
lish Dictionary" to appear carries that
great work from *Ph* to *Piper*, the editor be-
ing Dr. James A. H. Bradley.

The Oxford University Press is preparing
"The Oxford Anthology of English Litera-
ture," by G. E. and W. H. Hadow, in three
volumes, the first of which will be ready
this month.

D. C. Heath & Co. announce two new vol-
umes in the Belles-Lettres Series: "Select
Poems of Robert Browning," edited by
Richard Burton, and the "Select Poems of
Tennyson," edited by Archibald Mac-
Mechan.

Despite his seventy-seven years Tolstoy
is husily engaged on a new hook, to be call-
ed "Divine, Human." It is concerned with
the Russian Liberal movement in the eigh-
ties and nineties. Another work of his will
take up Lamennais.

Thomas Whittaker is publishing the
"Reminiscences of a Missionary Bishop,"
which contains the experiences for a period
of forty years of Bishop Tuttle, presiding

bishop of the Episcopal Church, formerly of
Utah, now of the Diocese of Missouri.

The *Four-Track News*, hitherto issued by
the New York Central Railway, will now be
published independently as the *Travel
Magazine*, by Walter A. Johnson, formerly
of Doubleday, Page & Co., and others. The
size of the magazine will be enlarged.

Bertram Dohell has issued a new edition
of "The Poetical Works of Thomas Tra-
herne," with an Introduction explaining
how the MS. was found, and a prefatory
poem by Mr. Dohell himself. He also an-
nounces that the "Meditations" are soon to
be published in a separate volume.

"Shakespeare's Complete Works" will ap-
pear this autumn in Houghton, Mifflin &
Co.'s Cambridge Poets Series. They will
also bring out the "Complete Poems of
Edward Rowland Sill" in a single volume at
a popular price. Sill's work has long need-
ed to be thus collected.

The Century Company will publish this
autumn the "Addresses of John Hay" and
Frederick Trevor Hill's "Lincoln, the Law-
yer." The new Thumb-nail hooks will be
E. E. Hale's "The Man Without a Country,"
Emerson's "Friendship" and "Character,"
and the Proverbs of Solomon.

John W. Munson's "Reminiscences of a
Moshy Guerilla" will soon be brought out
by Moffat, Yard & Co. Mr. Munson joined
the Partisan Rangers at the beginning of
their career, and stayed with them to the
end. In writing his memoirs he has had the
assistance of Col. Moshy and others of the
command.

Seven *Lieferungen* have now appeared
of the new revised edition of Wülker's
"Geschichte der Englischen Literatur"
(Lemcke & Buechner), which will be com-
pleted in fifteen parts. Besides the sober
account of English literature contained in
this work, it is valuable for its facsimiles
of MSS. and early books. American authors
receive proper attention.

"Les Classiques Français," the tidy and
rather gay little hooks issued by Dent and
Putnams, will soon mount to a consider-
able number. Two late volumes include
Dumas's "La Tulipe Noire," with a Pref-
ace by Emile Faguet, and La Rochefou-
cauld's "Maximes," under the care of Paul
Souday. The "Maximes," in particular,
make a delightful little hook.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will soon have ready
"Court Life in the Dutch Republic," 1638-
1689, by the Baroness Suzette Van Zuylen
Van Nyvelt; "Reason in Architecture," by
T. G. Jackson, and "Sidelights on the Home
Rule Movement," by Sir Robert Anderson.
Sir Robert is the son of Matthew Anderson,
who was crown solicitor in Duhlin.

The Baker & Taylor Company announce
the following publications for this autumn:
"Max Fergus," by Owen Johnson; "Ka-
trina," by Roy Rolfe Gilson; "Power Lot,"
by Sarah P. McLean Greene; "Mr. Pick-
wick's Christmas" and "A Christmas Carol,"
with illustrations by George Alfred Wil-
liams; "A History of Architecture," by
Russell Sturgis, and "Lady Hollyhock and
her Friends," by Margaret Coulson Walker.

Another volume of the Dent-Putnam
Greek and Latin classics is made up of
Plato's "Euthyphro, Apology, and Crito,"
with Introduction, Translation, and Notes
by F. M. Stawell. Were the type only a

bit more generous, so as to invite read-
ing, for example, in the cars, this would
be almost an ideal publication. We have
long needed such an edition of the princi-
pal classics, designed for those who still
carry a little baggage of Greek and Latin,
but are glad to substitute for the dictionary
a fair translation on facing pages.

In the *Harvard Quarterly Journal of
Economics* for August Prof. W. F. Willcox
discusses the "Distribution of Immigrants,"
and contributes some solid facts to the
controversy—too often frothy—on immigra-
tion. He examines the common impres-
sion that the foreign-horn tend to collect
in the great cities, and that the most il-
literate of them tend especially to huddle
there. This question he handles with the
coolness of a trained statistician, and with
careful use of the available figures; and
the outcome is to dispose pretty complete-
ly of the prevailing notion. True, there is
a larger percentage of the foreign-horn in
the cities; but this is conspicuous chiefly
in the seaports, and is due to the simple
fact that they arrive in those ports and
cannot get away from them at once. The
ports of arrival act as reservoirs, receiving
a steady inflow, but discharging a steady
outflow, and full only because new currents
are always coming in. In the fiscal year
1900, "within a period averaging six months
after their arrival at New York city, not
less than 107,000 out of 134,000 immigrants,
or four-fifths of the whole number, had left
that city, and dispersed over the country."
During the decade 1890-1900 two-thirds of
the Italian addition to the population of
New York left that city before its close.
The currents are steadily flowing from city
to country. "All the facts have been found
consistent with the theory that the larger
proportion of foreign-horn in our cities is
due to the fact that nine-tenths of them
arrive in cities and that it takes them a
long time to disperse from these centres."
The notion that among the immigrants
those who are illiterate tend especially to
congregate in cities seems to have no het-
ter foundation. In the State of New York
the foreign-horn in the cities have a lower
per cent. of illiteracy than those outside
the cities, and Professor Willcox believes
that in other States similar results would
be found.

South America is the main subject of
the *National Geographic Magazine* for Au-
gust, the opening article being a forecast,
by Mr. Chas. M. Pepper, of its condition
fifty years hence. The Argentine Repub-
lic seems to him to have the most promis-
ing future from its natural resources, be-
ing another Mississippi valley, and he be-
lieves that in 1956 Buenos Ayres will have
a population of two and a half millions.
He predicts a great overflow of capital
from the United States which will be used
largely in the construction of railways.
Professor Bailey of Harvard gives an ac-
count of an exploring trip from the eastern
slopes of the Andes to the Amazon val-
ley, and of the savages who inhabit the
region through which only one white man
had ever before passed. An interesting
spot where three republics meet, Brazil,
Argentina, and Paraguay, the falls of Ig-
uazu, rivalling Niagara in grandeur and
excelling it in beauty, is described by
Marie R. Wright. In his account of his
fourth visit to Mont Pelée, made last Feb-

ruary, Prof. Angelo Heilprin says that he thinks he has solved the problem presented by the great obelisk of rock which after the eruption rose above the cone of the mountain a thousand feet, but is now shattered. The view generally held by geologists and ably elaborated by Professor Lacroix, chief of the scientific investigation committee sent out by the Academy of Sciences of Paris, is that it represented a rapidly and recently cooled highly acidic lava, whose tension and viscosity were such as to permit the solidification at or about the time of extrusion. In other words, it took the place of the free flows of lava which usually accompany volcanic eruptions. Professor Heilprin maintains, on the contrary, that it was an ancient volcanic plug, which bore no relation in its formation to the newer phase of eruption of the volcano, and was lifted bodily, as the result of extreme volcanic stress, in the manner of the great block of the Puy Chopine, in the Auvergne. The illustrations of this and the other articles are numerous and well-chosen, and there is also a map of South America with some useful facts and statistics in the margin.

It is shown in the *Philippine Journal of Science* for June that the waste of the stripped *abaká* (Manila hemp) offers excellent prospects for paper manufacture, as do certain other Philippine fibres and grasses. The most interesting article of this number, however, is undoubtedly a discussion of the bubonic plague in Japan by the bacteriologist whose name has come to be famous in connection with this disease, Shibasaburo Kitasato, head of the Institute for Infectious Diseases at Tokio. It was Dr. Kitasato who first organized the rat-killing campaign as a means of both locating and combating the plague—a system which has been followed with success in Manila, where the health authorities keep in close touch with the Japanese laborers in the same field. Even when there is no plague, 3,000 to 4,000 rats per day are bought and "post-mortemed" in Tokio, a measure of prevention which in 1904 located a case of infection in a steamer from Hongkong and enabled the authorities to take action before a single human being had been infected. In Tokio, since 1900, 4,820,000 rats have been caught and killed, at a cost to the Government of over 160,000 yen. But Tokio's plague epidemic of 1902-1903 cost the city 320,000 yen; how vigorously and thoroughly the Japanese health authorities have fought these epidemics is shown by the fact that the number of patients in Tokio was only 15, giving an expenditure of 21,333 yen for each patient. The same has been the case in the epidemics in Yokohama, Osaka, and Kobe, and the three epidemics in the past six years have claimed only 513 recorded victims (besides a number undoubtedly not reported). Whole districts of Tokio, for instance, were encircled with zinc-sheeting fences, running a foot below ground and three feet or more above ground, to retain the rats till they could be killed. Kitasato calls attention to two things of importance to all cities which are threatened by this disease. First, he shows that rats cannot be exterminated by any method as yet known; and, secondly, he points to the large area of southern China, to India, and the British free ports as the focus of the

disease and as places where nothing is done to prevent its spread to other parts.

Edward B. Reed of Yale University makes an interesting discovery in regard to the celebrated lines on "Sidney's sister, Pembroke's mother," which have been attributed both to Ben Jonson and to William Browne. The common statement is that the verses were first printed anonymously in Osborne's "Traditional Memoirs on the Reign of King James," 1658, thirty-seven years after the death of the Countess of Pembroke. Earlier than that, it is said to appear first in a MS. of the middle of the sixteenth century, in Trinity College, Dublin, under the signature "William Browne," and also in a collection of Browne's miscellaneous pieces, in Lansdowne MS. No. 777, dated 1650. Mr. Reed thus presents his own discovery in a letter to the *Athenæum*:

In Camden's "Remaines concerning Brittain: But especially England, and the Inhabitants thereof. The fourth Impression, reviewed, corrected, and increased, London, 1629," p. 336, is the following:

On the Countess Dowager of Pembroke.

Under this Marble Hearse
Lyes the subject of all Verse;
Sidney's sister, Pembroke's mother,
Death, ere thou hast kil'd another,
Faire, and learn'd, and good as she,
Time shall throw a dart at thee.

Marble piles let no man raise
To her name, for after-dayes;
Some kind woman borne as she,
Reading this, (like Niobe)
Shall turne Marble, and become
Both her mourner and her Tombe.

In the Trinity College MS. line 1 reads "Underneath this sable hearse"; line 4 reads "Death, ere thou hast slain another," with the variant "killed."

This epitaph is printed in the "Remains" without its author's name. It follows immediately an epitaph on Sir Philip Sidney which has this brief introduction: "Sir Philip Sidney . . . hath this most happily imitated out of the French of Mons. Bonivet, made by Joach. de Bellay, as it was noted by Sir George Buc in his Poetica." Evidently the writer of the lines on the Countess of Pembroke was not known, or his name also would have been given. The epitaph is printed eight years before Jonson's death, yet apparently he never claimed it. This is certainly a point in favor of Browne's authorship, for Jonson was not the man to hide his light under a bushel.

The quatercentenary celebrations of the University of Aberdeen are to begin on the 25th of September, with a chapel service, and terminate on the 18th with a students' symposium, which probably means a *Kneipe*. On the 27th, King Edward is to be present to inaugurate the new university buildings, and Lord Strathcona, the Chancellor, gives a banquet in a specially constructed pavilion to the invited guests and all the present and past members of the University, to the expected number of about 2,500. Receptions, athletic sports, banquets by the civic authorities and others, and excursions fill up the remaining time.

The Council of the Section of Anthropology of the British Association has presented a resolution in which it is urged that the governments of the South African colonies should collect and preserve the knowledge and observations of men, such as missionaries, administrators, and others, who were living in intimate relations with the native tribes before the advance of civilization began to obliterate all true traditions and habits of the South African natives; and that the authori-

ties should by conference establish a proper nomenclature of the various groups of natives with a view to ascertaining their inter-relationships. The resolution closed with the recommendation that opportunity should be given to administrators of native affairs, before or after their appointment, to study comparative ethnology for at least two terms in one of the universities of the United Kingdom.

The Cambridge University Extension summer meeting was opened on August 2 by Ambassador Whitelaw Reid, who gave an address on "The Rise of the United States in the Eighteenth Century, and the Tendencies of Its Development." Beginning with the statement that it was the greatest fact in modern history, he sketched the main events and their causes of that period, emphasizing the personal sense of loyalty to the mother country by quoting, from a private letter of Benjamin Franklin written in 1758, the remark that George III. was "the best monarch any nation was ever blessed with." American success was due, first to character, then to desperate earnestness, and lastly to circumstance. "The inefficient were sifted out—those left were a picked class . . . and there was an absolute freedom for individual initiative." He closed with a reference to the collectivist or socialistic tendencies of the times as threatening to destroy this freedom. He confidently believed, however, that the English-speaking races, "on whatever continent or island, would surely in the end hold fast to these ancient characteristics of a strong, free people, and so keep secure their places in the van of human progress."

A noteworthy career has been closed by the recent death of the Rev. George Grenfell, at the age of fifty-seven. He went to the Cameroons as a Baptist missionary in 1874, and four years later to the Congo Free State, which has been the scene of his labors ever since. To his missionary work he added that of an explorer, and, after Stanley, he has probably done more than any other Englishman to add to our knowledge of the river and its tributaries. "Few explorers in any part of the world," says the *London Times*, "have made such extensive and valuable contributions to geographical knowledge as this modest missionary, who, had he possessed the ambition and 'push' of men who have not done a tithe of his work, would have been loaded with honors." For some special service he received orders from the Portuguese and Belgian governments, and the Royal Geographical Society awarded him the Royal Medal. His position in regard to the Congo State scandals was shown in a letter published a few months ago in which he spoke frankly and strongly of the atrocious cruelties to which the natives were subjected.

The name of Maître Edmond Rouse is all but unknown abroad, and was but little known at home in France until his death on the first day of August, in his ninetieth year. He was the oldest member of the French Academy in age, though not in office, and he had long been dean of the Paris bar, of which he was the *bâtonnier* during the Siege and the Commune. He was the type of an ancient world which is disappearing fast; bred upon the classics, painfully writing out pleas which were

lucid, forcible literature rather than the rough-and-ready oratory of our modern courts. His election to the Academy was a tribute to law, clothing its forensic form with high literature; he was the first member of the bar to attain a seat among the Forty Immortals without ever passing through a political assembly. Before the delighted jury of Chartres, had he not bodily transformed Cicero "Pro Muræna" into his own plea for a criminal—who was acquitted? During the Commune, at the risk of his own life, he defended Gustave Chaudey against Raoul Rigault, the Latin Quarter brawler, who had been made Public Prosecutor in a parody of justice. In 1880, against Jules Ferry, and again in these last years against M. Combes, he succinctly and forcibly presented the legal rights of the religious associations which the Republic was suppressing. Renan, in the name of the French Academy, said of him: "We never see him entering our weekly meetings without saying, the good and righteous have their seat with us."

The latest news from Sven Hedin is contained in a letter to King Oscar of Sweden, who has allowed the Stockholm newspapers to print it. Much of it relates to the exploration of the desert region of Kevir, which is marked in English and Russian maps as a salt desert, but which Hedin found to be really a shallow inland sea. It rained incessantly while he traversed this region with two companions. The camels found it so difficult to get along that Hedin and his men had to walk most of the time, and repeatedly they were in danger of sticking in the malodorous, swampy ground. Subsequently, the explorer visited the Bahaba desert and then prepared for his journey through Seistan to India. He had heard reports of the ravages of the plague in Seistan, and had abundant occasion to verify them. At Nashretabad, a town of 2,500 inhabitants, nine-tenths had perished at the time of his arrival, and this was but a sample. Famine had prepared the soil for the epidemic, and the hostility of the natives to sanitary measures allowed it free sway. With his own eyes, Sven Hedin saw a mob attack a plague hospital and set it on fire. The object was to destroy the supply of serum, but this had fortunately been taken to another village.

The pamphlets and tracts of the German Reformation are growing more difficult to obtain, even for libraries of large means. The old collection of reprints by Schade is now out of print, and is also incomplete, and the selection of publications from this period in the "Neudrucke deutscher Literaturwerke des XVI. und XVII. Jahrhunderts" were, of course, selected from other points of view than that of their historical significance. The publication, under the editorship of Dr. Otto Clemen, of a series of "Flugschriften aus den ersten Jahren der Reformation" (Halle: Haupt), is therefore most welcome. Each tract will be accompanied by an historical and bibliographical introduction, and many by reproductions of the original illustrated title-pages. The first two numbers contain reprints of four small tracts, those brought together in the first number being of special popular interest, as showing the attitude of the younger generation towards Luther and the movement which he in-

stigated. One is a letter from a student in Wittenberg to his parents in Swabia; the other a dialogue between an old peasant and his son, who has just returned from the same university. Among those in preparation we find a collection of pamphlets belonging to the prehistory of the Peasants' War. The year of this upheaval, 1525, has been chosen as the time limit of the present series; as the character of the controversy changed after this, and the mass of tracts grew smaller. The series is intended to contain both Protestant and Catholic publications. The price, 9 marks, for a volume of 30 signatures, is very moderate.

The bibliography of the Reformation period in Germany, in spite of careful elaboration, still offers many difficulties. To assist in removing some of these has been the aim of Alfred Goetze in his book, "Die hochdeutschen Drucker der Reformationszeit" (Strassburg: Trübner). He presents facsimiles from 79 books by as many different printers, and gives full imprints, parts of the title-pages, and as complete alphabets as possible, besides biographical data about the printers, including details as to their religious and political affinities. Minute descriptions of 194 title borders are also given. A close study of the types and title-borders used, and of the dialect, is the surest means of identifying the many undated tracts from this period.

Dr. Konrad Haebler has written the introductory text to Paul Heitz's facsimile collection "Hundert Kalender Inkunabeln" (Stuttgart: Heitz & Muendel). From among the two hundred and more calendars printed before the year 1500, which have come to the editor's and the author's notice, they have selected for reproduction one hundred, printed on single leaves, omitting all of larger compass as well as all fragments. While the introduction is mainly confined to investigations of a typographical and astronomical character, the importance of these early popular publications for dialect studies is indicated: sixty-five of the hundred calendars are in German, the rest in Latin. Dr. Haebler is here able to prove the correctness of the late Robert Proctor's guess that the Leipzig edition of Capotius's "Oratio Metrica" and the other books in the same type were printed by Martin Landsberg. The astronomical features of the calendars run largely into astrology, though we can see clearer ideas emerge from the mist of superstition, as, for instance, when the author of the 1478 calendar (No. 23 in the present collection) suggests that one who is sick might seek a competent physician, rather than submit to be bled according to the stars.

These small productions of the first printing presses are receiving more and more attention. They are usually found in old bindings, and three such broadside calendars for the years 1492, 1493, and 1496, so discovered, are described by Dr. Isak Collijn in the last (ninth) volume of the publications of the Kungl. Humanistiska Vetenskapssamfundet in Upsala. The 1492 calendar is of particular interest to the student of printing in Sweden, as it throws light on the Lübeck printer Bartholomæus Gothan, who, in 1483, introduced the new art into the northern Kingdom. Among the other contributions in this volume the

most important is August Hahr's study of Art and Artists at the court of Magnus Gabriel de la Gardie. This great nobleman, son of Gustavus Adolphus's famous general, was one of the wealthiest men during the period following immediately upon the thirty years' war, and an earnest lover of art and science. He did much to promote the progress of both in his native land. His services as chancellor of the University of Upsala were by no means perfunctory, and among his benefactions to its library is the Codex Argenteus whose silver binding was prepared to his order. He employed a great number of artists: painters, architects, and decorators, and among their works are some of the most interesting monuments of the art of the seventeenth century, especially in architecture. Drottningholm, since one of the palaces of the royal family; Karlberg, now the seat of the military academy of the Kingdom, and particularly Leckö, on an island in Vänern, are monuments of De la Gardie's wealth and love of art, and contain many paintings executed for him. His interest in art continued even after the Reduction had brought him to poverty. Dr. Hahr's monograph is an interesting contribution to the history of civilization in Sweden while the country was a world power.

Pierre Loti's new book, "Les Désenchantées," as literature, is a watery sequel to the "Azlyadé" of his sugary-sweet prime. As a human document, it perhaps portrays as nearly as a European can the states of mind and emotions of those latest inmates of Turkish harems who have been brought up to read French novels, including Loti's own. They are probably few in number; two of them, near relatives of the Sultan, lately escaped, and had their story written up for a Paris journal. It was far from sensational, and chiefly impressive by its disclosure of family affection and frank relations with male relatives, also Europeanized young Turks. Of course, Loti, after absorbing all this and what he has found out in Constantinople, squeezes from his own emotional faculty a story more like what we think ought to be. Even so, certain English historical poems are what Robert Browning refelt and attributed to his heroes and heroines. Meanwhile, Pierre Loti's descriptive power is as great as ever; and he has just been promoted in the French navy, as Capt. Julien Viaud, to be full ship commander.

The title of Thomas Okey's "Story of Paris" (in the Dent-Macmillan Mediæval Towns Series) is rather misleading. The book consists of two very slightly related parts, the first of which is a history (not a story) of Paris, and the second a guide to that section of Paris which is enclosed by the "inner boulevards." The history is a fairly picturesque and entertaining compilation, whose sole distinctive feature is a series of running comments on the present condition of the historic sites mentioned in the narrative. The guide is a curious cross between a Baedeker and a Hare, without the satisfying definiteness of the former or the charm of the latter. For such a volume, hurried travellers will have no use, because they rub along very well without any knowledge of history and find that the line of least resistance in "doing" foreign cities is to put themselves

completely at the mercy of a human guide. The seasoned travellers will have no use for it, because they prefer to take their history from the accredited historians and to get such practical information as is indispensable for sight-seeing from a Joanne or a Baedeker, which leaves everything to the imagination and makes no pretence of providing intellectual companionship. The book is well made, as the Deut books usually are. It has a quiet cover, and can be carried in the pocket—two points of excellence which, in a guide-book, are not to be ignored.

There are few German theological treatises which are translated into English from more than one edition. Few, indeed, so richly deserve it as does Herrmann's "Verkehr des Christen mit Gött," which was translated from the second German edition in 1895, and now appears again in English dress altered and corrected from the fourth issue in German ("The Communion of the Christian with God. Described on the Basis of Luther's Statements," Putnam's). The reputation of the book as on the whole the best exposition of the Ritschlian theology, also as the leading work of one of the most distinguished German teachers of Christian doctrine, a man of singular charm and unusual personal attractiveness, justifies the pains taken to keep it before English readers. The unfortunate divisions and paragraph headings of the earlier issue are discarded, and the author's summary has been followed. In the text there is greater conciseness and clearness, objections which have been raised by critics are answered, and endeavor is made to avoid further misunderstanding. Something of the appearance of exclusiveness or narrowness which was very marked in the earlier editions has been removed. In these days of confused religious thinking and talking, when everything under the sun that has an element of truth in it is claimed as a Christian doctrine, and any kind of piety is welcomed as Christian, especially if it sound a little new and strange and have the faculty of making noise, it may be doubted whether the voice of this German teacher of distinctively Christian piety will have much of a hearing. Herrmann does not enter the lists as a champion of the religious sentiment in general, but rather as a defender of one particular faith. He does not profess to have had the religious experiences of a Mohammedan or a Confucianist, and not having had their experiences he does not undertake to expound their doctrine. In his actual environment, however, he has met with realities which have produced religious convictions of a very definite sort, and these he endeavors to make clear. His book is an exposition of the Christian way unto God, the Christian method of coming to be somewhat at home among the mysteries of the universe and becoming reconciled to its tragedies. Whether it is good ecclesiastical statesmanship to lay claim to every truth in sight as Christian truth, and to herald Darwin and Huxley as Christian prophets, as the Dean of Ely has done of late, or, on the other hand, to be content with that which is historically Christian, must be determined by those who shape Church counsels. But the interests of clarity would be served by more general adoption of the method of Professor Herr-

mann. One cannot read this essay without remarking the influence it has exerted during the last twenty years. Scores of writers and preachers of influence, in England and Scotland especially, have found here their inspiration. Few will read it without desiring to antagonize at many points. It is now too orthodox, now too radical. But few who are interested in the high theme it handles will not be kindled by it. It is a book which has entered into the life of our time, and its work has been in behalf of sincere piety and true devotion.

Frankfurt, Germany, still continues its policy of having "guest" conductors. The concerts of the coming season there will be presided over by Mottl, Mahler, Strauss, Nikisch, Steinbach, Toscanini, Mengelberg, Wolfrum, Henry Wood, and others.

Smetana's opera, "The Bartered Bride," had a festival performance at Prague recently to celebrate the fortieth anniversary of its original production there. Since that time it has been sung no less than 440 times. A work which has stood such a test surely deserves a hearing outside of Bohemia, too. The same may be said of Dvorák's opera, "Dimitrij," which has been sung so often that the scenery has had to be replaced by a new set.

Mascagni's successor at Pesaro, Amilcare Zanella, is also a composer, and like most modern writers, he belongs to the Liszt school, inasmuch as he composes symphonic poems. His "Faith" was produced at a recent concert by the Scala Orchestra in Milan, and was favorably received.

M. Messenger, the well-known French composer and operatic manager, was asked the other day in London, whether he would recommend a subventioned opera house for that city; he replied, according to the *London Truth*: "Ah, ça non, par exemple! I should know something of the State-subventioned theatres. At our Opéra Comique in Paris, we receive 300,000 francs a year from the Government. Do you know what it costs us? Not less than 247,000 francs' worth of seats, which we have to give away every year to the *gens du Gouvernement*; and I assure you, they are our best seats."

Messenger has written another opera, founded on Alfred de Musset's "Le Chandelier." It is to be produced next season at the Opéra Comique. That his operetta "Véronique," excellently produced in New York last season, was not more of a success, does not throw a favorable light on American taste in light music.

The Paris Grand Opéra has more than 1,200 persons on its regular payroll, while in addition to these there are hundreds more—painters, decorators, costumers, etc.—who draw their incomes indirectly from the same source. Hence, even the large subsidy of \$160,000 a year hardly suffices at times to make both ends meet. The highest possible receipts for a single performance are \$4,600, but that figure is rarely reached, the average being about \$3,250; and as the cost of each performance works out at about \$4,000, the necessity of a subvention is obvious. The musical staff of the opera comprises over 400 persons, including 50 soloists, 100 chorus singers, 100 orchestral players, 140 dancers, 3 orchestral conductors, 8 choral conductors,

and an army of "supers"; nor is the administration staff less numerous.

Probably Julius Stockhausen, who celebrated his eightieth birthday on July 22, feels himself still a young man in view of the fact that his teacher, Manuel Garcia, died only a few weeks ago, aged one hundred and one. Stockhausen, though a German by descent, was born in Paris and got his education at the Conservatoire. His father was a harp virtuoso, his mother a favorite singer. Manuel Garcia taught him the art of the *bel canto*, and thereby did a good thing for Germany, where that art is not over-well known. Stockhausen sang at the Opéra Comique, Paris, in the years 1859 and 1860; the rest of his career was spent in Germany, where he became famous successively as a singer, conductor, and teacher. He had a fine voice, and what distinguished him from most of his colleagues was the exemplary distinctness of his enunciation. He was an admirable interpreter of the songs of Schubert, Beethoven, and Schumann in particular; also of the works of Bach and Handel. Richard Wagner offered him the position of head of the conservatory founded by him in Munich; but he was obliged to decline this honor, as he had just signed a contract to conduct the Singacademie and the Philharmonic concerts at Hamburg. Subsequently he conducted the Stern Choral Society in Berlin, producing some notable performances. In 1874 he went to Frankfurt and thenceforth devoted himself to teaching those principles of vocal art which came from the Italian Garcia, and fulfilled the ideal of the German Wagner. His "Gesangsunterrichtsmethode," the first edition of which was published in two volumes by Peters, Leipzig, in 1881, contains the results of his experiences of a lifetime as a student and teacher of singing.

PALESTINE EXPLORATION.

Researches in Sinai. By W. M. Flinders Petrie. With chapters by C. T. Curcilly, M.A. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$6 net.

Chronologically this book is as bewildering as the old Egyptian records. The preface was written at University College, London, on no date. The expedition started from Suez on the 4th of December in no year. Future historians will find the same difficulty in dating Professor Petrie's expedition to Sinai which we now find in dating Egyptian expeditions of the fourth or twelfth dynasties, where the month and the day are often well established, but chronologists differ by 1,500 years or more as to the annual figure.

This work, as we understand it, is a preliminary and more general account of the expedition, the inscriptional results of which are to be published in full by the Egyptian Research Account, under the title, "The Egyptians in Sinai," with translations, notes, comments, plates of objects, and the like. What was accomplished by this really remarkable and most interesting expedition is summed up in a general way by Professor Petrie as: (1.) Putting in order the Egyptian inscriptions previously known from the Sinaitic peninsula and fixing their places and connections. Two or three hundred inscriptions have been drawn

full size in fac-simile and many of them photographed. (2.) Determining the plan of the temple at Serabit and the restoration of the architectural details of the same. (3.) Making a topographical map of the district, with a record of the position and character of the mines. (4.) Discovering of a considerable mass of offerings. (5.) Reconstructing from the records the organization of Egyptian mining expeditions. (6.) Throwing light on the non-Egyptian ritual of the worship in Sinai (which Professor Petrie believes to have been Semitic, p. 223). We might add, although it is not mentioned by Mr. Petrie in this place, the discovery of some inscriptions in unknown characters, not hieroglyphic, and different from any characters heretofore found.

The first work of the expedition was done at the turquoise mines at Maghareh. From the outset, it would appear, copper chisels and other tools were used in working these mines. The earliest of the rock-cut inscriptions found at Maghareh is an inscription of Semerkhet, the seventh King of the first dynasty, "engraved on a smooth, natural face of the upper sandstone rock, at 394 feet above the valley floor" (p. 41). The earliest indications of the working of these mines belong, however, to a slightly later period, the time of the third dynasty; a sculpture of King Sa-nekht of that dynasty having been found over an early mine. Unfortunately, this tablet had been partly destroyed in later mining operations, but an admirable portrait of Sa-nekht is preserved, of which Mr. Petrie remarks that it is as strongly Ethiopic in character as the portrait of Shabaka of the twenty-fifth, Ethiopian, dynasty, and that it is a type familiar to-day among the Sudanese (he spells it "Sudanys") of the Egyptian army and police.

The principal work of the expedition and the most interesting was done at Serabit, of the mines in the neighborhood of which much less was known than of those at Maghareh. The point of special interest at Serabit is the temple of Hat-hor, mistress of turquoise, which was begun under Sneferu, the last king of the third dynasty. Sneferu's remarkably successful mining operations, it may be added, became a tradition of all succeeding ages, so that, for example, an official of the twelfth dynasty says, on a *stèle* which he erects, that "he had obtained more turquoise than anyone since the time of Sneferu" (p. 96). Sneferu himself became an object of veneration and worship to succeeding ages of miners, so much the more, therefore, his temple to Hat-hor. The original shrine, and the shrine as Sneferu left it, was a cave. It was in the period of the twelfth dynasty, and particularly in the reign of Amenemhat III., that this cave was developed into a temple, by the erection of a portico before it and the provision of an approach marked by a row of *steles*. A second cave was also cut out at this period or earlier, side by side with the cave of Hat-hor, and dedicated to Sopdu, the god of the East.

With the eighteenth dynasty, and especially with Queen Hatshepsut and her nephew Tahutmes III., a new development of the temple commences, which is a most curious combination of Egyptian with non-Egyptian ideas and forms. A new line of approach was constructed, along which

courts, chambers, and pylons were built, new chambers being added by successive monarchs, up to and including Sety I. In its final form the visitor was obliged to pass through fourteen chambers of various sizes (apparently roofed over, for the greater part, so as to have almost the form of a tunnel) before reaching the large open court of the temple. From this the sacred cave itself was separated by an inner court and a couple of porticoes. Although, as stated, Egyptian elements are marked in this construction, nevertheless it is clear, as Professor Petrie has pointed out, that in its origin this shrine and hence this worship were not Egyptian. Professor Petrie assumes that it represents the early Semitic worship on the ground: (1) that this region, in the historical period at least, was occupied by Semites; (2) that the immense amount of ashes over the whole space in front of the cave indicates sacrifice of a form which he supposes must be Semitic, chiefly because it is not Egyptian; (3) that small altars are found in the cave, apparently for the burning of incense, whereas the Egyptians burned incense not on altars but in shovels; (4) that there are provisions for ablation in the courts and chambers in the immediate neighborhood of the sacred cave, which he compares especially with the Moslem provision for ablation in the court or chamber called *hanafiyeh*. (In the plan of the temple he names the chambers provided for ablation *hanafiyeh* on account of this supposed similarity.) His argument is valid as showing that the temple is not Egyptian in origin and represents primarily a native, non-Egyptian cult; but he presents no real evidence that this cult was Semitic. In fact, at the date at which the worship of Hat-hor at Serabit began, the date of Sneferu's cave temple, it is now generally supposed that the Semites had not yet arrived in the land. The use of the cave as a shrine seems, it may be added, to suggest a connection with the primitive people who used caves for purposes of worship in Palestine, like those found by Macalister at Gezer, and who, as the excavations there conducted would seem to show, were not a Semitic, but a pre-Semitic population.

One chapter in this volume is entitled "The Revision of Chronology." We do not see that Mr. Petrie's discoveries in Sinai have thrown any new light on the chronological question. His discussion of the subject is really based on material previously discovered. The dates which he assigns from the 12th dynasty backward are, it should be added for the guidance of the unwary reader, about fifteen hundred years larger than those generally accepted at the present time.

It is inevitable that a traveller or explorer in Sinai should somewhere or other discuss the questions of the Exodus, and Mr. Petrie is no exception to this rule. His methods will prove startling, alike to the conservative literalist and the radical higher critic of the Old Testament. For instance, he assumes the census lists of the book of Numbers, as contained in the Masoretic text of the Hebrew Bible, to be historically accurate (p. 209); but supposes that in the case of each tribe the thousands mean merely clans or tribal divisions, the hundreds giving the actual numerical figure. By thus eliminating the thousands he reduces the Israelite tribes from a couple of million to

the reasonable figure of five or six thousand souls, which he says is about the present population of Sinai. While this is not likely to be taken seriously, it must be said that Prof. Petrie's little sketch of the history of Israel from a cultivated Egyptian's point of view, on pp. 221-222, is a very good condensed presentation of the subject.

The volume is admirably executed, with heavy paper and large, clear type, and is also abundantly illustrated. There are 186 half-tone prints from photographs and four maps. By means of the illustrations, in connection with the text, one obtains an admirable view of the rock formation of Sinai, the character of the country, the vegetation, the appearance of the ruins, the objects found, etc. Perhaps the most interesting of all the illustrations is the head of the statue of Queen Thyi, the famous wife of Amenhotep III. of the eighteenth dynasty. This is, as Mr. Petrie points out, the best portrait head of this most interesting woman so far discovered, and it presents a fascinating personality.

Mr. Petrie found that a vandal mining company, organized some time since for the exploitation of the ancient turquoise mines, had destroyed in the most wanton and reckless manner, by blasting, numbers of the inscriptions cut in the rock and of the *steles*. They had also taught the natives how to blast, and it seemed likely that before many years absolutely none of these ancient ruins would remain intact. On Mr. Petrie's representations, his associate, Mr. Currelly, was commissioned by the Egyptian Government to cut out all the rock inscriptions which were accessible, and these pieces have now been transferred to the museum at Cairo as the only means of preserving them. In some chapters added to this volume Mr. Currelly gives an account of the supplementary expedition to Sinai which he undertook for the purpose of removing these inscriptions.

AN OLD-FASHIONED SINGING TEACHER

Observations on the Florid Song. By Pier. Francesco Tosi. Imported by Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.75 net.

Alas for the good old times in music, the golden age of song! Things have come to a pretty pass, indeed, when one of the leading vocal teachers is constrained to tell us that "the good taste is near lost, and the profession is going to ruin"; that some vocalists "scream like a hen when she is laying her egg"; that the singers, particularly the Italians, neglect true study, sacrifice beauty of voice to a number of ill-regulated volubilities, and neglect the pronunciation and expression of words; that, as for the recitative, some overdo it and make it barking, some speak it and some hiss it, some hallow, bellow, and sing it out of tune; that there is a scarcity of the best singers and a swarm of the worst; that persons "who never sang nor knew how to sing pretend not only to teach but to perfect, and find some that are weak enough to be imposed on"; that the churchmen usually choose not the best but the biggest voices; and finally:

Italy hears no more such exquisite Voices as in Times past, particularly among the Women, and to the Shame of the Guilty

I'll tell the Reason: The Ignorance of Parents does not let them perceive the Badness of the Voice of their children, as their Necessity makes them believe, that to sing and grow rich is one and the same Thing, and to learn *Musick*, it is enough to have a pretty Face: "Can you make anything of her?"

A sad arraignment, forsooth! The one consolation is that it was written in the year 1723, in that very golden age of the *bel canto*, with which modern ignoramus and charlatans are continually and lugubriously contrasting our own age! The strictures on Italian singers, teachers, and pupils summarized in the preceding paragraph may be found, at greater length, on pp. xi. 15, 63, 141, 159, 166, of Tosi's "Observations on the Florid Song." Pler Francesco Tosi, who was born in 1647 at Bologna, was for a time a singer, and subsequently went to London where he became one of the most famous teachers of his time. His treatise, "Opinioni de' cantori antichi e moderni o sieno osservazioni sopra il canto figurato," was translated by Gilliard into English in 1742; a German version followed in 1759; a French, in 1874. It was a happy thought on the part of William Reeves of London to bring out a reprint of the second edition, as the book is a clear mirror of the musical world of the time. Tosi had spent much of his life in travelling, and he was therefore familiar with the vocal situation in the leading European countries. The object of his book is, in his own words, in the first place, "to shew the Duty of a Master, how to instruct a Beginner well; secondly, what is required of the Scholar; and, lastly, with more mature Reflections, to point out the way to a moderate Singer, by which he may arrive at greater Perfection."

It is to be feared that if a "moderate singer" of our time were to try to attain "perfection" by taking this book as a guide, he would not get very far toward mastering the vocal styles now in vogue—the styles of Verdi, Puccini, Gounod, Bizet, and Wagner. To Tosi, as to his contemporaries, the chief charm of singing lay in the abundant ornaments with which all the airs were then decked out, and which the modern composers of all countries have entirely discarded. Chapter X. begins with the admonition that "passages or graces being the principal Ornaments in Singing, and the most favorite Delight of the Judicious, it is proper that the Singer be very attentive to learn this Art." He admits that there may be too great an abundance of ornaments, yet considers that better than a deficiency; wherein, again, he is a child of his time. He devotes chapters to the various kinds of shakes and "graces." He waxes indignant at his countrymen for allowing the impudent "Composers in the new Stile" to write their own ornaments instead of leaving them to the discretion of the singers. "Poor Italy!" he exclaims; "pray tell me; do not singers nowadays know where the *Appoggiatura's* are to be made, unless they are pointed at with a Finger? . . . Eternal Shame to him who first introduced these foreign Puerilities into our Nation. . . . Let us imitate the Foreigners in those Things only, wherein they excel." On another page he says: "If, out of particular Indulgence to the sex, so many female Singers have the Graces set down in Writing, one that studies to be-

come a good Singer should not follow the Example."

While thus the bulk of Tosi's volume has merely an historic interest, there is nevertheless a good deal that is of value even to present-day students. Despite his preference for the florid side of singing, our author knows the difference between mere virtuosity and true art. He understands that every instrument has graces peculiar to itself, and that it is a great mistake for singers to copy the tricks practised on violins, oboes, or other instruments. He realizes the truth of what Mozart once wrote to his father: "It is much easier to play rapidly than slowly; you can drop a few notes in passages without any one noticing it." Tosi, whose book appeared thirty-three years before Mozart was born, blames the singers of his time for praising the "Pathetick," or slow music, yet singing the Allegro. "He must want common sense that does not see through them. They know the first to be the most Excellent, but they lay it aside, Knowing it to be the most difficult."

About this neglect of the Pathetick and Expression in music in his times (the good old times!) Tosi is perpetually wailing. The singers, he declares, are always "running Post," always galloping with the airs; the much-longed-for adagio never comes, and why not? Because "the grand *Mode*" demands of the singer "that he be quick, and ready to burst himself in his lamentations, and weep with Liveliness"—which reads almost like Wagner or Donizetti! Gluck, too, is anticipated by Tosi, who represents the intolerable presumption of those singers who expect a whole orchestra to stop for their ill-grounded caprices, that tickle the ears of the groundlings.

Scattered through Tosi's pages are a number of rules for singers and aphorisms which bear further witness to his common sense and his good taste in everything excepting his penchant for ornaments. To cite a few: he advises singers not always to practise on one vowel; to guard against "fluttering" of the voice; not to hold the music paper before the face in singing; to sing standing; to study with the mind when the voice is tired; to neglect no opportunity to hear great vocalists; to sing before a mirror; to continue their studies as much to maintain their reputation as they did to acquire it. "Whoever does not aspire to the first Rank, begins already to give up the second, and by little and little will rest contented with the lowest." "One who thinks on nothing but Gain, is in the ready way to remain ignorant." He finds a use for the critics: "for, the more intent they are to discover Defects, the greater Benefit may be receiv'd from them without any Obligation." Most singers will agree with him that it is well often to change cities lest they get too good an opinion of themselves; but how about his advice that "the best Time for Study is with the rising of the Sun"? And will theatre folk agree with his assertion that it is "much more difficult to sing well than to act well"? On that subject it would be interesting to collate the opinions of great opera singers, the only ones qualified to speak authoritatively.

The History of Coöperation. By George Jacob Holyoake. 2 vols. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$5 net.

Coöperation has been sidetracked. Capitalism and militant trades unionism have the field to themselves, and treat as armed antagonists, not as allies. The latest edition of Mr. Holyoake's well-known history of the coöperative movement is therefore the history of a lost cause—a verdict attested by the slender sheaf of pages which recounts its progress since 1876. Except for these few pages (615-678) which constitute Part III. of the second volume, the present edition is practically a reprint. It is rather curious that the original chapter on "American Societies" has been pared down a little, and that the only new item is a comment of four lines upon the profit-sharing ventures of N. O. Nelson.

But if coöperation is a lost cause, it has at least had the good fortune to have its definitive history written by one of its own patriarchs. Indeed, his interest in the cause was widely commented on at the time of his death. Had it not been for Mr. Holyoake, many of the most interesting phases of its early progress would, in all probability, have fallen into oblivion. At its inception it had a broader impulse than most would imagine to-day. Coöperators were at the outset inspired by Robert Owen's achievements, and also somewhat nebulously by his social philosophy. This was enough to bring them under the suspicion, censure, and actual persecution of the intolerant, particularly of the clergy. In a way the early coöperative movement was a crusade for the right of free speech and a free platform. Coöperators were often forced into an alliance with various types of anti-clericals—an alliance explained by their confronting a common enemy. These "small centres of social life," as Holyoake calls the coöperative nuclei, believed themselves in possession of a secret that was to transform society, and on a small scale were inebriated with an optimism like that of the early French Revolution. Thus something of the bracing stimulus of founding a new sect and spreading a new gospel attached to the early spread of the movement.

But the success of Robert Owen's industrial paternalism, as our author admits, would eventually have stood an isolated monument of a successful coöperative organization, "if the sagacious men of Rochdale had not discovered the method of feeding it on profits" (vol. I., p. 264). But while coöperative shop-keeping kept coöperation alive, it was not calculated to sustain the lofty idealism of the early propaganda. Instead of renovating society, coöperation found its homely task in enabling an occasional family of uncommon thrift to save a half-penny daily in buying soap and candles. This is not much, viewed from one point of view. It is far from allaying forever the clash of opposed industrial interests. But it is something, and apparently something permanent.

The economic historian, when he makes his final estimate of coöperation, will have to explain why the general project of reconciling employers and workmen was so warmly received by statesmen, and economists, and why so few of the hopes raised by the system have been realized. John Stuart Mill, it will be remembered,

bestowed his benediction on coöperation, and Lord Derby pronounced it the "best, the surest remedy for that antagonism of labor and capital" which has so long vexed students of society. The secret of Mill's adherence lay probably in the fact that coöperation made an appeal not only to altruistic motives, but also to self-interest. Its alluring paradox was that by consulting our neighbor's economic interests, we were most likely to further our own. It seemed to make the quest of industrial virtue easy, by intimating that happiness was the invariable attendant. Thus the miracle of transmuting leaden motives into golden conduct was to be attained.

The failure of coöperation to secure and guarantee industrial peace has often been well elucidated, but by no one more penetratingly than by Holyoake. He admits and bewails the fact that "the working class are apt to fix all salaries at the workshop rate, and begrudge every sixpence over that." . . . "For a man's brains, devotion, interest, and experience they award nothing willingly" (vol. ii., p. 340). It would appear also that "false brethren" have entered even into the coöperative fold. "The table opposite, of 29 of the chief [coöperative] stores, shows that 21 do not understand that participation [of profits with employees] is a cardinal principle of coöperation" (vol. ii., p. 634).

Apparently, there has been of late difficulty experienced in keeping the simon-pure article free of trades-unionism and Socialism. Holyoake will have none of either. "A man being a unionist is small guarantee to any one that he will not scamp his work or do the least for the most he can get" (vol. ii., p. 435). As to Socialism, Holyoake insists that conceivably "Socialism may be better than Coöperation, but it is not the same." Self-help and individual effort are essential to orthodox coöperation. "Coöperation may mitigate reckless competition, but it does not destroy competition itself" (vol. ii., p. 674).

Holyoake is not unaware that the tide is running strongly against him, but he has experienced enough of the world's buffets to preserve a philosophic temper, and to write the history of his cause without losing his sense of humor. In recounting the early propaganda, he slyly hints at his personal disrelish for some of the lean platform prophetesses, "learned in all the 'ologies and destitute of hips." He records for us with admirable philosophy that "obesity has weight in more senses than one. A fat look is imposing. . . . An attenuated visage always seems illogical to the multitude, while a mellow voice rolls over an audience like a conclusive sequence." Of the many early propagandist organs, he remarks: "It comes to pass that journals written by charity come to be read only by charity." And again he says, half prophetically, it may be, of his own pet scheme of social salvation, "Only theorists talk of truth being immortal. I have seen it put to death many times." With so genial an historian, no one will willingly quarrel.

The Maker of Modern Mexico: Porfirio Diaz. By Mrs. Alec-Tweedie. New York: John Lane Co. \$5.00 net.

Mrs. Alec-Tweedie has, no doubt, en-

joyed exceptionally good introduction to the official society of Mexico, and has thus seen more of the quiet and exclusive social circles of that capital than is given to most foreign residents. On this side of Mexican life (which touches not at all the life of the great mass of the people), she is qualified to write entertainingly; and some of her verbal snapshots of travel in the country are of interest—though one often has to lament the "perfectly lovely" style of description and other perversions of the English language. But she is not at all qualified in the history of the country; she is entirely outside of her proper field when it come to things economic and political, and no reader should pick up this book who desires a logical, intelligent account of the development of Mexico in the past quarter-century. He will run into descriptions of the costumes worn by the diplomatic corps just when he is expecting to learn how, in 1904, Diaz re-elected himself and nominated a vice-president to be in training as his successor. Instead of any clear presentation of the reactionism which the Mexican leaders of "the Reform" sought to extirpate, he will find the situation thus summed up: "The whole country was devout and the priestly power immense." To be told, with endless repetitions, that Diaz "rebuilt" Mexico gives us no explanation of his actual achievements, while sadly exaggerating his part. It is neither a real Mexico nor a real Diaz which is set before us.

As for Diaz, she is not content with describing him as the only man in Mexico, one who made that nation "out of chaos, alone and unaided." Our woman traveller's hero—who talked with her just as though he were an ordinary mortal—must be "the most marvelous man of the age," and "the greatest figure of modern history." She admits that "of course, there were other great men in the nineteenth century, men such as Bismarck, or, of humbler origin, Garibaldi, or Abraham Lincoln," but "none of them retained the head of affairs of state for well-nigh thirty years." This sort of adulation of Diaz, for which there is some excuse in Mexico, has been made the fashion in our English speaking countries by whilom journalists and makers of journalistic books who spend a few weeks or a few months in Mexico, speak and read little or no Spanish, and hear only such Mexican opinion on political affairs as is expressed conventionally or through the subsidized press (both in Spanish and English) of the capital. It has become part of the creed of American editors, apparently, that Diaz has achieved the regeneration of Mexico unaided, and that he is the model of a perfect ruler presiding over a most efficient government. Another prevalent American idea is that Mexico is in danger of revolution at any time.

Now, these two ideas are incompatible, and, as we might expect, neither is true, at least in the accepted form. Mexico is far from being in all ways efficiently governed, in some respects is not always intelligently governed, and its local administration is by no means free from corruption and jobbery; while the central administration is certainly susceptible to "influence." And, though very great progress has been achieved during the Diaz régime,

Diaz himself is by no means entitled to all the credit. The one great thing he is primarily responsible for—he, the rough-and-ready soldier—is the bringing of order out of disorder. Upon that has the structure been built. Order restored, railroads could be built, agriculture and mining were fostered, and modern industrial enterprises for the first time began to spring up. These things—indeed, the railroads and the telegraph alone—have made "pronouncements" and "plans", and all the old formula of revolutions, impossible in practice. At the same time, the modern development has turned the people away from all such movements; all the new internal property interests, besides the foreign capital invested, would be sternly set against political revolution.

On the other hand, instead of the journalistic tradition about Diaz as the perfect ruler, it is time we heard something, about the real social and intellectual progress that is taking place in Mexico, largely apart from governmental circles or governmental activity. We need to be told, that is, of the new middle class, steadily, if slowly, growing up as a result of the new industrial opportunities, bearing with it the hope of the Mexico of to-morrow—and also, be it said, growing more and more dissatisfied with Diaz in his old age. These men will not be heard through the columns of a throttled or subsidized national press; they form no part, as a rule, of the little bands of sycophantic officeholders in each state capital; they are not tied to the past by the possession of landed property and its privileges (a sanctity the Diaz régime has not yet dared invade by just taxation measures), nor by subservience to a generally ignorant and reactionary clergy, to whose wishes Diaz is each year yielding a little more easily.

The French Blood in America. By Lucian J. Fosdick. New York: The Revell Co. \$2 net.

This is a book which can be neither praised nor condemned without considerable reservations. From the bare title one might reasonably infer that the names of Hébert and D'Iberville, of Papineau and Lafontaine, would figure in Mr. Fosdick's narrative. But as a matter of fact they do not appear at all. "America" is here used in its political rather than in its geographical sense, and the French whose fortunes furnish the volume with its theme are the Huguenots. Thus the *seigneurs* and *habitants* of Canada, doomed as they are to the superstitions and ignorance of Catholicism, remain outside the charmed circle of Mr. Fosdick's panegyric. This circle, however, is wide enough to include Joan of Arc, with a whole chapter on whom the volume opens. Hallowed officially by the Roman Church, the Maid of Orleans might seem to stand rather remote from the Huguenots in both time and temperament. After portraying her as an incarnation of "the French spirit," Mr. Fosdick observes: "It is in view of all the facts that Joan of Arc is called a genuine Protestant martyr, although the term Protestant had not then come into use." We cannot stop to argue the point, but simply cite this sentence for the sake of disclosing our au-

thor's frame of mind. One who can see a Protestant in Joan of Arc would seem not to be well informed about her type of faith as witnessed by the evidence she gave at Rouen, or else to be beset by strong prepossessions.

We have said that the present work cannot receive unqualified praise. To be more explicit, Mr. Fosdick appears to have no sense whatever of historical objectivity. We would avoid stating that the historian must maintain the tone of the dictionary, but even where he has strong convictions, he will do well to discard the obsolete tactics of passing over all the facts which an opponent would array. Mr. Fosdick writes about the Roman Church in the tone of George Borrow or of the late Father Chiniquy. This may be all very well in its place, but the candid critic must point out that unstinted praise of the Huguenots and equally unstinted condemnation of the Romanists will not pass muster for an adequate account of the later Valois period. As for general historical judgments, we may quote the following dictum of Mr. Fosdick: "The French Revolution was the ultimate result of the Roman Catholic effort to crush out Protestantism in France." The same disposition to dogmatize pervades the passage in which Mr. Fosdick ascribes to the Huguenots such radical differences as mark off the New Englander from the Englishman. But did not much larger numbers of Huguenots settle in England than in New England?

Apart from its anxiety to prove too much this book is a useful recapitulation of what has been accomplished in the United States by people of French Protestant origin. The Bowdoins, Reveres, Faneuils, Bayards, Le Contes, and Danas are not to be passed over in any sketch of American ethnology, and Mr. Fosdick has laid full stress upon their merits. Aside from a certain note of exaggeration, especially where there is a chance to laud "the Protestantism of the Protestant religion," we have little to find fault with. Mr. Fosdick brings together much interesting information about the chief Huguenot families in America, and presents it clearly.

Panama: The Isthmus and the Canal. By C. H. Forbes-Lindsay. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co. \$1.00.

There is need for a good book on Panama just now when the type of the canal has been decided upon and work has begun in earnest, but Mr. Forbes-Lindsay does not quite fill the want. His book appears to have been mostly written last autumn, since when a great deal of water has passed under the Chagres bridge. Attempts have been made here and there to bring it up-to-date, but the effect is to make the work incoherent. For example, on page

199 he says: "At the present time it is impossible to tell what may be the outcome of the report of the advisory board," and "it is probable that the President will formally submit the report of the board to Congress." Then on the next page the tense is mysteriously changed from future to past; he tells us when the report was submitted, and what was done with it, and proceeds to discuss its contents at length. This discussion of the relative advantages of the sea-level *versus* the lock canal is now happily of historic value only, since Congress has chosen the latter type of canal, and we hope we shall have a chance within the next ten years or so of finding out whether Mr. Forbes-Lindsay is right in his earnest advocacy of this same type. The question has been argued by engineers of all countries for over thirty years without coming any nearer to an agreement.

Mr. Forbes-Lindsay has done a service in bringing together in one small volume a large amount of material hitherto scattered through the American public documents and French company reports. He begins with the romantic history of the Isthmus when the city of Panama was one of the richest and most luxurious cities of the New World, being the channel through which flowed the tribute to the King of Spain from his empire on the Pacific. Its wealth and strategic position made it the centre of the strife between Spain and England for the supremacy of the seas, and the Isthmus was raided by privateers and buccaneers, until finally, in 1671, the old city of Panama was sacked and burned by Morgan, and the new city built and fortified on its present site.

The book also gives some interesting figures in regard to the operations of the De Lesseps Company and traces the history of the canal under the receivership, the New Canal Company, and the present commission. An appendix contains an abstract of the Government report on the great canals of the world. There is a good map and profile of the canal as authorized by Congress, and a number of half-tones of Panama scenes.

The text is constructed by compilation and quotation. The author takes his data wherever he finds them without attempting to criticize or harmonize. He glosses over the bungling and mismanagement of the first year of our control and accepts in general the statements of the official apologists of the Administration. Such an unqualified and indiscriminating eulogy as the following is of no value for an understanding of the real situation:

The commission has observed strict business principles in all these purchases. . . . There have been mistakes, of course, but no blunders. Errors in judgment and miscalculations have been quickly recognized

and rectified. Not a justifiable suspicion of graft has been connected with the operation since it came into American hands. Influence and favoritism have been singularly absent from the appointments.

Mr. Forbes-Lindsay has visited the Isthmus, but there is nothing in his book to indicate a first hand acquaintance with the scenes and events he describes. It could just as well have been written from Washington. We are glad to see that he uses the adjective "Panamanian," in accordance with the constitution of the country, instead of the unwarranted "Panamanian" to which President Roosevelt has given the weight of his authority.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Anglo-Russian Literary Society. Proceedings. May, June and July, 1906. Printed for the Society.
- Arnold, W. T. Studies of Roman Imperialism. Manchester, Eng.: Sherratt & Hughes.
- Auden, George A. York and District. York: John Sampson.
- Badlam, Anna B. Views in Africa. Silver, Burdett & Co. 65 cents.
- Badeker's Palestine and Syria. Imported by Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$3.60 net.
- Barr, Robert. The Watermead Affair. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co.
- Brady, Cyrus Townsend, and Edward Peple. Richard the Brazen. Moffat, Yard & Co. \$1.50.
- Bryan, William Jennings. Letters to a Chinese Official. McClure, Phillips & Co.
- Chambers, Robert W. The Fighting Chance. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.
- Corelli, Marie. The Treasure of Heaven: A Romance of Riches. Dowl, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
- Coulton, G. G. From St. Francis to Dante. London: David Nutt.
- Curtis, Newton Martin. From Bull Run to Chancellorsville. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Cynic's Rules of Conduct. By Chester Field, jr. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co. 50 cents.
- Evelyn (John). Diary and Correspondence. 4 vols. Edited by H. B. Wheatley. Imported by Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$12 net.
- Farquhar, George. The Mermaid Series. Imported by Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$1 net.
- Forman, J. M. Buchanan's Wife. Harper & Bros. \$1.50.
- Gabriel, Chas. H. Song Praises. Carbondale, Ill.: Egyptian Publishing Co.
- Gissing, George. The House of Colwehs. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50.
- Golding, Vautier. Story of David Livingston. E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents.
- Hamilton, Angus. Afghanistan. Imported by Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$5 net.
- Hollams, Sir John. Jottings of an Old Solicitor. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3 net.
- Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.
- In Memoriam, Eliza Boardman Burnz. Burnz & Co.
- Jones, Rufus M. The Double Search. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co. 75 cents net.
- Keeler, Charles. San Francisco Through Earthquake and Fire. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co. 75 cents net.
- Leonardo da Vinci. Drawings of. Imported by Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$2.50 net.
- Lucas, C. P. Historical Geography of the British Colonies. Oxford Un. Press. \$1.25.
- Lucian's Selected Writings. Ed. by Francis Greenleaf Allinson. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.40.
- Merington, Marguerite. Scarlett of the Mounted. Moffat, Yard & Co. \$1.25.
- My Trip to New York. F. M. Buckles & Co.
- Neuhauer, Adolf, and A. E. Cowley. Catalogue of the Hebrew Manuscripts in the Bodleian Library. Vol. II. Oxford: Un. Press. \$10.
- Oshourne, Lloyd. The Tin Diskers. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co.
- Plutarch's Life of Coriolanus in North's Translation. Ed. by R. H. Carr. Oxford Un. Press.
- Saltus, Edgar. Mary Magdalen. Mitchell Kennerley. \$1 net.
- Smith, Lewis Worthington. In the Furrow. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
- Starr, Louis. Hygiene of the Nursery. 7th ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. \$1 net.
- Thompson, Harry. The Cynic's Dictionary. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co.
- W.-Boughton-Leigh, R.G.F.C. Memorials of a Warwickshire Family. Oxford Un. Press.
- Woodbury, Josephine Curtis. The Greatest City in the World. Boston: The Fort Hill Press. 15 cents.

"The application of scientific methods in a new and difficult field makes this book a notable one. The reviewer commends it to **PSYCHOLOGISTS, HISTORIANS, and PARTICULARLY to SOCIAL REFORMERS**, as well as to **STATISTICIANS.**"

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LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO., New York

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 30, 1906.

The Week.

On the question of intervention in Cuba, it is gratifying to note that the attitude of President Roosevelt has thus far been absolutely correct. He has given no encouragement whatever to the eager meddlers. And in this the better part of the press is of his mind. Here and there one meets a bit of the old swagger—"Oh, yes, we'll have to take hold of that Cuban mess, and if we go to the island again we'll never come away"—but sensible newspapers hold a different tone. They feel, as we doubt not the President does, that the honor of this country is pledged to give the Cubans a fair trial in self-government. After boasting of our unexampled magnanimity in taking our hands off, we should put them on again only under high necessity. What may be called the business temptation, we are sure that Mr. Roosevelt will put aside. He is not likely to surrender the pride which he has taken in the action of our country in giving Cuba her independence, merely to render it easier for certain interests to make money. The seductive appeal to him would be on the score of "preventing chaos." Let the American investors in Cuban tobacco and sugar get up a fair semblance of chaos on the island, and the ruler who feels himself ordained to be the policeman of this hemisphere would be sorely tempted to draw his night-club. But we hope he will not forget that the Cuban notion of chaos is very different from that of his well-regulated mind. Armed insurrection may seem to the Cubans only what a party split does to Americans. If, after all the disturbance, a strong and orderly Government emerges, it is all we have a right to ask.

President Roosevelt no doubt was unprepared for the universal ridicule now beating upon him like an Atlantic surf for his spelling-reform ukase. Aside from the personal aspect of the matter, it is not exactly a cheering thought for American citizens that the Chief Magistrate of the United States should be regarded in civilized nations as a meddler in what does not concern him. There is a feeling that he should not have dragged his office into what was for him only a personal vagary. If he had simply chosen, as Theodore Roosevelt, to join the band of heroic spelling reformers, there could have been no objection. Even if he had instructed his secretaries to spell his official correspondence so as to please Brander Matthews, he might have excited smiles, but not ridicule

and strong opposition. His order to the Government Printing Office is resented as an attempt to impose his private fancy upon the public practice. And the result may be most unhappy. President Roosevelt's successor will be likely to revoke the order. Then there would be two years' output of messages and Government documents, standing apart in the public archives in their queer literary dress. As we said when the lists of new spellings were first published, some of the forms recommended are already in good usage; a few others may fight their way to recognition after a generation or two; while the stranger and more offensive spellings can advance only over the dead bodies of those who will resist while they have breath forms that surprise and irritate, with no real compensating good, and who are accustomed to think of language as a fine art.

The American voter certainly needs to be a skilled metaphysician, if he is to keep up with the intricacies and fine distinctions of contemporary tariff doctrine. Here is the Nebraska Republican platform declaring, for example: "While yielding nothing from our adherence to this principle [protection], we believe that changes in schedules should follow changes in conditions." But is the "Nebraska idea" more or less liberal than the "Iowa idea," or the "North Dakota idea"? Only the wise men of the party know. But this is certain: The Nebraskans would never have said anything about changes in schedules being made to "follow changes in conditions" if they had read the speech of the Hon. James T. McCleary of Minnesota, delivered on June 25, and just now published in a much-belated issue of the *Congressional Record*. Mr. McCleary has taken the greatest pains to explain that conditions are made by tariff schedules, and practically nothing else. Thus, "revision downward" in 1857 brought "hard times"; "partial revision downward" in 1883 brought "partial hard times," while "revision upward" in 1897 brought "prosperity." It is absolutely plain, absolutely simple, absolutely satisfying—to any one who has not made himself mad by too much study of our economic history. But the apostle of still higher duties would almost be justified in giving up in disgust when he sees his logic wasted on a community that continues talking about "conditions," as if they were something that went on of themselves and changed spontaneously, instead of being mere tariff by-products.

After the campaign which has been

waged in Georgia upon almost every imaginable issue and personality, it would be folly to ascribe Hoke Smith's victory in last week's primary to any one cause. Smith was regarded as the representative of the extreme form of anti-negro suffrage doctrine, yet it was hard for an outsider to see where his policy was fundamentally different from those of the other candidates. A more definite issue was that of the opposition to corporation privilege. The same feeling of discontent which has made itself felt in Wisconsin, New Jersey, New Hampshire, and other States contributed to the opposition against Clark Howell, who was regarded as the "railroad candidate." It was in Georgia that the State Supreme Court, two or three years ago, made the remarkable decision that the railroads, in effect, had the right to charge freight rates high enough to pay dividends on their whole system out of their profits in Georgia alone. Of course, State regulation became farcical under such a principle. Whether this particular incident figured in the late campaign, we do not know, but it is the sort of thing which would naturally disgust the people of any community with a governing ring over-favorable to the already over-protected corporations.

We have already remarked on the exceptionally favorable promise of this year's harvests, and their good effect on our financial situation. But it has also been pointed out by all conservative critics that this benefit might be jeopardized by recklessness in the money market. This summer's great harvests will of themselves call into life, on an unusual scale, legitimate trade activity; demands of this trade on the country's capital will be proportionately large. Yet, as every one knows, the money market enters the autumn season with its available reserves of capital already under a heavy strain. At the opening of the year, Wall Street's money rate was the highest and its bank surplus the lowest in twenty-six years; and the April deficit in reserves was the first that had happened in the spring-time since 1884. More to the point is the movement of bank reserves and money rates this month. Two weeks ago the New York bank surplus fell to very much the lowest figure reached at this time of year since 1893—a figure, indeed, never touched in the summer months of any previous year without severe money stringency following. This week the rate for Wall Street demand loans has risen to 6 per cent., a price attained at this time of year only twice in fifteen years—in 1902 and 1893, both of them years of great derangement of capital.

It would not be wholly correct to say that this rate for money is a sure sign of danger. But unquestionably it gives plain warning as to what can and what cannot be safely done by our high financiers. Last week's Union Pacific dividend episode was only one illustration of the extent to which people in posts of high financial responsibility have lost their balance. Whether it be that rich capitalists are "loaded up" with securities thus far unsalable, for which they hope now to get a market, or whether they have merely gone wild, as they did in 1901, over our amazing prosperity, the perils involved in their antics on the Stock Exchange are equally manifest. What Wall Street calls the "outside public" seems, from the course of events since Union Pacific's dividend increase, to be in a mood for speculation. But it has also been made rather plain that it means to speculate with borrowed money. It is highly fortunate that the outburst of crazy stock speculation, encouraged by Mr. Harriman's exploit, has been held in check since this week's rise in money. For ourselves, we imagine that it is not so much the "public," or even the habitual operators of the Stock Exchange, who need to be restrained, as it is the gamblers in what we euphemistically call high finance. To suppose that this class of people, merely by virtue of their exalted position and opportunity, know when to start and when to stop and when they have gone too far, is unfortunately in the teeth of the monetary history of the world. Their conspicuous genius seems ordinarily to lie in shifting the penalty for their own excesses to other shoulders.

By unanimous vote of the Rio congress, the Drago plan is approved and referred to the Hague Tribunal. The South American delegates have very wisely disavowed authority in the premises. Naturally, the resolve of a debtor that he be no longer pursued harshly carries less weight than a self-sacrificing ordinance on the part of a creditor. We shall know better about the acceptability of the Drago doctrine when it has been passed on by representatives of nations holding South American Government bonds. On the other hand, the view that force may not be used against nations to collect individual debts is consonant with recent tendencies in international law and with common sense. Private debtors have gradually been released from immemorial constraints and disabilities, and we believe the time will come when to go to war because a group of speculators have invested unfortunately in admittedly bad securities will seem simply absurd. If the rule of *caveat emptor* applies anywhere, it certainly does to the paper of the Latin republics. Investors in such

securities act with their eyes open, and the price they pay fairly represents the hazard they take. One can hardly doubt that the jurists constituting the Hague Tribunal will in some fashion adopt the Drago plan. It is preposterous that an individual should be able to invoke against a sovereign State a more summary method of collection than the law permits in the case of a bad debtor in the next street.

An officer of the Smithsonian Institution, being interviewed on the question of its plans for an art gallery, gave the welcome assurance that "a patent-office exhibit of art" would be avoided. He also observed that there would be some difficulty in getting the proper pictures, sculptures, etc. Since all the available income of the Institution is already pledged to useful and growing activities, it is clear enough that an art gallery cannot be maintained from the present endowments. Gifts, though undoubtedly many will be offered, will afford at best an uncertain and unsystematic method of acquisition. In sixty years, for example, the Institution has received one important print collection, the small one of the late Harriet Lane Johnston, and a few straggling bequests. The new building for the National Museum may or may not contain proper room for a growing art museum; in any case, the Smithsonian must depend upon private beneficence, or Congress, for the support and increase of its department of art. We regard the latter resource as the proper one, and the friends of a national gallery at Washington should, we believe, devote themselves to framing a scheme that will be acceptable to Congress.

Such a plan may be found, we are confident, in the foundation of a gallery of American art, retrospective and contemporary. The fitness of such an exhibition at Washington needs no labored pleading. The mere immunity from influences of the schools and artist cliques that a Washington director may enjoy, would be a signal advantage. Moreover, the expense of the enterprise would be inconsiderable when compared with that of a general museum. There would be no need of a large, costly staff, and, considering the advantages of representation at the capital, contemporary works of art could be bought at favorable prices. A really choice collection of the best of American art at Washington would, we believe, have a wide-reaching effect upon the taste of the country at large. Once started, gifts would flow in to such an "American Luxembourg," though the tactful rejection of the mediocre would call for much adroitness in the director. An indispensable feature of the foundation would be a considerable appropria-

tion to start the gallery of older American art. The better pieces of the early schools are going up, and every dollar granted now will do the work of two or three at a later time. Presumably, the Smithsonian Institution has ascertained its powers as an art gallery by a recent judicial decision, in full consciousness of the responsibilities involved. We look to see the regents undertake a positive programme; and we submit that the plan sketched above is better fitted to win the good will of Congress and the people than any more elaborate and costly scheme for a general museum of art.

The Americanization of Europe has reached the stage of train robbery. Details of the hold-up of the train from Warsaw to Vienna show that the model may be even improved upon. One of the passengers stopped the train with the automatic brake. Three men armed with revolvers promptly jumped upon the locomotive and commanded the engineer to uncouple the mail car and take it a short distance from the train. There it was surrounded by thirty other armed men, and the cash was demanded—16,000 rubles from Alexandrewo, 15,000 from Lowicz, and so on. The bandits knew exactly what there was, and secured 200,000 rubles. In the meantime armed men were parading up and down the other cars exhorting the passengers to keep their seats and telling them no one would be harmed. To prevent an accident, the courteous highwaymen had in the meantime sent a telegram to Warsaw saying that train No. 12 was stalled and must be guarded from collision. A second robbery was a more serious affair. A custom-house official was travelling, in a third-class car, escorted by two attendants and four border policemen. He had with him nearly 50,000 rubles. Suddenly a passenger got up, drew a revolver, and shot one of the policemen dead. Six other men at that moment entered the car. A *mêlée* followed in which about 150 shots were fired. Among those killed were two generals, who happened to be in the adjoining car and who promptly took part in the fight. The thieves also lost a few men, but got away with the money.

Dr. Carl Peters, the former German explorer and colonial official, is the latest African observer to become convinced that an Africa-for-the-Africans movement has started. There is, he believes, danger of a Kaffir rising in every colony on that continent, and a general rebellion is only a matter of time. In order to meet this danger, the English and Boers are, Dr. Peters declares, drawing closer and closer together, and a general European war is all that is needed to "set off the Afri-

can powder-magazine." This may all be true; but it ought to be added that if the natives wanted an excuse for such an uprising against the white man's domination, it would be found in the cruelties Dr. Peters practised and the wrongs he inflicted while in the German colonial service, for which offences he was forced to retire to private life. But in England this is forgotten. For the moment, Dr. Peters's testimony is cited as proof that Sir Edward Grey was correct in his first position that the House of Commons must not criticise the English administration in Egypt, unless it wished to see rebellion in that country. From that stand, it should be noted, the Foreign Secretary has now rather ingloriously receded, there being absolutely nothing to connect the murder at Denshawi with any political movement. Surely, the way to stimulate the Africans to oppose European influence is to show just such nervousness as betrayed Sir Edward Grey in this case.

The proper attitude of the other German parties towards the Social-Democrats gives rise to never-ending discussions, which have been intensified of late by renewed Social-Democratic successes. The Emperor and the reactionaries urge the banding together of all the voters in a league to defeat the party of Bebel. This, in their opinion, is a patriotic duty. It requires some courage, therefore, for a radical Liberal like Dr. Barth to urge rather an alliance with the Social-Democrats. Himself an individualist, and in no sense a believer in Socialism, he finds himself compelled to this step by the steadily growing power in the Empire of the clerical and agricultural influences. The schools in Prussia have just been handed over to the church, there are millions upon millions of dollars to be spent upon canals at the behest of the great landlords, there is a total absence of any desire to uplift the masses of the people, and the selfish protection interests are more and more menacing. When the radical Liberals have aided the National-Liberals or the Centre in electing members of the Reichstag, these parties have simply accepted the favor and gone on without the slightest regard for the wishes of those, like Dr. Barth, who turned the scales in their favor. To the Social-Democrats Dr. Barth now makes overtures, despite their policy of isolation, for with all its defects it is the one party which, by correct or mistaken methods, seeks earnestly to right intolerable social conditions. Should the radical Liberals follow Dr. Barth's advice, the Social-Democratic wing of the Reichstag ought to make considerable gains in certain portions of Prussia.

"While we weep over the means, we must pray for the end," wrote Jeffer-

son, speaking of the unfortunate fact that the efforts of mankind to "secure the freedom of which they have been deprived should be accompanied with violence, and even with crime." The words rise to the lips as one reads of the latest political murders in St. Petersburg. In Russia, the bomb is now the inevitable response to martial law, the censorship, the dissolution of the Duma, the suppression of free speech. With every other vent for the people's will closed, outrage and assassination become press and orator in one. With the muzzling of newspapers, with no debate, no explanation, no possibility of remonstrance, how can we wonder if, as Wendell Phillips said in 1881, resort is had to "the last weapon of victims choked and manacled beyond all other resistance"? "God means that unjust power shall be insecure." The effect of the attempt to kill Premier Stolypin, attended by such horrors as the dispatches have told us, may lead the Russian autocrats to new and fiercer acts of repression. But the lesson they should learn is the need of hastening the lawful and free and recognized expression of the hopes and demands of the Russian people by means of an unfettered press and local and national assemblies. Through them, no doubt, the Czar would be exposed to many explosions of eloquence, but that is better than bursting bombs. And it may be set down as certain that, hereafter, in the shadow of Russian tyranny will stalk the Russian Terror.

Condemnation of the Greek bands, whose recent outrages introduce a new complication into the Macedonian situation, is well enough, but it hardly lies in the mouths of the Bulgarians, who invented this form of agitation. At a mass meeting held at Philipopolis on Sunday, it was resolved to break off diplomatic relations with Greece, and to affirm the inadequacy of the Muersteg programme for pacifying Macedonia. But no race is in sufficient plurality to have a prescriptive right to Macedonia; and the recent atrocities of the Greek bands, while horrible enough, are merely delayed reprisals for years of persecution from many quarters, especially from the Bulgarian side. It is natural that the Bulgars should resent a movement which thwarts their plan for a greater Bulgaria; but it was also to be expected that the Greeks would organize to protect their civil and ecclesiastical rights. The whole imbroglio does, however, show that the Muersteg reforms are entirely inadequate to the situation. When it appeared that the Bulgarian revolution might succeed, a solution of the Macedonian question was fairly in view. Today, that hope is more than clouded. No improvement is to be expected until some mandatory of the European Con-

cert applies to the whole region that rigorous pacification which Austria exemplified so admirably in Bosnia and Herzegovina. But that involves the partition of Turkey, and before undertaking it the Powers will willingly let die any reasonable number of Christians.

"The France of Asia" is the flattering name for Persia devised by the Persian Minister in Paris. He was explaining to a puzzled pressman that the movement towards a Constitution and representative institutions in Persia should really be regarded as no great surprise. Foreign ideas have been long and eagerly absorbed at Teheran. Teachers of European science and civilization have been invited from abroad in great numbers; within a year fifteen qualified professors have been sent from France alone. One member of the Cabinet is Hossein-Khan, a graduate of the Ecole Polytechnique of Paris. Of the coming national assembly—named, literally, the Congress of National Consultation—the Persian Minister has the highest hopes. The Shah, he is certain, in summoning it was but meeting the expectations of the people. It all sounds rather incredible, even to ardent believers in democracy. The most hopeful of them are scarcely ready to think of a Constitution in Persia, and in China! But they will heartily hope that the liberalizing movement in Persia may not be abruptly ended after the fashion of the "roi de Perse" in the fable.

While we are discussing the Pan-American railway, the Pan-African railway is being built. Of the 8,000 kilometres from the Cape to Cairo, one-half is now completed; about 2,500 kilometres from the Cape to the Zambesi, and 1,500 from Cairo to Khartum. In building the central part, England will require the permission of either Germany or the Congo State to traverse a section of the territory; but this will be readily granted because of the advantages of having a north-and-south line to unite the existing or projected lateral railroads. A tremendous gain will accrue to England from the consent of the Negus to use Abyssinian territory, now practically assured. From Khartum to Fashoda it would be impossible to build the railway along the Nile, because of a vast swamp covering ten degrees of latitude. The arrangement with the ruler of Abyssinia will take the road through a most fertile region along the Blue Nile and the edge of the mountains, as far as Lake Rudolph, where English soil will again be reached. France, also, derives great benefit from the arrangement in question, as her railway will now be able to enter the fertile highlands of Abyssinia and there connect with the great Central African line.

DRAWING NEW CLASS LINES.

"Bryan," writes a Hearst supporter, "really does not represent the interests of the workingman, but those of the small shopkeeper and farmer." On this point, Mr. Bryan might easily make answer along the line of a famous passage in his Chicago convention speech. It ran thus: "The farmer who goes forth in the morning and toils all day—who begins in the spring and toils all summer—and who by the application of brain and muscle to the natural resources of the country creates wealth—is as much a business man as the man who goes upon the Board of Trade and bets upon the price of grain." He might say now that the farmer is as much a "workingman" as any one employed in a shop or factory. But suppose it be accepted that for some mysterious reason the interests of the farmer and the small shopkeeper are permanently different; suppose that future political cleavages in this country should be on lines of complete "class consciousness"—how would that affect the prospects of the "workingman's candidate"? We suppose he would concede the right of the despised farmers and shopkeepers to cast a vote apiece, and have it counted. It only remains to ask how many there are of the two groups under consideration.

That discourager of so many attractive theories, the United States Census, supplies the answer. It shows that within the continental United States there were 29,073,233 persons engaged in "gainful occupations" in 1900. They were distributed among the five groups of industries as follows:

Agricultural pursuits	10,381,765
Professional service	1,258,538
Domestic and personal service.....	5,580,657
Trade and transportation.....	4,766,964
Manufacturing and mechanical pursuits.	7,085,309

Thus, at the outset, the group to which the "workingman" belongs is outnumbered considerably more than two to one by the groups in which the farmer and the shopkeeper are found. Even after deducting women and children, the totals remain as 12,403,713 to 5,533,872, respectively. Or one may limit the scope of the classification, cutting out all minor subdivisions, and consider merely the "farmers, planters, and overseers" and the "merchants and dealers (except wholesale)." Of these two classes, again leaving out women and children, there are 6,121,671, as against only 5,601,988 in the whole range of "Manufacturing and mechanical pursuits" from "Carpenters and joiners" to "Upholsterers." Plainly, if the artisans should unite against the farmers and the shopkeepers, every tightening of class lines would mean an additional certainty of defeat.

For the notion that the artisan, the mill-hand, and the like constitute a special class which should be the object of peculiar solicitude and favor, several

causes are responsible. The unions have done all they could to foster the idea. There was no other hypothesis on which two million or so of citizens could claim the right to dictate to the other eighty millions. Yet the protectionist has probably done still more to create the false impression. The cartoonist of *Judge*, for instance, draws the workingman in his square paper cap and the capitalist with his mutton-chop whiskers, as if they represented the entire interest of the country, so that the full dinner-pail for one and the fat bank account for the other stood for universal prosperity. Yet Edward Atkinson showed from the official figures that at most 14 per cent. of the people of this country are supported in industries directly benefited by the tariff. Protectionists believe that prosperity engendered among "producers" will diffuse itself throughout the nation; yet they do not dwell on the fact that the group from which this beneficent influence spreads includes so small an element, while 86 per cent. of the population receive their tariff blessings at second hand.

Attempts to array the rich against the poor, the employed against the employer, labor against capital, are nothing new even in this country. But such a break between different groups of the oppressed is somewhat novel. Is not the Trust giant smiting with impartial bludgeon the farmer, the shopkeeper, and the workman? Extortionate selling prices, inadequate buying prices, illegal discriminations are certainly taking money out of the pockets of all three alike. Yet that is not a cohesive issue for the "toiling masses" only. The professional classes, the domestic servants, in fact all but a minute fraction of the voting population, agree with Mr. Hearst or Mr. Bryan or President Roosevelt or any one else who preaches against special privilege. For this, the most genuine grievance, is the one which there is least excuse for attempting to make a class issue.

It has always been the pride and the distinction of American political parties that they have drawn members from all social and industrial classes alike. There is nothing in the present situation to justify a change in this historic policy. It is possible sometimes for a smaller group to hold the balance of power, locally and for a time, as organized labor is attempting to do in the Congressional elections. But avowed exclusive devotion to one element would be the very surest way of reducing either of the great parties into a petty faction, or a public menace.

THE VACILLATING CZAR.

The unexpected dispatches, stating that the Russian Government will proceed at once to the distribution of 20,000,000 acres of public land among the

peasants, raise more questions than they answer. The plan is announced as in part political. By doing a popular act, and granting what is admitted to be an instalment of long-delayed justice, it is the Czar's hope that he may get a "docile" Duma next time. But the result might easily be the opposite. The peasantry may take this concession merely as one extorted through fear—really a confession that the policy of autocratic repression is breaking down in the Government's hands. Something has to be done; so this sop is thrown to the peasants; but strange thoughts are evidently astir in Ivan's head, and he may conclude that all he has to do is to keep on threatening and mutinying and massacring in order to get much more. The second Duma may prove more indocile than the first.

Besides, it is necessary to ask how far the scheme of land relief will go, before deciding that it will be popular, much less accepted as a permanent solution of the agrarian question. On this point the figures are eloquent. We follow a Russian writer in the *Journal des Débats* of June 20. He shows, first, the enormous preponderance of the agricultural population in Russia. According to the Imperial census of 1897, it amounted to 112,000,000 out of 129,000,000 people in all the Empire. Probably to-day it numbers 125,000,000 out of 145,000,000—six-sevenths. Thus Russia is by far the most "rural" country in Europe. Yet more than half of all the land is owned by the state and the communes. The Russian Government is the greatest landed proprietor in the world. In the various forms of crown lands, appanages, etc., it owns some 400,000,000 of acres. Only a small percentage of this, however, is suited for agricultural purposes. The larger part is forest and swamp. Hence it would be impossible for the Government to satisfy the vast land hunger out of its own reserves merely. It is now proposed to distribute some 15,000,000 acres of public lands. The authority we are following estimates that very little more than that is actually available for tillage. But what is this among so many? Will not this bare beginning inevitably drive the 100,000,000 landless peasants forward to the plan of expropriating the holdings of the great landlords? And how can such a project be financed? Certainly not without the Duma; and it may be the Government that will be "docile" when it has to go to the representatives of the people to ask for loans and financial guarantees.

This first step in land distribution is plainly taken only because the Czar's counsellors perceive that the peasantry is seething with discontent and revolt. The first taste of popular institutions among the peasants has altered them radically. Many landlords who went to

visit their estates after the Duma began its sittings, returned to the capital saying: "We do not recognize our peasants. They have changed completely since the elections to the Duma." The servile *mujik* is a thing of the past. And that is the very reason, as the great authority on Russia, Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, explained in advance, why this stop-gap plan of land apportionment will not do. The peasants have their eyes opened at last. They have lost their old simple faith in the Little Father who would do justice, did his courtiers permit him to know the facts. They see that the Grand Dukes are the greatest and richest landlords, and will not hear of a law of even partial expropriation. No more will the Church. And the attitude of the peasant Deputies in the Duma made it pretty certain that, as M. Beaulieu writes, when once it is clear that the Imperial family is the great obstacle to the distribution of land, the peasant will have been "captured for the revolution." There may even be, thinks this cautious and informed French observer, "an overthrow of the throne."

This is very like what the best English authority on Russia, Mackenzie Wallace, writing from St. Petersburg on August 11, predicted in the *London Times*. He foresaw the coming of a time of "internal ferment, compared with which all the disorder, pillaging, and assassination of the past months will have the appearance of public order." Indeed, another correspondent of the same newspaper reports a statement made full three years ago by a prominent Russian, since known as a Constitutional Democrat. Even at that date he was appalled at the success of the propaganda of the extremists. He said:

Neither you nor any other foreigner knows, very few Russians know, the progress these men have made among the peasantry and workmen, in the face of what seemed insurmountable difficulties. But I have made it my business to keep in touch with their agitation, and I assure you that I am almost appalled at the way in which it has grown and is still growing. They have won such support from the people that I frankly doubt whether it is any longer possible to save Russia from a bloody revolution. In view of the bitter discontent which is steadily growing among all classes of the population, the Government will, sooner or later, be forced to try to conciliate public opinion by some real or pretended concessions. But it will be too late. It is already too late. So soon as the bureaucracy shows a sign of weakness, the revolutionary movement will become irresistible. Reforms which would amply satisfy us will be of no avail against the new forces which are being roused throughout the country. The uneducated masses will make demands which it will be impossible for any Government to grant. There will be an appeal to force, and the result will be a chaos.

Depressing and alarming as this

prophecy is, it reads amazingly like a description of the course of events as we see it unfolded. Nothing, in fact, has occurred since the abrupt dissolution of the Duma to alter the conclusion that it was a monumental blunder. The Czar should have come to terms with the Moderate party. In the next Duma, there may be no moderate party.

ARCHITECTURAL COMPETITIONS.

There is considerable discontent in professional circles with the prevailing habit of architectural competitions. The dissidents take the view either that competitions are clumsily managed and unfairly judged, or else that they are uneconomic and vicious in principle. Representing the first class, a prominent architect asserted in the last general meeting of the Institute that Mr. McKim's plans for the University Club in New York would never have received an award in a competition. The statement was undisputed, and certainly indicates that there usually is something amiss with the programmes, the judges, or the competing architects. The smaller class which regard competition not only as subject to perversion, but as unjust *ab initio*, offer a plausible but not wholly convincing moral argument for their case. It is illustrated in a clever skit by Mr. Henry Rutgers Marshall, in last month's *American Architect*, in which he imagines the Architectural League proposing a competition among lawyers in order to choose its solicitor. The fairly grotesque terms, the inadequacy of the reward, etc., are borrowed with the slightest alterations from the programme for the new buildings of Union Theological Seminary. The inference is that such a competition is an affront equally to the legal and architectural professions.

The moral objection may be more concretely stated as follows: Ten established firms are invited to enter a competition for a million dollars, being promised a thousand dollars apiece as indemnity for the expense of preliminary designs. But the regular fee for preparing such designs would be in every case one per cent., or ten thousand dollars. In other words, the building committee receives, in nine cases, at a thousand dollars a service worth ten. This argument, however, is too mathematically good to be true, and falls to the ground when it is recalled that no architect can be compelled to enter a competition. The system could any day be defeated by an agreement of the best firms to stay out. On the other hand, it should be noted that established firms do compete under protest, with a sense that the method is very defective, and subject to grave miscarriages of justice.

Into the matter of log-rolling, playing up to the taste of influential mem-

bers of the jury, we will not go, because these are defects inherent in any such rivalry. If the profession of architecture is worse off in this respect than the others, it behooves the authoritative bodies to assume a severer attitude towards unprofessional conduct. There is, however, much to be said against a system that uneconomically brings out, say, fifty designs where a single building is required, and tends at least to eliminate the best firms and leave monumental buildings to be scrambled for by mediocrities. But all this is largely a matter of methods. Because invitation competitions are insufficiently paid is not a reason for abolishing them, nor is the frequent holding of open competitions, where limited contest would be advisable, a cause for despair. What we want is clearly a class of advisers and judges, such as actually exists in France, capable of drawing up simple and rational programmes, beyond personal influences, and fully aware of the mere tricks of the draughtsman which would pass for substantial design. In short, the most serious criticism of competitions among us lies not so much against the system itself as against the average committee and jury.

When it is remembered that young architects almost always commend the system, changing to the other opinion only after they have arrived, it will be felt that the practice has at least the merit of encouraging rising talent. For this reason alone, we should be sorry to see the admittedly uneconomic open competitions wholly done away with. We feel that it is unwise to trust to the hazard of such a free-for-all any very important building; but there is a whole class of smaller structures of a public or semi-public character where open competitions seem eminently in place. With respect to the greater commissions, we can only say that it is absurd to expect a firm that is prospering to encounter unpaid the chances of a large field; furthermore, that it is unfair to ask such a firm to compete, without at every stage fully repaying the costs of competition. Experience has taught, too, that in most cases the best results are obtained without competition by selecting the architect directly.

But right here appears the human and unprofessional side of the problem. An individual may fairly succeed in picking his man, but the great buildings are rarely in the hands of individuals. A corporation, lay or ecclesiastical, will practically have the greatest difficulty in making an impartial choice. As many competent architects may be in sight as there are stockholders or pew-owners. When the rebuilding of St. Thomas's Church was broached, it was found that some forty architects had substantial backers in the parish. Under such circumstances, what is there for it but the Apostolic method of casting a lot,

or else some form of competition? It was undoubtedly this motive that led the Commune of Florence in the old time to put out so many of its monuments at competition; and the same solution is likely to be sought whenever direct choice of an architect seems impossible.

By a natural misapprehension of the scope of competitions, they have been criticised as a bad way of selecting a building. As a matter of fact, they never are a way of selecting a building. The artfully tinted drawings that win the suffrages of juries have the very slightest relations to the building that is to be. At best, they are merely an indication that the winner of the competition will work out an acceptable building. As a method of choosing an architect—the real difficulty for building committees—there is much to be said for competitions. They afford, if frequently a lame conclusion, at least a conclusion where otherwise there might be an interminable deadlock.

Looking at the situation broadly, the following advice might be tentatively offered to clients: (1) Choose an architect directly if you can; (2) for a monumental building, hold a limited and properly paid competition if you must; (3) for an ordinary building, hold an open competition, if you will. Finally, architects will probably have to put up with a system generally unsatisfactory from a professional point of view, so long as it affords an obvious convenience to that soulless but indispensable entity—the average corporate client.

THE READING OF FARMERS.

Statistics of circulation in the travelling libraries of Wisconsin throw an interesting light upon the reading of the farmers of that State. When the system was started seven years ago the circulating boxes were plentifully stocked with works on agriculture and nature books, a careful selection of the best and most popular being made. But it was found that the Wisconsin farmer will not read such books under any inducement. He desires no advice about his crops, and is incurious as to the birds, beasts, and plants of his neighborhood. The "How to Know" and similar books had, however, a splendid reading in the towns. The farms showed an equally feeble demand for works on economics, finance, and civic improvement. Even discussions of the labor problem were persistently neglected. History, too, found very few devotees. In fact, nothing is more striking about the bucolic taste in letters than its complete contemporaneity.

This appears in the first class of books which the farmers of Wisconsin do read. Biography has fallen below the expectations of the literary bureau, but for lives of persons of current no-

toriety there is a considerable demand. The only solid reading that is really popular on the farms is travels. Fiction, both standard and current, is eagerly devoured there as elsewhere. We believe we may consider Wisconsin in this matter as fairly representative of the country at large. Sojourners on New England farms will confirm the triple categories of recent biography, travel, and fiction. The books that are likely to be in every prosperous farmer's library are such biographies as the Grant Memoirs, Blaine's "Twenty Years in Congress," and the lives of such notable divines as Beecher, Moody, Spurgeon, etc. Many New England farm-houses of the better class possess the entire series of Livingstone and Stanley, to which are frequently added the chief Polar expeditions, and more rarely, the travels of Sven Hedin and other Asiatic explorers. The Alpine books of Whymper are rarer, but not unknown. Fiction, by grace of the summer boarder, abounds, and the taste for it is apparently indiscriminate. Where New England might perhaps claim a superiority over Wisconsin is in the matter of devotional and theological works. There has been and is a considerable public for such harmonizing treatises as those of the late Henry Drummond, on science and religion. The Wisconsin statistics are silent as to those rural character-sketches comprised in the so-called "b'gosh school," but it is safe to say that these are very little read in the neighborhoods whence the various Uncle Ephraims and Aunt Sabrinas are drawn. Caricature is, in fact, rarely greeted with enthusiasm by the travestied persons.

One need not be a profound psychologist to realize why farmers do not read for self-improvement. Even in these days of the telephone and trolley car the agricultural life is a comparatively monotonous one, and if the toiler reads at all, it is for recreation solely. A natural curiosity leads him to explore the lives of his political and ecclesiastical heroes; a vague longing for wider boundaries, for something of romance, explains the taste for fiction and books of travel. For many a community the itinerant missionary represents strange lands and peoples, the steamy breath of the tropics, and the feathery palms. He is the natural forerunner of the book agent with African and Asiatic, not to say Polar, adventures to sell. The Wisconsin and all other statistics fail us on an interesting point, namely: What books are read by Philemon, what by Baucis? We think it no unfair supposition that "Twenty Years in Congress" and the Stanley travels are read by father, and the "Dolly Dialogues" and Zenda books by mother, after the supper dishes have been put in the cupboard.

It would be interesting to carry the analysis closer and inquire what novel-

ists are read in the country. From observation, limited to be sure, but extending over several years and including many districts of New England, we confidently say that Howells and James are not read on the farms. Apparently, the objection of Mr. Owen Wister's "Virginian" that nothing happens in such books, damns them among our sturdy Easterners also. Curiously enough, Mr. Cable was read, apparently, for his exoticism. Mark Twain's earlier books, especially "Roughing It" and "Innocents Abroad," have usually been present in book-cases under our observation. Of recent years the more knowing society novels have put in an appearance; but these glimpses into Mayfair and Cosmopolis are, as we have hinted, due rather to the summer boarder than to the bucolic demand.

Of course, all inferences from statistics of travelling libraries and inspection of farm-house living rooms are vitiated by the all-pervasive magazines. Through clubs, the monthlies are very extensively circulated, and there is no means of knowing which portion of the fare provided by the editor is best relished by the farmers of the land. One may fairly assume, however, that the preponderance of fiction is what attracts the up-country districts, as indeed it does the towns. The slack demand for the works of publicists shown by the Wisconsin statistics suggests that the muck rake may not have stirred the country soil very deeply. Its havoc has been, perhaps, largely confined to city thoroughfares. There is nothing in the taste for romance that forbids us to believe that they are canny folks "in the deestrics" and rather "sot in their ways" as regards both their reading and believing. If our theory that farmers read chiefly for recreation be true, it is no wonder that they decline to be caught in the present quasi-sociological freshet.

THE TEACHING OF LATIN—A CRITICISM AND A REMEDY.

During the last thirty years the teaching of Latin in the high school has been almost completely revolutionized. The change has been due to a conviction that the old method was not adapted to modern conditions, and that loss of Latin as the chief representative of classical culture was due to the method of teaching rather than to the study itself. If the changed conditions could be adequately met it seemed that no further decay was to be apprehended.

These considerations were sound. The position of Latin and the method of teaching it were the heritage of the Middle Ages when Latin formed the greater part of the training of youth for every pursuit in life. It was, therefore, a practical study intended to be immediately useful, and the training in it was detailed and extensive. In modern times, however, the pressure of so many other subjects upon the at-

tion of the school led to a progressive curtailment of the time that could be given to Latin, without any particular change in the method of teaching it, and the result was a progressive diminution of the net result of knowledge and an apparent diminution in its effective value as culture.

Two suggestions for improvement were made; one with regard to the introductory training, the other with regard to the authors read. The introductory book was restricted in compass, and greatly modified in method. The old idea of learning by heart large masses of paradigms, lists of exceptions, and multitudes of unimportant details was abandoned, and the essential facts were presented in small sections, so that the student could make immediate use of his knowledge. The vocabulary was restricted to the words used most frequently by Cæsar and Cicero, and various devices were employed to produce interest. The commentaries on Cæsar, Cicero, and Virgil became marvels of exegetical and illustrative material; ethnology, geography, statistics, comparative religion, comparative philology, military science, law, archæology, art, all contributed their share, until the notes were often twice as extensive as the text. And yet, in spite of this, the criticism was made that students came up to college with a smaller knowledge of Latin than they exhibited forty years ago, and, still worse, left college unable to read a passage of ordinary Latin except with an effort, which after a few years became almost prohibitive.

To meet this difficulty, some institutions, under the lead of Harvard University, modified their entrance requirements so that entering students were required to translate, not passages from works previously read, but passages hitherto unseen. Undoubtedly, good results were gained from this requirement, but it appears that even here no definite plan of instruction was pursued, and, furthermore, that the advantage obtained by the student at entrance was lost in the subsequent college training. Accordingly, it now appears that, while Latin is increasing proportionally in the secondary school, it is still losing ground proportionally in the colleges, and that the knowledge shown by students on leaving college indicates no signs of betterment.

Several remedies may be suggested. In the first place, it cannot be too strongly emphasized that the habit of making the classics the occasion for instruction in ancient history, life, and art is fundamentally unsound. While Latin will be retained, and should be retained, largely on account of its exceptional value for mental training, it is, nevertheless, just as unquestioned that the influence of this language for centuries has been due largely to the value of the literary masterpieces which it embodies. Now, any scheme of instruction which minimizes the study of the Latin authors as literature fails to do justice to the study. Livy and Tacitus are not the places to study Roman history. Roman mythology should not be the essential feature in reading Virgil. Public law is not the main reason for reading Cicero. It may be laid down as a fundamental principle that little more should be expected from a student in Latin than could be reasonably expected from the ancient

Roman reader of that day. The Roman who read Cæsar's "Commentaries" possessed no other information as to the ethnology of Britain or Germany, and lost nothing by his ignorance. Why should more be demanded of our luckless schoolboy?

Now, to read a Latin author with readiness and appreciation requires knowledge, and it is here that my chief criticism of the present method of instruction applies. An acquaintance with paradigms and with the essential laws of syntax is necessary, and is everywhere demanded. But even with the knowledge of paradigms and syntax, the student will be unable to read if he does not possess a knowledge of words. In the old method it was supposed that this knowledge would be gained by assiduous thumbing of the lexicon; but any one who has gone through school and college cannot fail to remember how little actual progress was made in the preparation of any one lesson in this essential matter of word-knowledge. The prime necessity in teaching Latin at the present day is, accordingly, the systematic study of words. This study is no new thing. The most distinguished scholars, both in Europe and here, have emphasized it time and time again. But, as far as I know, no definite system has been devised applicable to our present conditions.

For the study of words no language possesses such unique advantages as does the Latin. Its vocabulary is marvellously compact as well as efficient, and therefore more can be done with a small number of Latin words than can be done with the same number in any other language. The authors read in schools prove this. The first five books of Cæsar's "Gallic War" show a total of 2,120 words. The six speeches of Cicero read in the schools show a total of 2,158 words. The total vocabulary for the first six books of Virgil's "Æneid" is 3,229 words. The total word-list of these three authors comprises only 4,683 words. Now, it goes without saying that, in the study of vocabulary, those words should be particularly emphasized which occur most frequently, and for the purpose of my study I have culled out those which occur in the selections mentioned five times or more. The total number is 1,929. That these words are representative I have tested by taking a class through the "Civil War" of Cæsar, the "Pro Roscio Amerino" of Cicero, and four or five books of Ovid's "Metamorphoses." I found that, of the words to which I have alluded, 1,900 appear in the authors I have mentioned, and that, with the knowledge of the meanings of those 1,900, my students were able to read without difficulty and without consultation of the lexicon.

If, therefore, during the four years of his training in the high school, the pupil were required to acquaint himself thoroughly with approximately 2,000 Latin words, he would have at hand fully nineteen-twentieths of the total vocabulary of any Latin author of literary value which he would meet. Several other considerations reinforce this argument. The 2,000 words to which I have alluded contain more than 800 verbs, of which the majority are simple verbs. If the student has, in addition to this knowledge, even rudimentary acquaintance with the principles of Latin word formation, he has really at his control

a vocabulary very much more extensive than would appear on the surface. In addition, it is to be remembered that a large amount of our English vocabulary is Latin, and that, while deducing the meaning of Latin words from their English derivatives is dangerous, nevertheless in the case of a large number of abstract ideas particularly, the English word and the Latin word are practically equivalent. It is, therefore, in the case of Latin, not a serious matter to provide students with such a working vocabulary that they will be able to read ordinary prose, and the narrative poetry, with very little, if any, greater difficulty than we should find in reading similar German or French. Not infrequently strange words will appear in Latin as they would in the modern languages, but it is surprising how often these words can be elucidated from the context, and how little is lost from the general impression if they remain unknown. Now, if these considerations are sound, it follows that in the reading of texts in school and college the procedure that is usually followed should be reversed. Instead of assigning a passage of so many lines to be prepared for the morrow, the teacher should inform his class how much in the next lesson is new, should insist that they be acquainted with the required vocabulary up to date, and should add to their available list those words in the new lesson which are essential to further progress. Words that occur but once or twice should not be emphasized, and if necessary the meanings should be imparted, but the student should be expected to use the knowledge that he has and the knowledge that is provided in advance to make his translation. If this is done, it will be but a short time before a sense of power will develop in the student's mind which will be worth hours and hours of drudgery. He will begin to feel that instead of the lesson being a puzzle which he is to make out, it is a picture which he is to enjoy, and one of which he already possesses the clue.

Of course, training in the method of translation is also essential, inasmuch as the genius of the Latin language differs from that of the modern languages, but after all, the most important requirement for reading a language is a knowledge of the meaning of words, and by the system I suggest, with the list I have indicated, that knowledge can be imparted, not merely with ease, but with a definiteness and assurance which has never yet been known.

GONZALEZ LODGE.

Teachers College, Columbia University.

FIRST EDITION OF "THE SCHOOL FOR SCANDAL."

Sheridan's play was first produced at Drury Lane Theatre, May 8, 1777, and was played successfully at intervals for a long period. No edition was printed in London for a number of years, although several came out in Dublin within a few years of its first production on the stage. The edition usually considered the first has the imprint "Dublin, for J. Ewling," but without date. Mr. Anderson, in the bibliography affixed to Sanders's "Life of Sheridan," suggests for it the date of 1777, while Mr. Pollard, in a recent bibliographical note, says that it was printed "presumably during the

course of the next year after it was first acted, that is, 1778." The date generally affixed in booksellers' and auction catalogues is 1781. In Part VI. of the McKee sale in 1902 a copy with imprint "Dublin: Printed in the Year, 1781," was offered, with the following note:

In all probability this is the genuine first edition of Sheridan's famous comedy. It is a matter of record that a manuscript copy of the play was sent over to Mr. Thomas Ryder of the Dublin Theatre, and as he, himself, assumed the character of Sir Peter in the representation given at his own theatre (see cast), the presumption is strong that his publication of the play preceded that of Mr. Ewling's, which bears no date.

But an edition with earlier date than this, apparently undescribed, certainly exists, with the title:

The | School for Scandal, | A | Comedy; | As it was performed at the | Theatres Royal, | in | London | and | Dublin. | Dublin: | Printed in the Year M,DCC,LXXX. |

It is a very poorly printed pamphlet of forty-two leaves, in appearance looking like a pirated edition, or one got out in a great hurry for the use of actors. The *dramatis personæ*, on reverse of title, does not contain the printed names of the actors, though, in the copy examined, these have been written in. A word-for-word comparison of this and the undated edition printed for Ewling has been made in an effort to discover which is actually the earlier. The differences, comparatively few in number, show almost conclusively that either one was printed from the other or both from a common manuscript which was followed pretty closely. "End of the First Act," etc., are found in the 1780 edition, but not in that of Ewling. Exits read, "Exit Snake," etc., in the 1780 edition, while that of Ewling generally has "Exit" only. Line 3, page 2, in Ewling edition, has "in their lives," while the corresponding phrase in the 1780 edition is, "in the whole course of their lives." This is the greatest textual difference, and, if it be taken as a basis, we are obliged to call Ewling's edition the earlier, as later editions, after the play had been revised throughout by the author, read, "in the course of their lives." "Drote" for "droit" and "done" for "donc," simply show that the Irish printer of the 1780 edition understood no French. "Preserve youth," in line 24, page 34, of Ewling's edition, becomes "ruin youth" (exactly opposite and wrong), in the 1780 edition. "Lies in question," in line 31, page 90, of the Ewling edition, reads, in the 1780 edition, "lying questions," the latter being wrong. Most of the differences, in fact, are mistakes of careless printers. Ewling's edition is fairly well printed, and has a considerable list of errata, while the 1780 edition is a very roughly printed piece. On the whole, it seems as if the edition printed for Ewling may retain its position as the first edition, although this heretofore undiscovered edition of 1780 may have the honor of being the first dated edition.

It is worth noting that the first American edition of the play, printed in Philadelphia, in 1782, by Robert Bell, and called on the title-page, "The Real and Genuine School for Scandal," was certainly printed from this 1780 edition, or a very accurate reprint of it. Most of the misprints, such as those of the two French words noted above,

are copied. The Philadelphia printer, however, saw the obvious nonsense of the phrase, "ruin youth," and was able to correct the sense, though he did not light upon quite the correct word. He printed it "save youth."

I have examined, also, another American edition, printed by Hugh Gaine in New York in 1786. The title-page states that it was printed "From a Manuscript copy in the possession of John Henry, Esquire, joint manager of the American Company, given him by the author." Below the *dramatis personæ* is the following advertisement:

So many spurious Copies of The School for Scandal having been obtruded on the Publick, has induced the Editor to lay before them, in its proper Garb, this most excellent Comedy, presented to him by Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Esq.; the justly admired Congreeve of the present Times.

In the same connection as the paragraph already quoted, Moore in his life of Sheridan, says:

The edition printed in Dublin is, with the exception of a few unimportant omissions and verbal differences, perfectly correct. . . . I have collated this edition with the copy given by Mr. Sheridan to Lady Crewe (the last, I believe, ever revised by him), and find it correct throughout.

Then, in a footnote he gives one of the alterations made by Sheridan in Lady Crewe's copy:

Lady Teazle, in her scene with Sir Peter in the second act, says: "That's very true, indeed, Sir Peter; and after having married you, I should never pretend to taste again, I allow." It was thus that the passage stood at first in Lady Crewe's copy, as it does still, too, in the Dublin edition, and in that given in the collection of his works, the original reading of the sentence, such as I find it in all his earlier manuscripts of the play, is restored: "That's very true, indeed, Sir Peter; and, after having married you, I am sure I should never pretend to taste again."

There is some discrepancy of statement here which I cannot explain. Lady Teazle's speech as given in full by Moore in his edition of Sheridan's Works (the above is quoted from the Life) is as follows:

That's very true, indeed, Sir Peter; and after having married you, I should never pretend to taste again, I allow. But now, Sir Peter, if we have finished our daily jangle, I presume I may go to my engagement at Lady Sneerwell's.

The same speech by Lady Teazle in three Dublin editions (the one dated 1780, the one printed for Ewling, and another later undated edition) reads:

Why then you force me to say shocking things to you. But now we have finished our morning conversation, I presume I may go to my engagements at Lady Sneerwell's.

While in the Gaine edition, printed from a manuscript by the author, the passage reads:

Aye! that's very true, indeed, after having married you, I never should pretend to taste again. But now, Sir Peter, as we have finished our daily jangle, I presume I may go to my engagement at Lady Sneerwell's

It is evident, therefore, that if Moore had by him a copy of some Dublin edition reading as indicated in his note, it must have been of a more recent date. L. S. L.

Correspondence.

HISTORY, ANCIENT AND MODERN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Columbia and Yale may be warmly congratulated on an innovation that is to mark the opening academic year. They have decided to join forces so as to constitute a department specially adapted for students who wish to fit themselves for Government employment, consular, colonial, or diplomatic. Incidentally, the same training will be of service to others, to those who merely wish to understand Administrative problems, or world politics, to journalists, even to missionaries. Commercial and international law, European and Oriental languages, commercial geography, consular and diplomatic practice, economics, modern history, and other allied subjects will be taught. This is all as it should be, and corresponds with a need which our historic growth as a nation has now brought on us.

On this text much might be written, but the present purpose is to advert to one branch only of these studies, the one that must answer the purpose of foundation for all the others, that is history. What is being done by Columbia and Yale is a hopeful symptom for the future of historical studies in this country. For it brings into sharp prominence the utility of studying recent history and the further fact that the history of the nineteenth century—to fix a convenient period—is one requiring a special approach. Whereas the study of the ancient world and of the Middle Ages tends dangerously to become an academic routine, in which research is merely the road to the doctorate and the professorial chair, the history of the years just behind us should be an introduction to practical life, a guide to the evolution in political thought and political methods from which the ever-changing fabric of human society as we move in it to-day has been woven. This branch of history, so different from the old academic history, is a practical study, giving to the administrator, the diplomat, the man of the world, the politician, the journalist, a comparative point of view whereby he can judge more effectively how this, that, or the other event he has to deal with stands in the world's evolution and the struggle of nations.

Nothing here written is meant to imply criticism of the very excellent work done in the history departments of our universities. On the contrary, it is certainly the case that the standard set has been tending steadily upwards of recent years. The trouble has been merely the non-recognition of the fact that if the remote past was worthy of study, the immediate past is equally worthy, and, additionally, that its lessons may have practical, or let us say, technical, value.

It was the logical minded French who first perceived the need which the modern world has of drawing by scientific methods lessons from yesterday to guide its way to-morrow. A small group of eminent Frenchmen, Boutmy, Taine, Albert Sorel, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, and others, judging that the national catastrophe of 1870-71 had proceeded largely from ignorance of political science in all parts of the community, decided that this ignorance should be reme-

died by instruction. This was the starting point of the now-famous *École des Sciences Politiques*, an institution concerning which two remarks must here be made. The first is that, taking the history of the world since 1789 as the foundation of its teaching, it has never copied the methods of that older and also excellent institution the *École des Chartes*; its aim has been constantly practical, never academic. The other remark is that no institution of modern France has shown such sudden and such splendid results. Whereas the France of the Second Empire and of many of the early years of the Third Republic was crassly, suicidally, ignorant of the elements of political science, now, within the last few years, a most remarkable change has taken place, largely the work of the *École des Sciences Politiques*. Frenchmen now write on colonial, international, economic questions, statistics in hand and firmly grounded in political and historical knowledge, and the old lies and fairy tales of the Boulevard prints, long the laughing stock of Europe, are fast becoming *vieux jeu*.

R. M. JOHNSTON.

Cambridge, Mass., August 27.

THE MS. OF EVELYN'S DIARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The new edition of Evelyn's "Diary and Correspondence," by Mr. H. B. Wheatley, the accomplished editor of Pepys, has been awaited by scholars with interest. The original editor of Evelyn, like those of Pepys, has omitted large portions of the diary, and additional material of considerable importance was expected in this new edition. Mr. Wheatley, however, has been able only to reproduce Bray's text, for the present owner of the manuscript has refused to permit a new inspection of it. A similar difficulty of my own had prepared me for this result; and as my experiences may serve to illustrate the annoyances which work on such an edition as this entails, they may not be without interest to your readers.

The Diary, letters, and other manuscripts of John Evelyn are now in the possession of a descendant bearing the same name, who has also inherited the ancestral estate of Wotton Court. One of these letters I was anxious to include in a work which I am editing for the Clarendon Press, and Mr. Sidney Lee kindly consented to intercede for me with Mr. Evelyn so that I might procure a transcript of the letter. Mr. Evelyn, who is now of a very advanced age, replied that he had presented all the MSS. at Wotton to his son, and that no one but this son could give access to them. Mr. Lee thereupon wrote to the younger Evelyn, who, in reply, regretted that he was unable to permit an inspection of the letter, as his father objected to having the MSS. disturbed in any way! All the papers were carefully stored away, and there was no reason to doubt the accuracy of Bray's original transcription.

I was not wholly satisfied by this assurance, and on the recent visit of Dr. J. E. Sandys of the University of Cambridge to this country I casually mentioned this difficulty to him. He offered to obtain the assistance of Mr. Frederic Harrison, whose family were neighbors of the Evelyns at Wotton, and who might gain as a friendly

favor what the interests of scholarship had failed to secure. The efforts of Mr. Harrison were, however, no less futile than those of Mr. Lee; and so, like Mr. Wheatley, I shall be obliged to rest content with Bray's antiquated transcript. It will appear *perforce* in an appendix, for every other of the many texts in my three volumes has been transcribed from the original.

The Diary of Pepys is in the possession of an academic institution; it is always open to the inspection of competent scholars; and successive editors have added such new material as a growing interest in Pepys and a fresher conception of scholarship have demanded. The Diary of Evelyn is in the hands of a private owner, who is wholly unaware of its historic import and wholly out of sympathy with the humane studies of his distinguished ancestor. Surely a public document of this sort belongs rightfully to a public institution, and no student of English letters will rest content until it has found its way into the British Museum.

But there is still another observation which this incident suggests. The charge of sordidness and unenlightenment which is so often brought against American collectors and bibliophiles may receive a wider application. Vandals and Goths may flourish among the country estates of England no less than in the stockyards of Chicago.

J. E. SPINGARN.

Columbia University, August 27.

[Every scholar will feel with Mr. Spingarn in his indignation at such nigardly treatment. At the same time a possible mitigation of this judgment may be found in the notice of the book printed on another page.—ED. NATION.]

DE MILLE IN HALIFAX.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I submit that Mr. Burpee's interesting letter to the *Nation* about De Mille was not entirely just to the people of Halifax. The estimation in which Halifax people held De Mille was substantially that in which he seems to be held by Mr. Burpee himself. I am sure that Mr. Burpee is mistaken in supposing that Mrs. Scott Siddons discovered him for the people of Halifax. I well remember the occasion of the reading referred to; Mrs. Siddons prefaced it with the statement that it was by request. Unless Mr. Burpee has evidence to the contrary, I should have assumed, as most of us did at the time, that Mrs. Siddons knew little or nothing about De Mille before her attention was drawn to his works by some of his Halifax admirers. After De Mille's death the manuscript of a poem was found among his papers, which was edited by Prof. Archibald MacMechan of Dalhousie University, Halifax, and published by T. C. Allen & Co., Halifax. I suspect that the greater part of the subscriptions, without which the volume could not have appeared, came from Halifax, or, at least, from Nova Scotian admirers of the author. Mr. Burpee has made no reference to this work. There are many Halifax people, among whom I number myself, who would be glad to have his critical opinion of the poem.

B. RUSSELL.

Halifax, August 18.

Notes.

Bard, Marquardt & Co. of Berlin will publish shortly a work in two volumes on Ibsen, by Prof. Georg Brandes.

The Cambridge University Press is about to issue the "Interlinear Bible," giving the authorized and revised versions in this incongruous form.

A new volume by George Frederick Wright on "Scientific Confirmations of Old Testament History," will be brought out by the Bibliotheca Sacra Company, Oberlin, O.

A translation by Mr. R. H. Hobart of "The Life and Works of Vittorio Carpaccio" is to be published soon by John Murray. The "Life" is the work of the late Prof. Gustaf Ludwig and of Prof. Pompeo Molmenti, the distinguished Venetian historian.

Kipling's "Puck of Pook's Hill" will be issued by Doubleday, Page & Co. early in October. The illustrations are by Arthur Rackham. The same firm has taken over the other books by Upton Sinclair besides "The Jungle," and will reprint them in revised editions.

Gustav Kobbè has added a "How to Appreciate Music" to the list, already long, of guide-books to culture. It will be published in September by Moffat, Yard & Co. On the same list are "Behind the Scenes with Wild Animals," by Ellen Velvin, and "The Von Blumers," by Tom Masson.

Prof. George William Knox, who for many years lived in the East, has written a book on "The Spirit of the Orient," now announced by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. It deals with the new relations of Japan and the East to the Western world since the war.

Edwin Markham is preparing a volume of selections from the writings of the much-discussed mystic, Thomas Lake Harris—regarded by some as a prophet, by others as a charlatan. The biography of Mr. Harris, who died a few months ago, will probably also be written by Mr. Markham.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have ready for immediate publication Budgett Meakin's "Life in Morocco," which gives an intimate picture of native existence such as is not commonly seen by foreigners. Later they will publish "A Child's Recollections of Tennyson," by Edith Nicholl Ellison, a daughter of the late Dr. Bradley, who succeeded Stanley as dean of Westminster. The book promises familiar and even amusing glimpses of the Laureate at home.

A series of critical biographies, whose character is sufficiently indicated by the title "Modern Poets and Christian Teaching," is coming from Eaton & Mains. The volumes ready this autumn will be: "Robert Browning," by Frank C. Lockwood; "Richard Watson Gilder," "Edwin Markham," and "Edward Rowland Sill," by David G. Downey; "Matthew Arnold," by J. M. Dixon; "Mrs. Browning," by Martha Foote Crowe, and "Lowell," by W. A. Quayle.

To commemorate the 250th anniversary of the settlement of that famous Massachusetts town, Alice Morehouse Walker has written a book on "Historic Hadley," to be published by the Grafton Press. The same

house is preparing a "History of the Ohio Society of New York," by James H. Kennedy, and the autobiography of Colonel Richard Lathers, edited by Alvan F. Sanborn, under the title of "Reminiscences of Sixty Years in South Carolina, Massachusetts, and New York."

Chapman & Hall in London (the American importer has not yet been announced) are preparing a "National Edition of the Works of Charles Dickens" to be completed in forty volumes. It will include more than a hundred pieces hitherto uncollected, chiefly from his anonymous contributions to *Household Words*; the full series of Letters now first chronologically arranged; the "Poems, Plays, and Speeches," and the "Life" by Forster, illustrated by a complete series of portraits. The first two volumes will appear in October. The edition is to be limited to 750 sets for England and America.

Duffield & Co. issue to-day a book by Mrs. N. S. Shaler called "The Masters of Fate," which deals with the power of the will to overcome the seeming disadvantages of life. Says Mrs. Shaler: "For the suggestion of the book and for most of the scientific material contained in it, I am indebted to my husband. In his opinion, the whole field of invalidism in its relation to intellectual and moral development deserves a consideration which it has not hitherto received. His personal acquaintance with many youths who start in the race of life with a burden of grave disabilities resting upon them made it plain to him that the sense of their handicap was a load that needed to be lightened. It seemed worth while, therefore, to prepare, with special reference to this class, a brief statement of the achievements of noted persons who, under the stress of grave difficulties, have shown skill in marshaling their physical and spiritual forces to play the part of men."

Other books on the list of Duffield & Co. are: "Molière, the Poet and Man," by H. C. Chatfield-Taylor; Brandes's "Reminiscences of My Childhood and Youth," translated by G. M. Fox-Davies; "The World's Painters Since Leonardo," by J. W. Pattison; "The Plays of Our Forefathers," by Charles Mills Gayley, and "China-town Ballads," by Wallace Irwin.

The *Geographical Journal* for August opens with an interesting account by Baron Erland Nordeskiöld of his archaeological and ethnographical researches among the Indians in the primeval forests on the boundaries of Bolivia and Peru, some of whom are as yet utterly untouched by civilization. They are now few in number, but the prevalence of ruins and especially of ancient burial places, in which were found many bronze and stone implements, showed that formerly the region was densely populated. Though forest dwellers and having no settled abode, they are agriculturalists and cultivate bananas, mandiocca, potatoes, cotton, sugar-cane, and maize. They are industrious, intelligent, and chaste, but, having a fatal propensity for liquor, they are becoming practically enslaved to the white rubber traders. Their condition differs but little from that of the Congo negroes, and the Baron says that unless the governments interfere and protect them from both fire-wa-

ter and the white man they are doomed to extinction. Prof. J. W. Gregory treats of the economic geography and development of Australia and says that because of the enormous deposits of coal and the high quality and wide distribution of its iron ores, he is confident that in the future—with the possible exception of China—she will beat the world's record in the production of iron. The geography of international boundaries is treated clearly and suggestively by Major E. H. Hills. He lays down the fundamental principles that the permanent frontier should be an actual barrier, clearly indicated, stable, and following existing ethnological or tribal boundaries. Then are described with illustrations from history the various types, as river, watershed, and artificial frontiers upon parallels of latitude, meridians, or a straight line, with the grave difficulties arising from them. The importance of the subject to Great Britain is shown by the fact that in Africa alone there are 5,000 miles of frontier common with France and 3,500 with Germany, much of which is unexplored territory, and therefore containing the germs of future misunderstandings. Lieut.-Col. Maunsell contributes some notes to accompany his valuable map of Eastern Turkey in Asia.

Much pleasanter reading than the recent accounts of slaughter in Joló is an episode related in the May number of the *Far Eastern Review* (Manila, P. I.), devoted to the Moro province. About two years ago the present district governor of Davao (Lieut. E. C. Bolton) received word that a mountain tribe of Bilanes had made a descent upon the Tagacaols, and had murdered two or three of the latter. [The peoples mentioned are non-Mohammedan hill-tribes.] The governor at once proceeded with one or two soldiers and fourteen Tagacaolos some fifty miles into the interior, and suddenly appeared before the house of the Bilan chief, who had never before seen a white man. His first remark to the district governor was, "You look just as I do," this Bilan chief having brown hair and eyes, and rather light complexion. To inquiries about the murders, the chief replied: "Yes, and we have forty-seven more to kill to get even for a raid they made upon our tribe some years ago." The governor explained that such reprisals could not be allowed, and invited the chief to a conference to be held at Santa Cruz, on the Gulf of Davao, on a certain date some few weeks ahead, which was carefully recorded by tying the proper number of knots on a string. The governor then visited other tribes engaged in vendetta warfare, and on the appointed day the conference was held. A judge was appointed from each tribe, with the governor as referee. Witnesses from five tribes went back over ten years of murders, thefts, etc. A remarkable fact was that, so far as could be determined, the witnesses all told the truth. A table was made showing the depredations of each tribe against the others, like a clearing house sheet, corresponding crimes were struck off, and a balance was left against two tribes which had committed more depredations than the others, which they agreed to settle by the payment of two hundred plates and three big gongs. They then shook hands all

around, and enjoyed the festivities arranged for them.

Arthur Symons publishes, in the *Athenaeum*, some curious discoveries made in the birth registers at St. James's, Westminster, while in search of dates connected with Blake. He found a William Marlow, son of Christopher and Mary, born March 2, 1709; Jane Marlow, daughter of Xopher and Barbara, born September 21, 1709; besides a Hannah Marlow, born 1748. "It is safe to assume," he says, "that in the year 1709 no name in English literature was more completely forgotten than that of Christopher Marlowe, and that no Marlowe, therefore, not connected with his family was likely to choose so uncommon a name as Christopher (which I found only a few times in the registers of fifty years). Yet, here are two fathers of families, at exactly the same time, both called Christopher Marlow." Not far off he discovered a Mary Ann Faust and a Hester Tamberline, besides a Mary Witchcraft and a Mary Ann Death.

"The Zambesi beyond the Victoria Falls" was the subject of one of the most attractive papers read before the British Association. The author, Mr. Trevor Batty, went up the river a hundred miles in native dug-outs into a region which, though traversed by Livingstone, had never before been visited by a naturalist. He found the natives highly intelligent, and said that it was not difficult to believe that their ancestors might have designed and built Zimbabwe, the finest of the Rhodesian ruins. This intelligence he illustrated by showing a perfectly symmetrical bowl not made upon a potter's wheel, but by the unaided fingers of a woman; beautifully finished ivory rings cut by primitive chisels and files out of the solid tusk of an elephant; fish spears with barbs almost as fine and quite as sharp as those of a trout fly fashioned out of iron, smelted from the clay iron-stone and forged and then cut when cold. Such work could only be made in England by high mechanical skill. The king, Lewanika, and his son, Litia, were intelligent men anxious for the improvement of their people. When the king returned from the Coronation, he was so impressed with the wonders of civilization that he began his opening speech to his people with the words, "You are simply baboons! Simply that!"

Carlo Tivaroni, whose exhaustive history of modern Italy has given him a permanent reputation, died at Venice on August 6. He was born at Zara in 1843. As a lad of seventeen he enlisted under Garibaldi in the Sicilian expedition, and again in 1866 and 1867 he obeyed that magician's call. He was a consistent democrat, who accepted, however, the monarchy as the indispensable symbol of Italian unity. He served one term as deputy from Belluno, but spent most of his life in the Department of Education, of which he became prefect. In 1882 he published his "Storia Critica de la Rivoluzione Francese." This forms, indirectly, an introduction to his monumental "Storia Critica del Risorgimento Italiano," which appeared in nine volumes between 1888 and 1897. The scale on which he worked was broad in generals and minute in particulars. He takes three volumes to bring the story down to 1815; three more for the years 1815-48, and a con-

cluding three for the actual achievement of unity and independence, 1849-70. He had the ideals of the most pedantic German "scientific" historians at their crudest, making his volumes a receptacle for an immense amount of miscellaneous matter thrown together without regard for form or for attracting the reader's interest. He uses no footnotes, but inserts titles and quotations parenthetically in the body of his text. And yet his nine volumes are unquestionably the most important record of Italy's regeneration, and they will long remain a quarry for students, although they can never be popular. They are in the main impartial. The fact that Tivaroni was a Mazzinian serves to give distinction to his opinions; indeed, the reader who cares to sample Tivaroni at his best cannot do better than to turn at once to his study of Mazzini. It is not too much to say that if all the original sources on Risorgimento history were lost, Tivaroni's *magnum opus* would enable the perspicacious historian to get a clear notion of that epic transaction.

The philologists of Germany, and particularly of Bavaria, have been celebrating lately the hundredth anniversary of the birth of one of the most creative, if least conspicuous, German scholars of the nineteenth century. On the fourteenth of last March, at the annual meeting of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences, a memorial address was delivered by Prof. Ernest Kuhn, son of the celebrated Adelbert Kuhn, on Johann Caspar Zeuss, the founder of Celtic philology. And on July twenty-second, an international meeting in commemoration of Zeuss was held at Bamberg, where he was professor of history during the last years of his life. The chief address at Bamberg was delivered by Prof. Kuno Meyer of Liverpool, one of the most eminent of living Celtic scholars and the organizer of the new School of Irish learning at Dublin. Professor Meyer also officially represented the Royal Irish Academy, and the Gaelic League, the great popular organization for the revival of the Irish language, sent a delegate who made an oration in Irish. M. Henri Gaidoz, wishing to offer a tribute on behalf of French scholarship, has reprinted and expanded an admirable account of the life and work of Zeuss which he published originally in the *Revue Celtique*, in 1885. His brochure (privately printed, Paris, 1906), contains also a reproduction of a portrait of Zeuss now in the possession of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences.

Zeuss received scanty recognition during his lifetime. He passed most of his days as a secondary school-teacher and obtained a university chair, after repeated denials of his application, only to be quickly compelled to relinquish it because of ill health. Now that the branch of science in which he was an isolated pioneer numbers its adherents in many universities of the old world and the new, it is a satisfaction to see some suitable tribute paid to his memory. There were Celticists, perhaps, before Zeuss, but hardly Celtic philologists. When the history of Celtic studies is written, due recognition will be given to the work of such native antiquaries as Edward Lhuys in the eighteenth century and O'Donovan and O'Curry in the early nineteenth. But the supreme debt of Celtic philology to the labor of Zeuss will always

be acknowledged. It has been playfully, but appropriately, expressed by Dr. Whitley Stokes in the quotation,

Zeüs árçhē. Zeüs méssa, Aós δ'ék pánta téttukai,

and seldom has a branch of learning owed more to one man. His early work, "Die Deutschen und Ihre Nachbarstämme" (which he was compelled to publish at his own expense) marked an epoch in the investigation of Germanic and Celtic ethnology, and his chief production, the "Grammatica Celtica" (1853), laid the foundations and raised much of the permanent superstructure of scientific Celtic grammar. During the fifty-three years that have elapsed since the publication of Zeuss's grammar, a small but ardent group of specialists have added vastly to the materials available for the study of the Celtic languages and literatures, and they have made many corrections in Zeuss's results. But they all gladly acknowledge their utter dependence on his initial labors, which give him an unquestioned place among the very few great masters of modern philology.

A curious intellectual phenomenon is the growing influence of John Henry Newman in France. It exists in a well-defined movement of certain minds toward Catholicism; in what may prove an answering movement among younger Catholics, with whom for the present it is an aid to their own belief; and, strange to say, in the general settling of ideas among others, quite apart from religion. The purely theological case of Abbé Loisy and his sympathizers is less known in France than in England and America, except, perhaps, among the clergy. But Brunetière has long been insisting on Newman's place in evolutionary philosophy; and Paul Bourget, when he first turned to his present sobriety of thought, published a striking study of the personality of the author of the "Apologia." Bourget now writes a significant preface to a fairly complete book on Newman, as he interests Frenchmen, by Georges Grappe. He draws attention to the coincidence, within a few weeks, of Newman's entrance into and Renan's exit from the Roman Catholic Church, and the consequences in the intellectual life of each. The historical relations of Newman's life are gone into very thoroughly by that grave and highly respectable, if not sparkling writer, M. Thureau-Dangin, who is also a member of the French Academy, in his "Renaissance du Catholicisme en Angleterre." Raoul Gout has studied Newman in the form of a bulky university thesis for the doctorate at the faculty of Protestant theology in Montauban. Lucie Félix-Faure (Madame Goyau), daughter of the late President, has made him the subject of one of her really superior popularizing volumes; and Ernest Dimnet is *le premier des newmaniens de France*. Abbé Henri Brémond, now the most promising French clerical writer, who, as an exiled Jesuit, gained experience in English colleges, publishes "Newman—Essai de Biographie Psychologique." And a member of the Pasteur Institut, professing at the Sorbonne, acknowledges reading the essay on Development for its suggestiveness.

One of the centenaries passed over this winter with little noise was the two hundredth anniversary of the death of John

Evelyn. Yet the event did not go entirely unregarded. A London publisher took the occasion to bring out a reprint of H. B. Wheatley's edition of the "Diary and Correspondence," and the work, in four stout volumes, has now reached us through the regular importer, Charles Scribner's Sons. Evelyn's "Diary" was first published in 1818, William Bray being the nominal editor, though much of the work of selecting and transcribing was done by William Upcott. The edition was not complete, yet Bray apologizes, not for omissions, but because "many things will be found in its pages which in the opinion of some, and not injudicious, critics may appear too unimportant to meet the public eye." That was in the days when the public still demanded respect. In 1879, H. B. Wheatley reedited the work, but, with the exception of a new life of Evelyn and a full bibliography of his works, could only reproduce the old and incomplete text. An appeal to Mr. W. J. Evelyn, the owner of the Evelyn property, for access to the original MS. brought a flat refusal. That gentleman wrote: "Colburn's third edition of the Diary was very correctly printed from the MS., and may be relied on as giving an accurate text." The present edition is a reprint of that of 1879, with, however, a number of fresh illustrations which add considerably to its value. Mr. Wheatley, to whom we owe the much-expanded Pepys, shows some indignation at the reserve of the present owner of the Evelyn MS. It is the natural feeling of an editor and the public will probably agree with him. But it is quite possible that Mr. Evelyn is justified in his action. Every case of this kind must be decided, not on a general rule, but on its particular merits. Undoubtedly the character of Pepys, a fairly solid man in his day, has suffered a certain distortion from the publication of records never meant to be seen any more than our own private thoughts are meant to be heard. Would the printing of Evelyn's "Diary" in full take off somewhat from the sober and dignified image of him we now possess? To his contemporaries, as to ourselves, he was the typical English gentleman of high character and broad culture; his representative to-day might well think twice before doing wrong to such a reputation by giving a false emphasis to his minor incongruities. We know what Pepys thought of his fellow diarist:

He read to me very much also of his discourse, he had been many years and now is about, about Guardenage; which will be a most noble and pleasant piece. He read me a play or two of his making, very good, but not as he conceits them, I think, to be. . . . In fine, a most excellent person he is, and must be allowed a little for a little conceitedness; but he may well be so, being a man so much above others.

Johnson may wear his mole in Sir Joshua's picture without detriment, but how might this "conceitedness" be thrown out of true proportion by the betrayal of a man's unguarded words. All this is, of course, mere conjecture on our part. At least we may welcome an old favorite in its new dress, although we might wish that the volumes were a trifle less bulky—and expensive (the price is \$12).

Beverly Warner's "Famous Introductions to Shakespeare's Plays by Notable Editors of the Eighteenth Century (Dodd, Mead & Co.) might well have been in-

spired by Prof. Nichol Smith's recent collection of the eighteenth century critics of Shakspeare, so nearly identical are the contents of the two. Morgann's admirable paper on Falstaff, which is the chief attraction of the latter, is absent from the former, as it does not fall exactly within the bounds of the title; and its place is supplied by one or two of the prefaces proper omitted by Professor Smith. Like the earlier editor, too, Dr. Warner has opened his volume with an introductory survey or estimate of the material. Under the circumstances it seems a little odd that he should not have referred to his predecessor, who has in a sense preëmpted the ground, and whom he ought, at least, to have known of. But the matter, as far as it is of any consequence at all, is one of literary courtesy rather than of literary ethics. At all events, with these points the resemblance ceases. Prof. Smith's book, though by no means inaccessible, is a foreign publication; and it is no doubt very proper that the home market should be supplied with native products. And besides there is one slight advantage which this new compilation possesses, though purchased at a considerable sacrifice. As it contains nothing but editors' prefaces and contains virtually all of these, it gives the historical student of literature an excellent opportunity to trace the gradual evolution of Shaksperian scholarship throughout the period, at the same time that by omitting two of the best general essays of the time—Morgann's, already mentioned, and Farmer's on the "Learning of Shakspeare"—it fails to give a fair idea of the criticism of the same century. As for Shaksperian scholarship, however, it is easy to trace a gradual narrowing of its interests from large and general questions of literature and life to that exclusive preoccupation with etymological and textual concerns which was finally to mark the editorship of the nineteenth century. The tendency is unnoticed by the general editor; but he points out judiciously enough the chief merits of the several prefaces, to which he has prefixed in every case a brief life of the author. On the whole, the make-up of the book leaves something to be desired. The matter is not very clearly distinguished for easy reference; the head-lines in particular give no clue to the separate pieces.

Charles Squire's "Mythology of the British Islands" (Blackie & Son) is frankly popular and unoriginal, written not for the Celtic scholar, but for the general reader, to supply him, in the words of the preface, with "a kind of handbook to a subject of growing importance—the so-called 'Celtic Renaissance.'" It aims, in short, to impart some such knowledge of Celtic mythology as most persons of cultivation are supposed to possess of the mythology of Greece and Rome, and so far as the substance of the ancient tales is concerned it accomplishes this purpose satisfactorily. The materials are well compiled, and the stories of gods and heroes are attractively told, often with close adherence to the Welsh and Irish narratives. The book will give a reader who is unacquainted with Celtic literature a good impression of some of its most characteristic features, and it ought to prove a sufficient guide to the mythological allusions in the Anglo-Celtic writers of the recent re-

vival. For the critical interpretation of the documents, however, and for mythological theory in general, Mr. Squire should be followed with caution. His specific errors are perhaps not numerous, though the derivation of "druid" from the same root as the Greek *δρῖς* may be cited as an example of an opinion now generally abandoned. His fault lies rather in the failure—particularly misleading to the uninformed reader—to distinguish with sufficient clearness between fact and theory. We are not sure how far he is himself aware of existing difference of opinion, but he appears to have relied too fully on the utterances of one or two scholars, and not to have read widely outside of them. He draws chiefly, to be sure, upon a scholar of undoubted authority, Professor Rhys of Oxford, and the doctrine he derives from him has become a kind of current orthodoxy. Nevertheless it should be more guardedly stated. Professor Rhys would be the first to admit the large conjectural element in his own theories, both ethnological and mythological. Yet from reading Mr. Squire's chapters on the Welsh and Irish divinities one would hardly suspect that the whole theory of a Celtic pantheon had in recent years been questioned by some of the best Continental scholars. While we agree in this matter rather with Professor Rhys than with his critics, we think that their ease should be stated, or at least their exceptions filed, even in a popular handbook of Celtic mythology.

James Hain Friswell, the essayist, critic, and novelist, was a familiar figure in the literary society of London thirty years ago. His most popular work, "The Gentle Life," a series of essays, "sold like a spelling-book for over thirty years" (to quote Besant). This minor classic was a favorite with the Queen, who wrote to Friswell that she wished his essays could be engraved "in letters of gold." It brought a fortune to his publishers, and to the author less than one hundred pounds. "The Gentle Life" served its turn long since, and has been superseded by other tonic works of the same type. Miss Friswell and her father knew everyone and went out everywhere, so that the reminiscences she now publishes, "In the Sixties and Seventies" (Herbert B. Turner & Co.) could hardly fail to be readable, though the fastidious may find too much autobiography, and nothing strikingly new about the famous men and women who are reviewed. In the present scarcity of personal gossip about Mr. Swinburne, the description of a tea party to which he was entrapped (at the age of twenty-nine) and certain other rather meagre anecdotes related by Miss Friswell will be welcome to many. The Friswells were intimate friends of Sir Richard and Lady Burton. The latter could talk of nothing but "dear Richard and the Government" and the strictness of her husband's private life, in spite of his "polygamous opinions." When Stanley was about to publish "How I Found Livingstone" his publishers sent the MS. to Friswell to revise. It was ungrammatical and ill-spelt, and Friswell handed it over to his daughter, who spent weeks in getting it into shape. All the proofs passed through her hands, and when the book came out "the critics were somewhat surprised at the

clear, concise style in which it was written." Miss Friswell, however, never met Stanley, and he did not know, or at any rate never recognized her share in his book, though his publishers paid her a hundred pounds. In her reminiscences one meets all the famous actors, writers, and artists who figure in the memoirs of that period, and some of the anecdotes which begin to show signs of wear. The contents are not quite worthy of the excellent paper and print of this handsome volume. They would have been more in place in a magazine. This is mainly because there is nothing whatever of political interest, and it is usually their politics that make English memoirs worth reading.

The Monnaie Theatre of Brussels has chosen two novelties for its next opera season: "Salome," by R. Strauss, and "Queen Vahsté," by Emile Matieu.

The Italian librettist Illica and the composer Louis Lombard, formerly of this country, have finished an opera which is to be produced next season.

The Société Musicale in Paris offers a series of prizes. The composer of the best opera will receive \$6,000; for a comic opera \$2,400 is offered; for a ballet \$1,600; for a trio for piano, violin, and cello, \$600; and for a sonata for piano and violin \$400.

During his long life of 101 years Manuel Garcia instructed many pupils who now reside in America. A memoir of the great teacher is being prepared by Mr. Sterling Mackinlay of London, who was for years a pupil of Garcia and who will be grateful for any information likely to be useful.

At the Leipzig Opera, during the past season, eighty-two different operettas and operas were heard. The great German composers were represented by sixty-five performances, of which Wagner had forty-four, Weber ten, Mozart eight, Beethoven three. First performances were given of "Salome," "Feanto Solo," "Wertber," "Enoch Arden," "Die Neugierigen Frauen."

Strauss's opera "Salome" had twenty performances in Dresden during the past season. Mozart's operas were heard twenty-four times, and Wagner is, as usual, far in the lead, with fifty-seven representations. Here, as in other German cities, the doors of the opera house would have to be closed but for the operas of Wagner, of which Mapleson used to say that they "spell ruin."

There still exist antique individuals who hold that the greatest opera composers of Italy and Germany did not know how to write for the voice. Giovanni Sbriglia, the singing teacher, is one of these. He is quoted in the *Étude* as saying that "with the advent of the music of Verdi and Wagner it was no longer necessary to sing, and the artists simply had to declaim over the accompaniment of a large orchestra, so that the beautiful nuances of singing, which were its chief beauty, were impossible for the singer."

It has often been noted that Wagner apparently got the anvil motive in the "Ring" from the scherzo of Schubert's D minor quartet. In volume v. of his "Life of Wagner," Mr. Ashton Ellis points out that Wagner was studying this quartet in connection with a performance of it at Zurich, at the time when he was leading his Wotan

down to Niebelheim. He also points out a resemblance between Mime's so-called "cringing" motive and another passage in the same quartet, which is very likely to be similarly accounted for.

A Viennese journalist, who visited the Johanneum museum in Graz the other day, came across an album which belonged to Anselm Hüttenbrenner. In this there was a lock of Beethoven's hair, and, in Schubert's handwriting, and signed by him, a sentence from Cicero's oration, "Pro Rabirio": "Exiguum nobis vitæ curriculum natura circumscriptit, immensum gloriæ" (Small is the space which nature has measured off for our life, but great the field of fame). At the time when Schubert wrote this he was helping his father teach school.

French critics are anything but pleased with the manner in which singing is taught at the Paris Conservatoire. They accuse the professors of teaching so stilted and unnatural a method that after a year no one but their instructors cares to hear them. In Germany, too, things have come to a sorry pass, according to Lilli Lehmann. The singers, after two years of study, expect to reap a rich harvest, the result being that, after singing a few big rôles, in which they have screamed themselves hoarse, they must resort to fresh-air sanatoriums and throat specialists.

The lion of the past musical season in London was Edvard Grieg, and efforts are being made to have him repeat his visit in the autumn. On his return from London to Copenhagen he was interviewed by a representative of the *Vort Land*, to whom he expressed his regret that in the last few years he had been unable to compose, especially in the larger forms. Ill-health alone had prevented him from completing a quartet and a trio. Once started on a work, Grieg's habit is to finish it at once, and to protect him from the strain which this implies, his medical advisers insisted on his abandoning composition entirely.

A well-known painting by Raphael—the "Madonna of the Tower"—has been presented to the National Gallery, London, by Miss Mackintosh. Since 1856 the picture has been in the possession of the Mackintosh family, having been bought by Mr. R. J. Mackintosh for 480 guineas from the collection of the poet Rogers, who looked upon it as one of his chief treasures. Although the painting had previously formed part of the Orleans collection, it has always been best known as the Rogers Madonna. Crowe & Cavalcaselle write of it: "To the Rogers 'Madonna' we turn as to a lost example of the master. . . . Our memory still clings to this masterpiece as embodying the feelings and tenderness of the Florentine period manifested in the 'Madonna del Gran Duca,' and the 'Virgin of Casa Tempi,' combined with the dignity and elevation that characterize the later 'Madonna del Pesce.'" This "lost example"—lost to the public since 1857—has now come into the possession of the country through the generosity of Miss Mackintosh. It is an example, however, that will appeal more to artists and critics than to the general public, on account of its injured condition. It had the misfortune to fall into the hands of an ignorant restorer, a long time ago, and was clumsily over-cleaned, with the

result that the outlines have lost their sharpness and the details are blurred. As to whether the picture was originally painted on wood or on canvas, there is a difference of opinion; the Orleans gallery catalogue describes it as "peint sur toile," while Crowe and Cavalcaselle believe that it was originally painted on wood and afterwards transferred to canvas. But as marks of the canvas are clearly visible through the paint it would seem as if the Orleans opinion were the correct one. Critics have also differed with regard to the superb cartoon of this picture, purchased a few years ago by the British Museum; the majority think it to be an original work of Raphael, Mr. Berenson standing almost alone in holding the opposite opinion.

TEXT BOOKS.

Mr. R. L. A. Du Pontet, the editor of Cæsar's "Commentaries" in the series of Oxford Classics, has prepared for use in schools, "Selections from Plutarch's Life of Cæsar" (Oxford: Clarendon Press). This attractively printed edition is intended for beginners in Greek who are reading at the same time Cæsar's "Gallic War" and Shakspeare's play. It impresses us as somewhat too difficult for first-year work in Greek, but might well be used in the second year, as a substitute for part of the "Anabasis." We sometimes wonder at educators who regard the "Gallic War" as a dull book; properly presented, with Plutarch and Shakspeare to follow, it ought to mark an epoch in the schoolboy's career. The Clarendon Press issues also an anonymous edition of Plutarch's "Coriolanus," with fairly elaborate notes and a brief and sensible introduction. The book might find a place somewhere in the college curriculum, and has independent value, besides, since annotated editions of Plutarch, compared with translations of his "Lives," are rare.

Of importance for both the classical student and the student of Shakspeare is an edition of Plutarch's "Lives of Coriolanus, Cæsar, Brutus, and Antonius," in the translation of Sir Thomas North, by R. H. Carr. This work, too, comes from the Clarendon Press, printed on poorer paper than we should expect. The volume is designed as an introduction to the complete "Lives" of Plutarch in North's version, which will present for the first time the text of North accompanied by appropriate citation of Shakspeare. The editor conveniently divides Shakspeare's borrowings into two classes, giving mere references to passages which coincide with North in subject matter, but quoting fully those in which his actual language is reproduced. An introduction discusses the translations of North and Amyot and the plays of Shakspeare most intimately related to the "Lives" of Plutarch included in the present volume.

In the Gildersleeve-Lodge Latin Series, J. E. Barss's "Beginning Latin" has recently appeared (University Publishing Company). Mr. Barss would solve the initial problem in the teaching of elementary Latin by building paradigms—presenting together case forms of several declensions, present tenses of all the conjugations, and so on. We do not sympathize with him in this programme, nor in the attempt to

bridge the gap between the first-year book and Cæsar by serving up the latter in a simplified, that is, diluted, form. The book has its good features, however, including well-chosen illustrations and a wide range of subjects in the reading exercises. The Beginner's Book must teach grammar, primarily, and prepare for Cæsar, but it should give the learner, besides, as many glimpses as possible of Roman life.

The latest publications in the series of Greek text books edited under the supervision of Professor Smyth of Harvard (American Book Company) are two scholarly and attractive editions, the one of eight speeches of Lysias, by Prof. C. D. Adams, the other of Thucydides, Books II. and III., by Prof. W. A. Lamberton. The first of these is a welcome supplement to Professor Morgan's excellent edition of Lysias, which presents a somewhat different selection. The new Thucydides, too, while not including the favorite seventh book, brings for the first time within the range of effective classroom work perhaps the highest utterance in all Thucydides—Pericles's Funeral Oration. Another volume in the same series is a helpful "Greek Prose Composition," by C. W. Gleason, intended to accompany the reading of Xenophon's "Anabasis." A more advanced work for use in high schools, issued by the same publishers, is "Elementary Latin Writing," by Clara B. Jordan. We are glad to note in this and other recent text-books in Latin composition a tendency to react from the method of basing exercises on some text, and to train the student from the start to more independent work. The American Book Company has also published in the Morris and Morgan Latin Series, two editions which make a feature of presenting by selections an idea of the whole contents of an author's work or works which are too long for a single volume. While not in sympathy with such a programme, we must acknowledge that, granting its necessity, it is skilfully carried out in the two books before us: "Selections from Livy," by Prof. H. E. Burton, and—an admirable edition—"Cæsar, Episodes from the Gallic and the Civil Wars," by Dr. M. W. Mather.

A pathetic interest attaches to the most recent publication in the *Cornell Studies in Classical Philology* No. XVII, (Macmillan)—a volume entitled "Erichthonius and the Three Daughters of Cecrops," by the late Benjamin Powell. Mr. Powell died a few days before the commencement at which he would have received the degree of Ph.D. from Cornell University, and this is his dissertation. Though not brilliantly original in treatment, and written in an ungainly style too often characteristic of doctors' dissertations, the work has a value. The author considers the source of the legends of Erichthonius in both literature and art, reviewing the interpretation of various modern scholars, and retelling the history of the legends on the basis of the available evidence. In an appendix, he prints *in extenso* the passages cited from ancient authors, and adds a dozen plates illustrating the appearance of the legends in art. He acknowledges special indebtedness to the researches of Miss Harrison, and differs from her chiefly in assuming some Oriental influence on the legend of Erichthonius at an early stage of its history, and in regarding the symbolism of

the snake as primarily sexual. For evidence on the former point, undue attention is paid to a dangerous guide, Robert Brown's "Semitic Influence on Greek Mythology." Several errors in detail call for comment. One of the authors used as a literary source (p. 6) is "Eudocia, the Byzantine writer, in her *Violarium*," whereas it has been known for several decades that the work in question is a compilation of the sixteenth century. Reference is given (p. 5) to the "Narrationes Fabularum" of "Lactantius Placidus, the Scholiast," who is accused of "mixing narratives" and "either writing from memory or from a distorted version of the original story." But any history of Roman literature contains the information that "Lactantius Placidus" is an anonymous prose epitome of Ovid's "Metamorphoses." These are not serious errors, it happens, but we should not expect them in a doctor's dissertation.

Prompted by Prof. Calvin Thomas, Dr. Annina Periam has prepared "Hebbel's Nibelungen: Its Sources, Method, and Style" (The Macmillan Co.). Only recently has Hebbel had admirers and appreciative critics, his "Nibelungen" being one of the few dramatic versions of the saga which has found favor on the stage. Dr. Periam tells of its genesis, Hebbel's conception of his dramatic problem, the legendary sources, Hebbel's relation to Raupach, Fouqué, Geibel, Wagner, and Vischer, his inventions, treatment of woman and religion, and the elements of the mythical and mystical in his work. A bibliography concludes the volume.

The long-established reputation of D. C. Heath & Co. for modern language textbooks is well sustained in their "Deutsches Liederbuch," the best collection of German songs, with music, ever issued in America. The editors are Prof. A. R. Hohlfeld and a committee of the Germanic Society of the University of Wisconsin. The songs are arranged for various voices, and there are introductory notes in German and a biographical index. The same firm has lately issued "Deutsche Reden," including speeches by Bismarck, Bülow, Moltke, Schurz, and Emperor William II., edited by Dr. Rudolf Tombo, Sr., and his son, Professor Tombo, of Columbia.

Probably one of the most enthusiastic students of Heine in America to-day is Carl Edgar Eggert, of the University of Michigan, who has been known to be at work on "Heine's Poems." The volume lies before us (Ginn & Co.), beautiful in fresh typography and containing an autographic portrait. There is a long biographical sketch of Heine, with especial reference to his days in Paris, an analysis of his character and attitude toward religion, and a discussion of his relation to Romanticism. Heine's position in music is also made clear, and there is an extensive bibliography.

A new edition, especially for library reference, of Schiller's "Song of the Bell," translated metrically and accompanied by an historical introduction, a commentary on other translations and a complete bibliography, by Dr. J. Perry Worden, professor of modern languages in Kalamazoo College, is announced from Germany. Besides being a new and closer rendering of the original, the special merit of this first

book ever written on Schiller's most famous poem is a series of illustrations, the largest collection heretofore given in one volume.

An acceptable edition of Ernst von Wildenbruch's "Das edle Blut" has just been published by Holt—the first American edition of the little classic which has passed its sixty thousand copies in Germany. There are notes, vocabulary and prose exercises by Ashley K. Hardy of Dartmouth, and a portrait of the fiery dramatist.

Another writer all too little known in our curricula is Gustav Frenssen, who finds representation at last in "Gravelotte" (chapter xiv. of "Jörn Uhl"), at the hands of Prof. Otto Heller of Washington University (Ginn & Co.).

"Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts," the most popular of Freiherr von Eichendorff's writings, is such delightful autobiography in the lyrical-prose vein, without really reflecting Eichendorff's ideal of life, that still another edition by Dr. George M. Howe of Cornell will be welcomed. (Henry Holt & Co.)

A new contribution to class-room literature, designed to promote conversation and a knowledge of German life, is Thiergen's "Am deutschen Herde," edited by Prof. S. W. Cutting of Chicago (Ginn & Co.). The authors are Dresdeners. An imaginary journey is taken, beginning at New York; Berlin, Dresden, and other cities are visited; the theatre and opera are seen and the tourists pass through all sorts of experiences, even enjoying a Bierkneipe and seeing a duel!

Silver, Burdett & Co. will publish in a few days "Through France and the French Syntax," a composition book on original lines by Prof. Robert L. Sanderson of Yale, and "A Scientific French Reader," by Prof. Harold Francis Dike of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Among the new French texts of the season, issued by D. C. Heath & Co., are a well-annotated edition of Labiche's "La Grammaire" from the pen of Prof. Moritz Levi of Michigan; La Bruyère's "Les Caractères" from Prof. F. M. Warren of Yale, and Taine's "L'Ancien Régime," from Prof. W. F. Giese of Wisconsin. There is also a curious "Méthode Rénin" or first-year French in French, dedicated to Ambassador Jules Jusserand.

The latest French text from Henry Holt & Co. is an edition of Molière's "Tartuffe ou l'Imposteur." Dr. John E. Matzke of Leland Stanford Jr. University, the editor, supplies a good introduction on the origin, spirit, history, and sources of the play, besides discussing the characters in detail. A bibliography adds to the work.

La Fontaine's fables, scattered here and there in French readers, have always proven so readable that Prof. O. B. Super of Dickinson College has been wise in editing "One Hundred Fables" by the same author. (Portrait. Ginn & Co.)

Those who have sought to acquire an acquaintance at first hand with the ancient lyric of Southern France will admit that they have encountered peculiar obstacles in the complex phonological and morphological conditions of the language. To remove these obstacles by bringing order out of a bewildering array of linguistic facts was the task which Professor Grandgent set himself, and it is

simple justice to say that he has achieved it in his admirably compact and lucid grammar, "An Outline of the Phonology and Morphology of Old Provençal" (D. C. Heath & Co.). Being a competent phonetician in the domain of Romance philology, he has been able to explain satisfactorily, in the vast majority of cases, the course of sound change in the development from the Latin word to the form assumed in the conglomerate of dialects in which the poetry of the Troubadours is preserved to us. In this respect, no less than in his full and luminous statement of the morphology of the language, his book marks a decided advance upon the works of Suchter and others.

"The Romances of Chivalry in Italian Verse," compiled by Prof. J. D. M. Ford, of Harvard, and Miss M. A. Ford, is the best volume of specimens of the Italian epics for English readers. The selections have been made with such excellent judgment that by them one can trace (1) the development of the romantic epic as a literary genre; (2) the growth of the Orlando story; (3) the characteristic qualities of Pulci, Bolardo, Berni, Ariosto, and Tasso. There are also fragments of the early "Orlando" and of the "Libro Volgar." Out of about 500 pages of text 225 pages are devoted to the "Orlando Furioso," not a disproportionate share, in view of the superior interest of his epic. The importance of the Italian epic itself, as a high literary product, has never been sufficiently recognized by English-speaking students. Perhaps Professor Ford would have done well, in his introduction, to call more attention to its serviceableness as a vehicle not only for varied narrative, but for satire. Pulci's "Morgante," for instance, serves as a powerful satire on the Roman Church, although Pulci, like Rabelais a generation later, compounded his sarcasm with a farrago of other material. Copious notes and a bibliography add to the usefulness of this well-conceived compilation. (Holt & Co.)

"Comedia Famosa del Esclavo del Demonio compuesta por el doctor Mira de Mesqua," edited with an Introduction and Notes, by M. A. Buchanan, Baltimore. This is a welcome edition of a work by Mira de Amescua, a Spanish playwright of the midpoint of the *siglo de oro*, whose excellence has only in recent times received proper recognition from the historians of literature. In his text Mr. Buchanan follows an edition of Barcelona, 1612 (probably not the first edition), of which a unique copy is preserved in the National Library at Madrid; he has, however, adopted emendations from later editions. His introduction discusses the affiliations of the various editions now discoverable, and examines the hagiology and the different legendary sources of the subject matter of the drama. Because of its connection with the Theophilus, the St. Cyprian, the Faust, and other legends of compacts with the Devil, the Spanish piece merits the attention of the student of the comparative history of literature.

On the basis of his own critical edition of Berceo's "Santo Domingo," already published in the series of the "Bibliothèque de l'École des Hautes Études" at Paris, Dr. J. D. Fitz-Gerald now makes a study of the underlying principles of the verse struc-

ture known as the *cuaderna vía*, an early Spanish arrangement in quatrains of the Alexandrine borrowed from France ("Versification of the Cuaderna vía as found in Berceo's 'Vida de Santo Domingo de Silos.'") The Columbia University Press). His treatise throws light on several metrical problems which, despite the efforts of Baist, Cornu, and Hanssen, have not been settled hitherto. The account which he gives of the possibilities in the way of synalæpha, dialysis, and synzesis is highly commendable, and his recapitulation of the discussion regarding the accent and syllabic value of the diphthong *ie*—a matter but lately agitated by Zauner and Pietsch—is valuable to all engaged in the study of Old Spanish.

The Spanish form of the framework of tales known as the "Seven Sages" (or "Sindibad") is a translation from the Arabic, made about the middle of the thirteenth century by direction of Don Fadrique, brother of King Alfonso el Sabio. It is therefore one of the oldest monuments of Spanish prose, and highly deserving of a good critical edition. In 1869 the eminent folklorist, Comparetti, who has devoted no little attention to the history of the Sindibad legend, published the text in the Appendix to his "Ricerche intorno al Libro di Sindibad." His edition was reproduced by the Folklore Society at London in 1882. Unfortunately, the copy of the Puñonrostro MS. which Comparetti used was imperfectly made, and his text presents many blemishes. On this account, A. Bonilla y San Martín now offers a new edition, which is based directly on the MS., and which appears as Volume XIV. of Foulché-Delbosc's "Bibliotheca Hispanica" ("Libro de los Engaños and los Asayamientos de las Mujeres"). In the main Bonilla has done his task well, yet a comparison with the facsimile of folio 73 recto, which he has prefaced to his text, shows that he has lapsed into a common error of Spanish editors of Old Spanish works, that of failing to distinguish between the *z* and the short cursive *s*; *desir*, *fisiestes*, *fiusa*, etc., have no historical justification, and a mere glance at the facsimile makes it clear that the MS. has *z* in all such cases. Nor is it obvious why, in the title, *asayamientos* is allowed but a single intervocalic *s*, for the Old Spanish spelling was certainly with *ss*. Happily, errors of the kind indicated are not numerous in the edition. In one or two places the text seems to show a lack of sense, due to syntactical irregularities; in the absence of any remark by Bonilla it is to be presumed that the MS. is also at fault. The introduction contains the main facts relative to the sources and the diffusion of the story of the "Seven Sages." The brief Glossary, in spite of a few errors, will be found of material assistance.

The rarity of the chrestomathy of Old Portuguese published twenty-five years ago by Monaci and D'Ovidio has been a source of regret in institutions in which it has been possible to extend Romance studies as far as that language and literature. Now the difficulty of obtaining a suitable manual has been removed by the publication of a selection of early texts by Leite de Vasconcellos, favorably known to Romance philologists as a folklorist and dialectologist,

and as editor of the *Revista Lusitana* ("Textos arcaicos para uso da aula de philologia portuguesa"). The extracts here printed are intended to illustrate the growth of the Portuguese language from its origins down into the sixteenth century. They begin with a few Latin deeds of gift and other legal documents in which stray words of the already emerging vernacular show themselves as early as the ninth century. For the later periods the editor has chosen lyrics found in the song books, such as the "Cancioneiro da Ajuda," the "Cancioneiro do Vaticano," and the "Cancioneiro Colocci-Brancuti." Certain of these poems have already been printed by Professor Lang of Yale in his "Liederbuch des König Denis," and in his "Cancioneiro Gallego-Castelhana," and of Lang's labors Leite de Vasconcellos makes suitable use. For the prose texts he has had recourse largely to important historical works, especially to those contained in the "Portugalia Monumenta Historica"; but the "Leal conselheiro" of Dom Duarte and the "Demanda do Santo Graal" are also represented by brief passages. The latest extract in the book is from the "Auto da Feira" of Gil Vicente. A useful glossary of the more difficult archaic terms closes this timely addition to the number of our Romance manuals.

THOMAS HODGSKIN THE PRECURSOR OF ANARCHISM.

Thomas Hodgskin (1787-1869). Par Elie Halévy. Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Édition.

Who was Thomas Hodgskin?

Probably not one in a hundred of our readers can answer this inquiry. Even the omniscience of the "Dictionary of National Biography" fails to supply the information. Thomas Hodgskin is, in truth, a writer who, though he lived for some eighty-two years, and during fifty labored for the propagation of beliefs which since his time have exercised marked influence, yet was, ten years before his death, forgotten by the men among whom he lived. Nevertheless, he deserves the sort of literary revival which he has received at the hands of Halévy. His claim to reputation consists in this: that his doctrines curiously link the teaching of Bentham with the beliefs of a school in many points opposed to Benthamism, and that, though an author whose works were read by few, and a lecturer who rarely obtained large audiences, he was in some sort the intellectual precursor of modern anarchism.

None but a too ardent admirer will call Hodgskin in strictness original, but he possessed that kind of second-hand originality—if an expression bordering on a bull may be allowed—which a man may attain by following out his own thoughts, whatever their worth, without being overpowered by the authority of received teachers. Hodgskin was guided by two or three convictions which, to use an expression of his own, might be described as "prejudices," if that word be used without any bad connotation. A letter to Francis Place, who encouraged the early steps of Hodgskin's career and introduced him to the utilitarian school, explains the nature of the prejudices on which Hodgskin built up a system of social re-

form. The existing state of society was in his eyes essentially bad, for every man ought to have the wealth produced by his labor; but whilst, according to Hodgskin, all wealth was in reality produced by the working classes, such wealth was in fact almost wholly in the hands of the capitalists or the rich, who were neither directly nor indirectly its producers. The laws of nature, in the second place, if properly understood and followed, were, he was convinced, sufficient to insure the rule of justice and the prosperity of all men, who were not only equal in capacity, but essentially similar to one another. Hence, he further drew the conclusions that there was no limit opposed by nature to human progress and that such progress could be promoted only by the most unlimited extension of individual freedom.

Now if this creed be taken as a whole it is to a certain extent in harmony with, yet at bottom fundamentally opposed to, Benthamism. Hodgskin, with the Benthamites, held that the condition of England stood in need of radical reform. In common with the utilitarians of, say, 1825, he fully believed that reform meant the promotion of individual freedom. No one could subscribe more *ex animo*, to borrow an expression from the history of theological subscription, to the doctrine of *laissez faire*. One's first impression therefore is that Hodgskin was nothing but an individualist whose individualism outran that of Bentham. As a matter of fact, throughout life he fell in, heart and soul, with most of the practical reforms advocated by utilitarians. He was in favor of every restraint placed on the power of Government. He was to his dying day an ardent free-trader. He believed that unlimited competition was the very source of human welfare. He uses expressions which at times almost anticipate the theory of the survival of the fittest. He not only looks, with John Mill, unfavorably on every attempt to influence the course of opinion by Governmental authority, but objects to the Government in any way dealing with national education. But his essential differences from the teachers whose ideas ruled England from 1830 to 1865 could not permanently be concealed. There came a period when no Benthamite could recognize Hodgskin as a coreligionist. He held with Bentham that the laws of England needed reform. But he did not, like Bentham, aim at substituting good laws for bad laws. He advocated measures through which laws themselves should disappear. For to Hodgskin it was not bad laws, but the existence of law, it was not bad government but the existence of government which caused all evils that torment mankind. Hence Hodgskin detested or despised the economical or social teachers to whom Benthamites paid the highest honor. The doctrines of Ricardo and especially his celebrated theory of rent were fallacies constructed in support of that existing state of society which reformers ought to destroy. Malthus taught not the truth but the exact opposite of the truth. For the increase of population was itself the cause of ever increasing prosperity. Malthus, moreover—and this to Hodgskin was his sufficient condemnation—inculcated the idea that nature herself had placed a limit upon the development of human happiness and welfare. Hence Hodgskin, in common with

all the later assailants of Benthamism, turned to the historical method and to the comparative study of society. Nor can any one doubt that in his attempt to argue from historical experience, and in the importance he attached to the comparison of different social conditions, he did anticipate ideas to which the Benthamites were more or less blind. He was in very truth the precursor of anarchism.

How has it come to pass that such a man died forgotten, and that his life's labor missed its mark? This inquiry admits of a distinct answer. Hodgskin was endowed with more than ordinary talent, and with rare tenacity of purpose, but he lacked the capacity, easy to recognize but hard to define, for taking a grip upon his generation. In this he was far inferior, not only to a theorist of original genius, such as Bentham, but even to that singular combination of a dexterous wire-puller and a utilitarian fanatic, Francis Place. The Benthamite tailor was a real power, at any rate in Westminster. Hodgskin had no gift whatever for controlling or guiding the wills of his neighbors. Then, too, the time was unfavorable for his teaching. Between 1830 and 1870 neither English thinkers nor English politicians felt any deep hostility to the ideas which underlie the social condition of England. The world needed not a revolutionist, but a reformer, and Bentham was the ideal reformer. His aims were perfectly clear and they were aims with which the middle classes, and to a great extent the wage-earners, sympathized. He had, moreover, thought out the means by which his ends might be attained. Hodgskin was in some respects a capable critic of utilitarianism. He perceived, for instance, in common with John Austin, that the Benthamites attached too much importance to mere changes in the constitution, and he knew that social evils might be mitigated, but would not be removed, by the transference of political authority from one class to another. But, then, the faith in the benefit to be obtained from constitutional changes was the faith of the day, and the prophet who attacked this creed was not likely to obtain converts. Reactionists indeed, such as Carlyle, who led the crusade against individualism, shared to a certain extent Hodgskin's conviction that even democratic changes would not cure maladies arising from a vicious state of society. But teachers who desired the rule of a despotic hero were even more opposed to Hodgskin than were the utilitarians.

But even had the times been more propitious, Hodgskin's career was from the first predestined to failure. He thought for himself, but he thought wrong. He anticipated ideas, many of them false, which have more power in England at the beginning of the twentieth than they had in the middle of the nineteenth century. He suffered, in common with many rash and half-educated theorists, under a fatal defect: he lacked eye for actual facts, or, in plain terms, that element of common sense without which even a revolutionary thinker can hardly, in England, at least, make his ideas tell upon the world. There are undoubted objections to be brought against Malthusianism; they have been strongly urged by so orthodox an economist as, for example, W. R. Greg. But

Hodgskin was an ineffective critic of Malthusianism because he assailed, not its possible weakness, but its certain strength. He seems to have denied that increase of population could in itself be other than a blessing, and absurdly enough thought he was confuting Malthus when he insisted upon the way in which the pressure of population might increase the inventiveness of mankind. He in reality, though not in form, accused Malthus of overlooking the effect of that struggle for existence whereof Malthus might in a certain sense be called the discoverer. Hodgskin again anticipated some of the criticisms which, whatever their worth, have been passed by later and abler writers on Ricardo's theory of rent. But he also appears to have held that no inferences worthy of consideration could be drawn from the undoubted facts that the earth is of limited size, and that the time would come when, all the most fertile parts being under cultivation, the unfertile remainder would produce less and less in proportion to the labor expended upon it. When at last our prophet proclaimed that the way to deal with crime was to establish perfect individual freedom, and thus somehow put an end to the production of criminals, practical reformers felt that they must part company with a former ally who had himself bidden farewell to common sense.

RECENT FICTION.

The Tides of Barnegat. By F. Hopkinson Smith. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The King's Rerake. By Margaret L. Woods. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Anthony Overman. By Miriam Michelson. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

Mr. Hopkinson Smith has a touch of his own in relation to matters of the coast. There is a beauty of coloring in his beaches, a dash and swirl in his waves, a ruggedness in his life-saving stations, a rough tenderness in his sea folk that bear witness to a sympathy made up equally of æsthetic perceptions and technical familiarity. In his new novel these well-known characteristics are fully evident, grouped upon a background new in many ways. Old seadogs he has given us in great variety of pose and in many phases of trouble, yet here is another Capt. Holt—this time with a wayward son—towering over the scene, and in the end clearing the much-clouded air. The vigorous group of life-savers, if familiar down to their tarpaulins, find work to do that is of a fresh interest. Though there are a saintly girl and an executive doctor as principals, and several neat land portraits in miniature, yet the figures are never quite so welcome as when salted. This gives a thrill to the rescue by the crew; this its charm to the boys' game of pirates on the hull of the stranded sloop. In such scenes Mr. Smith's touch is absolutely firm and workmanlike. In the parts that go to make a novel with a plot and a problem there is less of conviction. He seems to have sent his story ashore with its sea legs on, to lurch about among the conventionalities of fiction. Capt. Holt, for instance, who goes roaring down to the beach to find his son and make him marry

the girl he has wronged, would certainly not have given up so tamely. If we understand the old salt (and it is entirely the author's fault if we do), bread and water or handcuffs would surely have been the captain's mildest arguments. And again, Jane's long self-sacrifice for her sister—a mischievous one as she finally sees—is indeterminate because it is never made quite clear how far she suffers in public opinion. The story goes wider and deeper than any of its predecessors; if with less perfection of construction than the short stories, it is the most ripe of the novels.

"The King's Rerake" combines some of the most agreeable features of novels of various schools. That is to say, it is a story of adventure with almost no bloodshed, of historical episode and manners without affront to history; and, while not chiefly a love story, it contains a love passage of unusual grace. The Irish soldier fighting for Spain is a tempting subject. His capers never show to more brilliant advantage than when projected against the gloomy state and glittering rigidity of the Spain of fiction. And no happier species of a happy genus could have been culled than the episode of Patrick Dillon's expedition into France to rescue and restore Ferdinand VII., imprisoned in the country home of Talleyrand by Napoleon while brother Joseph Bonaparte rocked upon the Spanish throne. The story opens heavily and the reader expects a conventional and elaborated work—like Bunthorne's Jane, not pretty, but massive. But as the plot thickens the touch lightens. Patricio and his young matron friend, Luz, give themselves and their treasure to the restoration, with a fervor of loyalty like nothing so much as the Jacobite passion. The schemes and devices and allies of their invoking are immensely entangling and for the most part unhackneyed. If the narrative paragraphs move ponderously, honorable amends are made in the ingenious conversation. Bourbon sensitiveness might be wounded by the portrait of Ferdinand the Desired, and objectors to toying with history may raise the eyebrow at the close-range picture of Talleyrand. But of such is the *omelette à l'histoire*.

The community, the editorial office, labor, capital, the reformer, the journalist, the "essentially feminine" woman, the doctor, the striker, the scab—is there one word here to hold the tiniest promise of freshness? Yet this is the inventory of the chief contents of "Anthony Overman," one of the most original of recent novels. Other heroes have given themselves over to altruism and to "idealistic schemes" that promise "wholesale redemption from earthly misery"; other heroines, God wot, have sprained their ankles on mountain roads; other journalists striven high and low for copy; other laborers struck. But there is a force in Miss Michelson's book that sets it in a niche of its own. Its characteristic is a determination to see things as they are. The point of view is saliently modern, not boastfully so; felt naturally, not thrust out as a rock of offence. The hero is a renaissance Daniel Deronda, with a modern as well as a racial difference; the heroine a "yellow woman journalist." Such elements must needs strike fire when they meet, and the story deals with their inter-action and final assimilation—say, rather reconciliation—since it is not easy to see

that there was any more community of creed at the end than at first, and speculation wonders what came of it afterwards. The way of the altruist is to talk pages about himself, and Anthony is no exception; but he is a fine embodiment of the passion for doing good and of the suffering over others' pain.

A History of English Prosody. By George Saintsbury. Volume I., from the Origins to Spenser. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2.50.

If the history of writings on English metrics, of English prosodism, so to express it, could be set forth as a drama and the qualities of the writers presented as the persons of the play, this hook would mark the appearance of a new character and the stage-direction would be: "Enter Commonsense." The development of the subject might be more continuous, the arrangement of the material might be improved, much parenthetic matter might be omitted, but altogether what strikes one is the sensibility of the book as a whole. Not merely for enthusiasts on metrics, but for students of literature in general, it is a good augury toward the probable clearing up of this entire blurred and cloudy subject to find Omond's mild fairness and Thomson's telling simplicity followed so soon by this all-pervading common sense. It not only reveals itself in such utterances as "Attention to prosody never harmed or spoiled attention to poetry, except in those made unpoetical from the beginning"; and "One has, while admitting the great stimulating effect of music, to hint or rehint a doubt whether, by itself, it can do much for prosody save suggest"; and again, "You may call a thing an octosyllable or an iambic dimeter or a four-beat verse, but the thing is the same and unmistakable." Mr. Saintsbury leaves it for others to discuss the nature and the basis of English rhythms; he wastes no time in expounding how this and that come to be true, he assumes them true and proceeds. Yet, even in the act of ridding himself of those questions which he regards as "previous" to his investigation, he lets fall fruitful opinions, such as, "In English, accent is a cause of quantity, but not the only cause, and not a stable one." Belief in "the humble virtue of sticking to the facts," the conception that "the Rule comes from the Work, not the Work from the Rule," make themselves felt throughout.

By "English Prosody" Mr. Saintsbury means that of English poetry since 1300. He makes plain his conception of its various origins and of their several contributions to the total result. He says, "Some of the most serious errors which have ever crept into the discussion of English prosody have come from a too obstinate determination to serve that prosody heir, at all costs and at all points, to Anglo-Saxon"; and "The differences of English verse of 1000 and English verse of 1300 are differences of nature and kind; the differences of English verse in 1300 and 1900 are mere differences of practice and accomplishment." On these points he will leave extremists unconvinced, but will appeal to all open-minded readers. Entirely logical is his treatment of his

main task as historian. He is very likely wrong in assuming less difference than phoneticians contend for between Chaucer's pronunciation and Spenser's. Spenser may not have the dominating importance as a metrist which is attributed to him. But without categorical proof Mr. Saintsbury's views on these and other points in the historic sequence of translations are made to appear entirely reasonable.

A history of prosody should be viewed not only as a history but as a contribution to the theory of metrics, and Mr. Saintsbury's contributions, with the reservations noted above, are certainly very considerable. He sets down, in big and black print, definite statements of the main laws of English versification as he conceives them. It is not hedging when he gives the caution: "In order to appreciate the theory of Feet which governs this hook, it is necessary to recognize that the writer does not maintain that they were invariably, or even for the most part, present as such to the mind of the poet. They may have had a potential rather than an actual value: he may have scanned lines not as we scan them, yet in such a way as to justify our scansion." This theory of feet he affirms most explicitly: thus (page 63) "The norm of the line is always a certain number of feet," and "Though the constitution or arrangement of these feet may be uniform, the greatest melody is reached by variation of them." Nor is he absolutely consistent. He expressly states (pp. 48, 49) "English tetrasyllabic feet do not exist at all," and again (page 400) reaffirms this. Some will consider too loose, others too strict, his views on monosyllabic feet in English, for while he admits their existence he limits their occurrence. As to trisyllabic feet he has no doubts. He not only recognizes them as the base of a separate kind of rhythm, but affirms their general, ubiquitous and continual substitution for disyllabic feet in disyllabic rhythms. He anathematizes "the obstinate heresy, finally formulated as orthodox by Byshe, that the syllabic composition of English lines is arithmetically positive and unalterable." He makes this view the kernel of his whole work (pp. 63, 83); reinforces it in various ways, lauding "the blessed trisyllabic swing and swell, the variation and sway on the iambic tramp."

Specialists, editors of critical texts, and original investigators in the non-literary features of the field covered by this volume are likely to dismiss it as amateurish or detest it as irritating. Flouts at them and their kind occur broadcast. These open invectives or sly sneers make nutty reading for any one whose ox is not gored, and where they hit they will smart most because none is without a modicum of truth and sense—as for instance: "Notions as to Middle English grammar, prosody and pronunciation, which have been excogitated by guesswork, or, if that seem too uncivil, by inferential hypothesis."

But, although this book is unlikely to carry with it the established cliques, it is certain to set them reflecting, while for students it will be invaluable. Anyone who has worked over the literature of critical comment on this period knows its lack. The dissertations, treatises, and monographs on Middle English, while painstaking and ac-

curate, weary the most fanatical devotee of the subject and send forth no glint of a ray to allure outsiders. This volume may win even those totally ignorant of it to read the poetry of the time. Nowhere else can a student find such illuminating characterization of the defects of the rhythming of Layamon and his congeners as on pages 53, 76, and 181; nor of the vital excellences of Chaucer's metrizing as on pages 155, 157, and 199; nor of the versing of Lydgate, Occleve, Hawes, and Barclay, as on pages 234-240, 382 and 419, of its differences (page 324) from that of Googe and his kind on the one hand, or on the other (page 306) from that of Wyatt and Surrey.

The most extraordinary thing about this volume is that, unintentionally as it would appear, the author has produced the one English book now existing which is likely to be of real use to those who wish to perfect themselves in the formal side of verse composition. In strong contrast with the vague jargon or positive misinformation of most, if not all, of the manuals on metrics, a neophyte at versification will here find, dropped by the wayside, definite precepts of genuine worth. These occur too frequently to quote, but we may point to this single maxim: "It is a mistake to try to make foot-correspond with the word-division; the best metre is often that which divides the words most."

By no means extinct is the delusion that, however valuable the early poetries may be as sociological or linguistic material, everything, Chaucer excepted, before Tottel's Miscellany is to-day negligible as literature. This volume (quite by the way) will convince the most skeptical that, from its earliest examples, Old and Middle English poetry is full of vital lessons for present and future verse-makers and poets.

But few errors or defects obtrude themselves. Yet there are errors. Mr. Saintsbury placards his determination (pp. 7-10) to miscomprehend Skeat's preface to *Guest*; and, on page 311, oddly calls Wyatt's *Terza Rima* "interlaced heroic couplets." The proof-reading is not impeccable. The parenthesis on page 59 should end with "tydings"; false indentation of the lines mars the printing of the quoted stanza in the note on page 154 and of the first in the note on page 251. On page 262, "44" should be "4.4." The index is not perfect. For instance, one seeks in vain for *Ottava Rima*, and for *Riding Rhyme*.

Zarathushtra, the Achaemenids, and Israel.

By Lawrence Heyworth Mills, Professor of Zend Philology in the University of Oxford. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus.

The connection between Zoroastrianism, the religion of ancient Persia, and that of Israel is interesting, not only to the student of Oriental literatures and religions, but in even greater degree to Christian theologians. To an elucidation of this problem Prof. L. H. Mills of Oxford, an American by birth, offers an important contribution in his present work, which is itself a continuation of his volume on "Zoroaster, Philo, and Israel." Beyond question the leading authority now living on the Gâthas, the oldest hymns of the Iranian faith, Professor Mills devotes to the volume under consideration a wealth of learning and thought. The first half of his book is given to a careful study of

the Old Persian inscriptions as compared with those sections of the Bible concerned with the proclamation of Cyrus for the rebuilding of the Temple at Jerusalem. Here he proves the virtual authenticity of the Old Testament records and their harmony with the Persian inscriptions of Darius, who carried out the religious policy of his predecessor Cyrus. He then proceeds to show the harmony between the Old Persian texts (and, by implication, of II. Chron. xxxvi., Ezra I., and Isa. xliv., xiv.) and the Avesta. He neglects, however, to point out the indebtedness of the phraseology of the Old Persian inscriptions to the Assyrian and Babylonian royal texts, whose influence on the style of the Achaemenians seems to have been far greater than was that of the Avesta. Nevertheless, Professor Mills's book is the best study on the spiritual life of the Achaemenians which has so far been written.

His position on the moot problem whether the Achaemenians were Zoroastrians seems to be the only one tenable with the data at present known to scholars. He grants that in ultimate origin the three religions which he calls "the Vedic, the Zarathushtrian, and the Dacic" were derived from a common Indo-Iranian source. This is perfectly true. And then, with a directness which deserves the highest praise, he writes: "I sincerely hope no serious person will ever suppose that I am aiming at establishing anything like an identity between these two lores [the Old Persian and the Avesta], even though I strive to lessen their divergence, and closely as I may endeavor to explain them as they approach each other in their interior elements and in their historical developments. Upon absolute identity we must not waste a thought."

The second half of the volume is devoted to the Avesta and its influence on the Jews of the Exile. Here Professor Mills wisely stresses the fact that the so-called Younger Avesta, though later in date of composition than the hymns of the Gâthas, really represents a recrudescence of the pre-Gâthic religion of Iran. His provisional conclusion, however, that the Younger Avesta dates in the main between 700 and 500 B. C., seems open to question. Even without emphasizing Iranian tradition, which, at least in its extant documents, is late and suspiciously exact, and which places Zoroaster in the seventh century B. C., it is not necessary to suppose that Herodotus was influenced by the Yashts now in existence. It is not improbable that he may have known the non-Zoroastrian worship of Iran before it had been permeated by the great reformer Zoroaster. This is the more probable if the earliest seat of orthodox Zoroastrianism was at Balkh, as seems to have been the case; for a very considerable lapse of time would

be necessary for the reformed religion to make itself felt in the western parts of Persia known to the father of history.

The final section, which is on the debt of Judaism to the Avesta, is developed almost too slightly. Notwithstanding the writings of Stave, Böklen, and Söderblom, and despite the antiquated treatise of Kohut and the somewhat exaggerated conclusions of Cheyne, one cannot but wish that Professor Mills would complete his trilogy by devoting a separate volume to the debt of Judaism to the Avesta and to the debt of the Avesta to the Semitic world, especially to Babylonia.

In a work so admirable it may seem ungracious to call attention to faults of detail, yet it must be said that the English style of Professor Mills's book is not easy reading. Occasionally, also, there is a statement which is open to question. The name of the river Euphrates (*Ufrānu* in Old Persian) is probably Sumerian and not Iranian in origin, and in spite of the author's elaborate plea, it is hard to see that the phrase "God of heaven" in the decree of Cyrus recorded in the Old Testament necessarily implies that the supreme deity of the Achaemenians was Deva, "he of the shining (sky)."

The Social Ideals of Alfred Tennyson. By William Clark Gordon. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. \$1.50.

As a thesis for the doctorate this essay is an instructive example of the bewildering effect of a study of sociology. Of Dr. Gordon's rather cloudy philosophy it is difficult to give a clear idea. Perhaps it would be better to let the Doctor speak for himself.

The serviceableness of literature to sociology is almost wholly dependent upon the faithfulness of literature to the artistic ideal in the portrayal of life. Mere description of physical conditions and statement of social facts have their value, but it is the psychological elements for which the sociologist looks most eagerly and which he studies with greatest care. He wishes to know of what people have been thinking; what ideas they have cherished for the home and for the Government; how they have regarded woman; what attitude they have taken toward those of different rank and social station; what desires have exercised a controlling influence in the lives of men and women; how the emotional life has expressed itself—all these and a hundred other things of kindred nature are of very great importance to the student of human associations.

This is the kind of thing that he expects of literature. In other words, he looks upon literature as a storehouse of social fact—or, rather, as a reproduction of social conditions, a *milieu* or what not, which the sociologist can study in default of the original. But mark the confusions. Literature does not guarantee the accuracy of its facts—indeed it is not a report at all, but rather

an interpretation; and that interpretation is individualistic, or in other words, is an attempt to choose and arrange facts in such a manner as to bring out their personal significance. Is it, then, the author's subject or his consciousness, which constitutes the social data? But his consciousness is in a measure exceptional, as is also his writing; for you may say that after all it is only the permanent portion of his work, and that of no particular social complexion, which is literature in any just sense. There is Thackeray, for instance; does any one pretend to say that his conception of life is a pattern of the social thought of his time? And it was only the other day that a clever and amusing critic undertook to show that his novels were altogether one-sided and hence false as a sociological document, as no doubt they are, being satire and not *comptes rendus*.

Why, then, should not the sociologist, like the *littérateur* himself, fall back directly upon the indisputable facts, statistics, memoirs, correspondence—there will soon be enough of them—and whatever other sources are to be come at? Here is the curious and original part of Dr. Gordon's notion. He seems to think that it requires the imagination and passion of literary genius to animate such materials sufficiently to make their study a study of life and not of dead lumber. The point is well taken; there is undoubtedly much to be made of literature as a depository of thought, as Dr. Gordon has discovered. What he fails to see is that such a study will be moral, not social; in short, it will not be sociology at all, but criticism. It is the vision of the author which is revealed primarily in his work. But if Dr. Gordon wishes to collect what shadows of social habits, manners, and the like are traceable through that medium, to disentangle the influences of his *milieu* upon the author and the author's reaction upon society, and to call the result sociology; there is no reason that he should not. Every serious man is bound to be thankful for all the information he can get upon life and literature. Only why so much pother about what is after all a very plain and obvious exercise, a mere cataloguing of Tennyson's utterances on such subjects as the family, the state, and the church, woman?

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Day, Holman F. The Rainy Day Railroad War. A. S. Barnes & Co. \$1.
Fogg, Lawrence Daniel. The Asbestos Society of Sinners. Boston: Mayhew Publishing Co. \$1.
Mary Wollstonecraft's Original Stories. With five illustrations by William Blake. With an Introduction by E. V. Lucas. Henry Frowde.
Rāmanāthan, P. The Culture of the Soul Among Western Nations. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Read, Opie. "By the Eternal." Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Taylor, Emerson Gifford. The Upper Hand. A. S. Barnes & Co. \$1.50.
Tuttle, The Right Rev. D. S. Reminiscences of a Missionary Bishop. Thomas Whittaker. \$2 net.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 6, 1906.

The Week.

The President may well take a personal pride in Monday's naval review, for it is largely due to his teachings that the fleet assembled was the most powerful ever gathered for Presidential inspection. Lincoln's fleets were, for their period, as formidable and much larger, but there was no opportunity to have them parade for his pleasure. When the civil war was over, the ships were rapidly dispersed; the ironclads were laid up or sold to foreign nations. Within a few years our coasts were patrolled only by the graceful wooden ships-of-war of the Kearsarge type, until, in the late eighties, the white squadron began to appear. Those Americans who believe, like Mr. Roosevelt, in the Big Stick, will get profound satisfaction out of Monday's proceedings; the ships are admittedly splendid vessels, officered by men of skill and ability, coupled with Yankee ingenuity and determination to succeed. They have been inspired of late years by their successes in the war with Spain, Mr. Roosevelt's incessant preaching of the gospel of "preparedness," and the readiness of Congress to vote large appropriations and increase the naval force from about 8,000 to 33,000 men. For ourselves, we hope that this review marks the climax of our naval war-strength; that henceforward our navy will begin to decline in size by reason of faith in our coast defences, a more pacific policy in Washington, in accord with Secretary Root's South American speeches, and a realization that the duty of the United States is not in the direction of war and great armaments, but of humanity and peace.

The agitation for a reorganization of the Democratic National Committee is based on a clear perception of the present peril of the party. Four of the members of the executive committee, for example, are not even members of the National Committee; they are William F. Sheehan of New York, chairman; August Belmont of New York, James Smith, jr., of New Jersey, and Senator Thomas S. Martin of Virginia, while the remaining three are James M. Guffey of Pennsylvania, John R. McLean of Ohio, and Timothy E. Ryan of Wisconsin. Not one of these men is a truly rational figure; several of them, including Mr. Belmont, by reason of their close affiliations with unpopular corporations, render the whole committee, in the existing state of public opinion, liable to effective attacks. Not only is the membership of the executive committee un-

fortunate, but Thomas Taggart, chairman of the National Committee, is himself alone enough to discredit the whole organization. He was never big enough for the place, even when he was at the height of his Indiana successes. Throughout the Parker campaign, he demonstrated his total unfitness. More recently the revelations as to the gambling carried on at his French Lick and West Baden Hotels and his attempt to cutwit the State of Indiana in its efforts to close up these resorts, have earned him the contempt of honest men the country over. The Democratic press is everywhere demanding his resignation; if the National Committee were really responsive to the feelings of the great mass of Democratic voters, Mr. Taggart could not hold his place a day.

If only as a pledge of better relations with Spain, the reciprocity agreement recently signed at San Sebastian is very welcome. It affects mainly wine, spirits, and their by-products, and admits also American manufacturers to Spain under the minimum tariff. The agreement represents the very small latitude allowed the President by the Dingley act. The question is pertinent if the President may by proclamation reduce the tariff on argols, cream of tartar, painting, statuary, wines and spirits, and no cataclysmic effect upon the national prosperity be observable, why might he not, Congress and the late Mr. Dingley permitting, have knocked a quarter off the iron and steel schedules? Would a similar dealing with the wool duties destroy confidence and bring us to universal bankruptcy? Or, again, if duties may be substantially diminished by Presidential proclamation, and no evil ensue, might they not be modified as much by Congress without precipitating disaster? Of course, we are aware of the awful consequences of "opening the tariff," and yet the evident harmlessness of these small revisions should give courage to all Republicans who sincerely wish better tariff conditions. The trouble is that the party doesn't really want courage; it wants a continuance of the panic fear that makes it impossible to do anything but stand pat with quaking knees.

Such a situation as exists to-day in the New York money market is a disgrace to the community. A 30 per cent. rate for Stock Exchange demand loans, such as prevailed in Wall Street Tuesday, is bad enough in itself; it throws an atmosphere of absurdity around the assertion, lately popular in that quarter, that New York was fast becoming

the "money centre" of the world. Indeed, when one takes into account the immediate and perfectly well-known cause for the violent stringency, one is tempted to ask whether New York's "high finance" is on a much higher plane to-day than it was when Fisk and Gould made history in railway management and the gold market. Three or four weeks ago it was evident to all experienced men that the New York money market was under an abnormal strain, and that only the utmost restraint in taxing loan resources could avoid a serious situation. Unprecedentedly active trade was itself absorbing, through natural channels, an exceptionally large part of the country's free capital. Widespread real estate speculation, always a heavy drain on available resources, had locked up another part. The New York bank position, disclosed by its official statements, was the weakest with which those institutions had entered the active autumn season since the panic of 1893. This was the moment chosen by men in positions of great responsibility to start a stock speculation of a wildness and violence rarely equalled since the mad days of April, 1901. The effect on the money market was inevitable. If the only upshot of this discreditable business were to be the "squeezing" of stock speculators by a 30 or 50 or 100 per cent. money rate, the episode might be dismissed with contempt. Unfortunately, however, the interests at stake are of far greater concern than speculating railway directors or Stock Exchange borrowers. Using, as the promoters of this speculation apparently have done, all available credits, both in New York and London, they have visibly depleted the resources on which legitimate industry was relying—the evidence for which is that merchants' paper also has to pay a higher rate to-day than it has paid at this time of year since 1893.

Addressing the American Bar Association at St. Paul last week, Judge Alton B. Parker deprecated the present flux of special legislation. He called attention to the fact that most *ad hoc* laws were simply a confession that the general statutes applicable in the premises had not been enforced. Frequently the demand for new laws represents only hysterical clamor for a victim. Such legislation corresponds merely to a vague desire to do something exemplary, though existing statutes may provide an adequate remedy. This hand-to-mouth view of the legislative function produces annually in the United States an average of something like 15,000 laws, mostly of a special character. These merely complicate the already difficult task of the courts, and obscure underly-

ing principles of jurisprudence. A remedy for the present hurly-burly implies a change of mind among our lawmakers. Until they approach their duties with something like the judicial spirit, we shall presumably continue to load the legislative blunderbuss with all the legal shards and scraps in sight—in the hope that the explosion may bring somebody down. But Judge Parker finds one available resource in that practice of the British Parliament by which all bills are referred to an expert jurist. This official not only makes himself responsible for the verbal form of the bill, but also reports on its relation to previous legislation. Evidently, a scrutiny of this sort would prove that a large proportion of bills in Congress and the State legislatures are superfluous or actually repugnant to existing laws.

The first business brought before the Interstate Commerce Commission under the new law consists chiefly of old grievances for which shippers were unable to secure relief formerly, and which they bring up again in the hope that the more powerful body may put an end to their difficulties. Of such a nature is the eighteen-year-old complaint of the city of Spokane, Wash., which, although hundreds of miles from the coast, pays a higher rate on shipments from the East than Seattle. The new Rate Commission which the State of Washington created last year has power to lower the rate from Seattle to Spokane—the imaginary “back haul”—but so long as the railroads add this intra-State charge to the inter-State rate from Seattle to the East, the place can never stand on an equality with its coast neighbors. The Spokane case involves the whole principle of water competition, just as other complaints recently filed take in the other fundamental problems of rate-making. But the list of grievances thus far gives little confirmation to the prediction that every through rate would be complained of, and that the Commission would ultimately be forced into a general revision of railroad tariffs.

The most violent negrophobe cannot fault with Booker T. Washington's address before the Negro Business Men's League in Atlanta last week. It must have taken some courage to hold the meeting in that city just now, not only because of Hoke Smith's success in his campaign to disfranchise the colored people, but because of the bitter feeling aroused by five attacks within five weeks upon white women by colored criminals. To this must be added the criminals. Mr. Washington's emphatic and earnest address, largely devoted to the question of negro crime, is a restatement of his previous position. He sees clearly that the negro criminal is the greatest danger confront-

ing his race, and he calls upon all decent people of his color to aid in the punishment of the offenders. But Mr. Washington goes further, pointing out to the whites that they owe it to the colored people to extend to them protection of the law. A recent lynching by a mob of negroes gives edge to his contention that every man, white or black, who takes the law into his own hands is insulting the executive, the lawmaking, and judicial powers of the state.

The Metropolitan Museum has added to its small collection of American sculpture a number of little bronzes by such able contemporaries as Gutzon Borglum, Anna W. Hyatt, A. P. Proctor, Frederick S. Roth, Bessie Potter Vonnoh, and the late Paul Nocquet. This is the earnest, one may infer, of a more liberal and systematic attention to American art. The pieces are mostly of cabinet size, and, frankly, we think this is for Museum purposes a distinct merit. To begin with, the best of our contemporary sculpture, with rare exceptions, is of this sort. Few of our sculptors, even of those who habitually work on a heroic scale, have monumental quality. Moreover, these little exhibits are of a very available sort; they require little space, they quarrel neither with each other nor with the general decorative effect of a gallery; they can readily be withdrawn or stored if a subsequent taste should find them below museum standards. As for the bigger sort of contemporary statuary, one almost dreads to see it come into a museum. It is costly to keep it, and apparently almost impossible to get rid of it when once exhibited. Besides, a great sculptural composition should be, and usually is, made for a given site or position, and accordingly loses something in the artificial lighting and surroundings of a gallery. In building up the contemporary display of American sculpture we are glad that the Museum committee has given the little pieces the preference.

The overwhelming victory of the American boats in the *Sonderklasse* race off Marblehead on Monday seems to be primarily a triumph for our builders and riggers. No doubt, such seamanship as that of Charles Francis Adams, 2d, the skipper of the winning boat Auk, counted for much, but, in an open course and a half gale, that would not explain a lead of more than ten minutes in fifteen miles. In spite of the beating they have had, the German visitors should find comfort in the fact that no one of the three American boats has been clearly the best in the trials. Slightly varying conditions of wind and water make a great difference with these sensitive craft, and though the outlook for the visitors cannot be said to be bright, they

may fairly hope to make a better showing. The series will afford splendid sport, but the boats are so much of a sort—being all fin-keel scows with deep lead—that the races will give no new lesson as to design. That, after all, is a minor matter; the important thing is the opening of cordial relations between American and German sportsmen. From this point of view one is very glad that the North Shore has been chosen as the scene of the international contest. There is no place where the German skippers could get a truer or more favorable impression of American yachtsmen; no place, we believe, where they would receive a hospitality more generous and more discreet.

A combination of concession and recession has occasionally in the past diverted revolutionary activity into peaceful channels; in the case of Russia the formula is probably being applied too late. The scheme for the distribution of the appanage lands would presumably have been welcomed two years ago; today it appears to make little impression. Similarly, before the closing of the universities and higher schools had scattered the natural leaders of revolt throughout the Empire, the policy of proceeding against agrarian agitators through the police might have been effective; to-day wholesale arrests in the provinces will do about as much to avert revolution as a popgun to frighten wolves on the steppes. For a manly attitude towards a desperate undertaking Premier Stolypin deserves all credit. But week by week it becomes more evident that without the Duma nothing can be done. From hated hands favors may indeed be received, but never with contentment; and Russia apparently hates the forces that move the hands of the Czar. But no remedy except that provided by the national assembly is likely even to have a trial. The time has passed when concession can satisfy or recession terrify. It is not even certain that a travelling nation would obey its own parliament; yet that still appears to offer a chance for an orderly solution. Every other way lies anarchy.

The Prussian Minister of the Interior, Gen. von Podbielski, has not yet been forced out of his office by the colonial scandals in which he is involved, but he will be retired, it is understood, as soon as the case of Major Fischer, now under arrest for corruption, is investigated. The Chancellor, Prince von Bülow, has been compelled to return to Berlin to supervise the official housecleaning. The head of the Colonial Office, Prince Hohenlobe, has been accused of taking two salaries; and the revelations as to monopolies granted by his office have now involved the Wörmann steamship line. This com-

pany had invested only about \$250,000 at Swakopmund in boats, lighters, and other plant; yet it made in one year \$325,000 out of the Government merely for landing supplies transported to Southwest Africa in the Government's own ships. Although only about 4,000 tons of supplies could be discharged in Swakopmund every week, the Colonial Office had at times as many as seven or eight steamers in port waiting to unload their cargoes, of which the troops were often in great need. In consequence of this delay the Government had to pay the Wörmanns large sums. Thus the company obtained from the Government a revenue from three different sources: freight rates, landing costs, and penalties for the delayed ships—the latter charge is said to amount to \$750,000 alone. Yet it never occurred to any one in the Colonial Office to hire ships of other lines, to get English vessels, or to send out ships at such intervals that there would be no congestion at their destination.

The present condition of Spanish agriculture is interestingly set forth in the *Temps* by M. de Contenson, French consular agent at Huesca. What the farmer of Spain needs is capital and water. The former requirement is universal and not subject to especial remedy; the second need the State might do much to meet. Travellers over the great central plateau are struck by the arid nature of the country. Water there is in abundance; its ravages are shown in torrent beds and riven hillsides; but, owing to the reckless deforestation of the land in old times, most of it goes to waste. With a fair rainfall and mountain snows to count upon, the storage and distribution of water through irrigation ditches is a simple problem of engineering; the difficulty is economic. M. de Contenson shows that the suspicious Spanish farmer distrusts the irrigation companies. He would rather be sure of his present pitiful gains than seek a larger profit which must be shared with a third party. The result of this feeling, and of the very small return per acre in arid cultivation, has been totally to eliminate the small farmer in many regions. The remedy suggested is such taxation of half-improved farm lands as will force the great proprietors to sell or irrigate their properties. Probably a reform must come through the great landowners; for the peasant, who now sells his olives on the trees for want of cash to have them milled, will be averse to paying a water rate. On the other hand, one can hardly doubt that the ability which has created the great manufacturing interests of Catalonia and Andalusia will sooner or later direct its attention to the waiting soil.

A report of socialistic progress among

the Italian *carabinieri* is disconcerting enough to admirers of that *corps d'élite*. For ordinary police officers to organize and strike is bad enough, but any disloyalty in this superb mounted infantry would soon affect the internal peace of Italy. These sturdy Piedmontese who patrol the country roads in pairs are to the average Italian the very embodiment of law and order. They are a terror to evildoers and a protection to all inoffensive wayfarers. If they are infected by the virus of Socialism, it is hard to see what class can hope to be exempt. Imagine Paris with the Republican Guard on strike; that would be Italy with the *carabinieri* disaffected. One must hope that the alarmist reports are greatly exaggerated, and that the honest faces under the three-cornered hats still look for orders to the Royal House of Savoy, and not to the walking delegates.

The vast differences between labor-unionism in England and the United States are emphasized afresh by the opening meeting in Liverpool last Saturday of the thirty-ninth annual Trades-Union Congress of Great Britain. Several of the delegates are members of the House of Commons, men of national reputation and wide experience in affairs. One of the proposals of the British Congress is that "technical education be an essential part of every child's education, and secured by such an extension of the scholarship system as will place a maintenance scholarship within the reach of every child." This contrasts sharply with the attitude of trades unions which in this country discourage by every possible means technical or trades schools as a supposed menace to organized labor. Some of the proposals of the British Congress, such as old-age pensions, are as radical as unionists in America could wish; but the greater part of the discussions show that the participants are working for the welfare of the nation, and not, like labor "leaders" in the United States, for strengthening the unions by use of the boycott, suppression of apprentices, burdensome levies, and the like. Samuel Gompers and his coterie may well study this English Congress.

Australia threatens to become protectionist with a vengeance. Premier Deakin asks not only that the tariff be put on a virtually prohibitive basis, but that he be granted power to suspend any importation of goods to be sold at less than the local market rates. Under such a law Australian manufacturers might combine to raise prices with impunity, for the competitive article from overseas must always be offered at even price, on pain of exclusion from Australian ports. The sentiment which the Premier voices is for keeping out all

manufactures, British or otherwise. Bills to this effect, it is believed, may pass the Parliament of the Commonwealth at the approaching session. In the farming and grazing districts, which will be cruelly mulcted by the proposed tariff, there is naturally much discontent, but so far it has not crystallized into an effective opposition. The manufacturing interests retain control of the political machine. Such an Australian adventure in protectionism would be a death-blow to the moribund cause of Imperial reciprocity. Canada, too, is likely to revise her tariffs upwards without further concessions to Great Britain. One must regret the general reactionary drift towards mediæval notions of trade and revenue, but there is at least a certain poetical justice in the undoing of Mr. Chamberlain and his designs, by the very spirits he has conjured from the depths of national selfishness.

The cottage in which, according to tradition, John Bunyan was born, at Elstow, is reported to be much dilapidated, and a writer to a London paper suggests that it be purchased by the nation and preserved. The building is a typical little English cottage, a picture of which is printed in some lives of Bunyan. In a memoir of Bunyan written as long ago as 1839 the Rev. Henry Stebbing complained that "the present occupants seem no more interested about Bunyan than are any other of the villagers; they have no story to tell, no fancy or vision to describe with reverent look; and the stranger is allowed to leave the cottage without having received the least encouragement to guess in which room Bunyan was born, or on which side of the fire he used to sit, or whether there be a tree of any kind reported to be planted by his hand." This indifference to the fame of the preacher-tinker is, we fear, spreading. "Pilgrim's Progress" is not thumbed by the children of to-day so diligently as by those of a generation or two ago. In many families there is less distinct religious life, and the old line between "Sunday" reading and that which is appropriate for week days is rapidly fading. In this liberal era the refined humor of "Buster Brown" and the "Katz-enjammer Kids" is left to do the work once performed by Christian, Great-heart, and Mr. Valiant-for-Truth. If ever we fall back into that stage of unsophisticated piety which makes it seem worth while for a man to glance at the pages of a good book at least once a week, "Pilgrim's Progress" must resume its primacy in Sunday reading. In the meantime many persons with memory of happy Sunday afternoons spent on the road to the Celestial City must be ready to subscribe for the preservation of Bunyan's birthplace,

MR. BRYAN, 1896-1906.

Everybody knows what was thought of Mr. Bryan when he came to New York in 1896. What has happened to make the great difference in his reception last Thursday? What changes in the political world, or in him, account for it? Wherein is he the same as he was ten years ago, and wherein altered?

Mr. Bryan is the same in being a very taking popular orator. He was that in 1896. His cause was bad, but his speaking was plausible and even persuasive. He probably can never reach the highest flights or satisfy the most exacting taste; but as a man able to appeal broadly to the masses, to impress his hearers with his own earnestness and honesty, and to clothe his thoughts in simple and direct English, it would be hard to name his equal. Popular oratory of that kind is still a political power. Unchanged, except as years have heightened it, is also Mr. Bryan's ability to identify himself with the aspirations and strivings of the vast working and middle classes. Many in the East laugh at his being called "The Great Commoner," but the phrase represents a tremendous political fact. Mr. Bryan is held by the rank and file of his party, and in general by the common people, in an admiring and affectionate regard which recalls the fondest traditions of Henry Clay. Time and again has Mr. Bryan demonstrated his power. Never was it more conspicuous than in 1904, the year of the seeming triumph of his opponents within the Democratic party. They had the Convention at St. Louis, yet he was its dominating figure. And his campaigning later was, as Judge Parker himself acknowledged, the most vitalizing that was done. No one can keep at all in touch with men—can see Mr. Bryan's portrait still kept in the home of the workingman alongside that of the Pope—and not have the truth beaten in upon him that this self-made man is preëminently a man of the people, knowing instinctively the way to their hearts.

While admitting these great qualities in Mr. Bryan, with his exceedingly amiable and even engaging personality, it remains for prudent men to ask if there is any sign that he has mastered his notable defects. It is confidently said that he has "grown." But we must await the evidence that he has grown away from the ingrained habit of his mind. It was that which frightened staid citizens in 1896 and 1900? What we mean is Mr. Bryan's way of catching up some issue which is clamorous and seems popular, not taking time to look into it thoroughly, but committing himself on it deeply and pressing it in vehement and even inflammatory speech. That was the essential vice of his attitude on the silver question; and it is a vice which he exhibited in his speech last

week in Madison Square Garden. There he gave an exhibition both of his skill as an orator and of his defects as a statesman.

If on that occasion his aim was to drive hard at his political opponents, while making it difficult for them to strike back at him effectively, he had much success. The reason is that he has an almost invincible argument *ex concessis*. "You admit," he says, "that I was right in demanding, when your party was silent about it, Government rate-making on the railroads. You admit that I was right in calling for a Federal license for corporations doing an interstate business. That plan has since been urged by your own Administration. You admit that I was right in advocating the stern application of the full power of the Government to the restraint of Trusts. You admit that I was right when I cried, 'Plutocracy, there is the enemy.' Your own President has been forced to advocate the 'curbing' of great wealth. But if all these policies are the true ones for the country, I and my party, not you and yours, are the fit agents to execute them. Look at the way your well-meaning President is hampered in his radicalism! The corporations and the interests, with their grip upon the Republican party, are too powerful for him. Let the people give the Democrats power, and, with myself in the White House, the country will get the Simon-pure and thoroughgoing radicalism of which Republicans can give only meagre and disappointing imitations." That argument is extremely awkward to answer.

But as a constructive statesman the new Bryan has the chief fault of the old. He is provocative, not to say inflammatory, but wholly vague. He rouses passions without directing them. He puts forth a tremendous scheme, without showing any sign of having thought it through, and without indicating a single detail. He is in a great state of excitement about plutocracy, but just how he is to put a hook in its snout, one reads his speech in vain to discover. And as for his plan of Government ownership of all the trunk lines, with the States to own the railroads wholly within their own borders, he jauntily projects it before the crowd without giving a hint how the immensely difficult problems of management and financing are to be solved. How the properties are to be bought in, how the \$13,000,000,000 of money is to be raised—those are "mere details" which do not exist for this grandiose political thinker.

This fault in a leader of the people is fatal. Flights of oratory, ardent hopes, glowing aspirations, millennial dreams—these are all very well, but a real statesman will not attempt to dazzle men with them until he is prepared to produce the necessary Constitutional amendment, the required draft of a stat-

ute, the project of taxation needful, the inexorable financial balance-sheet. Here Bryan still falls far short of the definition of a statesman. He is, indeed, Burke's "man full of warm, speculative benevolence," who wishes "his society otherwise constituted than he finds it"; but is he not open to the charge of "considering his country as nothing but *carte blanche* upon which he may scribble whatever he pleases," and of neglecting "the existing materials of his country"? If he is, then our judgment of his vague proposals can scarcely be other than that they are "vulgar in the conception, perilous in the execution."

JOHN BROWN FIFTY YEARS AFTER OSAWATOMIE.

Kansas has just celebrated, with the aid of the Vice-President of the United States, the semi-centennial of the "battle" at Osawatomie, Kansas. This was a fight between the Free-Soilers, led by John Brown, and a force of pro-slavery raiders variously estimated at between 400 and 1,100 men. It resulted in the defeat of Brown after he had killed 31 of the enemy and wounded between 40 and 50. Among his own killed was his son Frederick, who, though not attached to Brown's fighting column, and offering no resistance, was shot dead by the pro-slavery scouts. It was, in brief, one of many collisions in a purely guerrilla warfare. The leader of the Free-Soilers was a man who shed blood ruthlessly, and who perished on the scaffold for the crime of inciting slaves to insurrection, for treason, and for murder; yet John Brown and his defeated followers are honored as men who performed noble and patriotic service.

According to those who took part in the Kansas celebration, Osawatomie was one of the world's important battles which brought Appomattox in its train as surely as Yorktown followed Bunker Hill. Indeed, since 1877, a marble monument has stood at Osawatomie in "commemoration of the heroism of Capt. John Brown, who commanded at the battle of Osawatomie, August 30, 1856, who died and conquered American slavery at Charlestown, Va., December 2, 1859." To this Kansas battlefield is thus assigned an importance hitherto awarded by some historians to Harper's Ferry. It was from the latter that, in the popular estimation of the time, his soul went marching on to quicken the hosts that destroyed the Confederacy. To Brown himself is given a rôle which plainly cannot be assigned to any man—not even to Lincoln—and does manifest injustice to heroic Abolitionists who fought the battle for human freedom, by peaceful means, years before John Brown appeared upon the scene. In this connection it is a curious fact that of the prominent Abolitionists, only two perished by violence, and these, John Brown and

Elijah Lovejoy, invited their fate by resorting to arms.

As for Brown himself, however great his influence in bringing on the civil war, the latest historians are not ready to concede that his services to Kansas itself were of the highest importance. Thus, James Ford Rhodes declares with "great positiveness" that "he has been called the liberator of Kansas, but it may be safely affirmed that Kansas would have become a free State in much the same manner and about the same time that it actually did, had John Brown never appeared on the scene." Professor Spring, in his story of Kansas, affirms that "John Brown is a parenthesis in the history of Kansas," and a similar view is taken by Charles Robinson, in his "Kansas Conflict." Indeed, to Mr. Rhodes, as to others, the massacre at Pottawatomie is far more important historically than the skirmish at Osawatomie, and of Brown's blood-guilt on that occasion there can be no doubt. When his own son asked him if he had anything to do with that bloody affair, Brown replied: "I approved of it." His son answered: "Whoever did it, the act was uncalled for and wicked." The father then responded. "God is my judge. The people of Kansas will yet justify my course." As a matter of fact, he gave the signal, and his followers committed the murders. The celebration must not be regarded as a commemoration of this massacre; perhaps it is to throw Pottawatomie further and further into the background that Osawatomie is acclaimed.

And yet Brown had noble traits enough to stand forever a great figure in American history. To him the killing that he did was not murder, but merely "the execution of a decree of God." As in the case of the Russian revolutionists of today, the horrors and wrongs he witnessed were beyond his power to endure peacefully. As they have turned to the bomb, so he assailed the slave power practically single-handed; a puny David who was crushed by the Goliath he assailed, he yet began the violent destruction of his enemy. To our minds, the Russian terrorists are more nearly justified, since peaceful agitation is denied them; nevertheless, no one can doubt the sincerity or the religious earnestness of Brown, or his belief in his inspiration from on high. His was an Old Testament figure, and even the leader of the non-resident Abolitionists was compelled to say, on the day John Brown was hanged, that slave insurrections such as that at Harper's Ferry were a "positive moral force."

Emphasis may most fitly be laid upon the courage and nobility displayed by Brown between his capture and his execution. Here he proved himself the moral hero in every sense—calm, dignified, and ready for death. As Frederick

Trevor Hill has recently pointed out in *Harper's Magazine*, there came to him during his imprisonment a prophetic realization of what his death on the "glorious gallows" would mean to his cause. "I feel," he wrote, "just as content to die for God's eternal truth on the scaffold as in any other way." Hence the one bitter moment of his trial was when an effort was made to question his sanity. This he indignantly checked himself. From that time on he was buoyed up by a wonderful serenity, an elevation of spirit due partly to his being without consciousness of guilt, partly to his ready submission to the inevitable. "My mind is very tranquil; I may say joyous," was one of his last messages. Unquestionably, his bearing at this crisis has done much to make people forgive his attempt to right wrong conditions by the un-American method of invasion and force. This forgiveness is one explanation of the celebration in Kansas. Another is that people in the North still reverence the men who freed the South from slavery and still cling to their ideals of equality before the law and at the ballot-box.

BANK PRESIDENTS, DIRECTORS, AND PROMOTERS.

Few elements in the tragedy of commercial foul play seem to be lacking in the affair of the Real Estate Trust Company of Philadelphia. The president—a man of unchallenged repute in religious, charitable, and financial circles, for all of which he was a trustee to large amounts—dies suddenly. Examination of the bank accounts discloses practically worthless collateral for much more than half of the institution's loans. The company's doors are closed, and further inquiry shows that the president died by his own hand. The story is the familiar and sordid narrative of the speculating trustee in a market which is "certain to go on rising." No one need be surprised that in this Philadelphia episode, as in the Stensland affair of a month ago, it is real estate speculation which has done the business. The "realty boom" has cut a figure, these past few months, more sensational, perhaps, even than the stock market demonstrations.

The incident forces upon the public several serious warnings. The most obvious is that the consummate swindler is apt to cloak himself in religious pretence. Mr. Hipple was so scrupulous in the performance of his religious duties. Even in minutiae like abstention from tobacco and the Sunday newspaper, he was such a model to the young. "Why," says an inconsolable Presbyterian, "it's enough to break down faith in human nature!" But faith in human nature ought to go with some knowledge of it; and no fact of it is better established than that hypocritical religiosity is the

final touch of imposture. Faith in human nature is a fine thing, and regular attendance at church is excellent; but in the banking business we cannot get on without inspection that inspects and direction that directs. Without them, snivelling hypocrites will go on, for a pretence, making long prayers in order that they may the more easily devour widows' houses.

This shortcoming of the directors is the second point to be noted. In the Philadelphia case the directors had not met for over two years. Hipple was thus unfairly subjected to the sorest temptation. There are financiers, we are willing to believe, able and upright enough to manage a banking institution single-handed; but it is evident, first, that no honest man would desire so invidious a responsibility, and, next, that nobody should be exposed to that kind of moral hazard. Hipple is dead and beyond reach of the law, but his derelict directors are alive, and are responsible for the losses. We have had occasion to note the desirability of imprisoning crooked officers and directors when the law permits; for holding negligent officers financially responsible, the argument is irresistible. It is high time that a directorship should be regarded as a serious trust, and not merely as a ribbon to stick in the coat of dabblers in high finance.

To this phase of the matter we called attention on the occasion of the recent and equally disgraceful Milwaukee Avenue Bank failure at Chicago. Stensland abstracted the money by the clumsy device of making loans to fictitious persons, and pocketing the proceeds. A clerk at the ledger ought to have seen through this shallow trick, let alone a board of directors or a bank examiner. Hipple's plan for making away with the funds was to shift the collateral from one account to another, to make it appear that certain accounts, with no collateral at all behind them, were properly secured. The very fact that such substitution has been possible proves that directors and bank examiners should inquire sharply into the personality of the borrower and the projects for which money is used. About half of the Real Estate Trust Company's loans were made to one individual, and he a notorious speculator and promoter. The directors were men of business experience; all of them may be presumed to have known of Segal and his exploits. Under such conditions the published explanation that the borrower exercised a "hypnotic influence" on the president is pitifully weak. The true explanation is that these directors were either shirks or fellow-criminals.

The theory of the "hypnotic promoter" who is able to lead veteran bank presidents by the nose, calls for animadversion. We must confess to entire disbe-

lief in it, except as it means that men like Hipple have had their brains so turned by the speculative mania that they are easy victims to smooth-tongued adventurers. There has probably never been a time—certainly not since the great "land crazes" of 1856 and 1872—when promoters of this sort were so numerous, and, apparently, so successful. Bank officers throughout the country are besieged to lend money, directly or indirectly, to such enterprises. But for this purpose no banking institution has the right to lend a dollar. The bank officer who does so is simply committing his unsuspecting depositors to a plunge into real estate speculation. The bank director who permits, and the bank examiner who overlooks, any practice of the sort is guilty of gross betrayal of trust.

CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN'S SUCCESS

The death of Lady Campbell-Bannerman, terminating a happy marriage of forty-six years, will call forth deep sympathy for the English Premier, not only in England, but abroad, where his earnest efforts for international peace have won proper appreciation. On the Continent the rank of a broad and able statesman has been more readily assigned to Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman than at home. There people admired him because he looked the typical English gentleman, a refined John Bull, with much of that personage's weight and color, and because he was such a good fighter. Through all the dark days of the Boer war, when his party seemed hopelessly discredited and out of sympathy with the masses, Sir Henry stuck to his unpleasant task of leading the Opposition. This he did manfully and vigorously, undeterred by charges that he was a "Little Englander" and that he sympathized with his country's enemies. One of the very first signs of a change in public opinion towards the Conservatives was the sudden popularity of Campbell-Bannerman. This Sir Alfred Harmsworth discovered when he inquired of his agents throughout the kingdom how the political policy of his papers was liked. The answer came back promptly: "It won't do to be too hard on C.B. He's getting popular."

When it became evident that the Conservatives could no longer remain in power, "C.B.," by general consent, was looked to as the next Prime Minister. But even in his own party the reasons given were not always complimentary. Sir Henry, it was said, had earned the honor by his hard fighting; it was to be a recompense for brave service in the hour of need, rather than the reward of statesmanship. It was even openly hinted that after he had held the place for a session he would be transferred to the House of Lords to make room for a really constructive leader.

Naturally, these insinuations greatly pleased the Conservatives. They had confidently informed the country that constructive statesmanship was an exclusive asset of their party; moreover, they were quite convinced that Campbell-Bannerman had no gift whatever for leadership. Just contrast, they said, his plain, uninspired utterances with the graceful, clever, and even brilliant speeches of Arthur Balfour. The Liberals had no leader, and if they got a big majority it would collapse for lack of coherence and direction.

Lady Campbell-Bannerman lived long enough to see this idle talk wholly dissipated. Friends and enemies alike discovered that the new Prime Minister had a genius for leadership; that he was able to control his varied following with what a shrewd English observer calls "his most admirable characteristics," serenity and composure. The gossip about his going to the House of Lords died out. After Parliament had been in session two months it was admitted that if anything should happen to Campbell-Bannerman there was no one who could quite fill his place. For the position is difficult; a large majority is far more trying than a small homogeneous one. This particular majority would have called forth all of Gladstone's great qualities of leadership. There are, for instance, the Irish, the Labor members, and what may be called radical Liberals; on the Education bill the Irish broke away entirely, and a large number of Liberals, more than were brought out by any one vote, chafed under the bill as a weak compromise and longed to separate Church and State at one blow. Nevertheless, on the final vote, after months of discussion and opportunity for friction, the Prime Minister's majority was 192. Again, on the vexed question of Chinese labor in South Africa, there has been a marked divergence of opinion among the Premier's supporters, both in Parliament and in the press. Yet Sir Henry was able to keep his followers in hand, and, after six months, the party tie is as strong as it has been at any time during the last twenty years; while, except from Mr. Chamberlain, all talk of the Administration's collapsing in a year or two is at an end.

During all this time Campbell-Bannerman's followers, particularly the younger members of Parliament, have become more and more attached to the man himself. His straight-forwardness is a lesson to shuffling politicians the world over. Several members of his Cabinet, Mr. Bryce, Mr. Asquith, and Lord Crewe, are bitterly opposed to woman's suffrage; that did not keep Campbell-Bannerman from stating to the suffragists that he was a convert to their cause, and bidding them wait in patience for the victory which is sure to be theirs. Prime ministers rarely

make such frank expressions of merely personal convictions, and it would have been easy for Campbell-Bannerman to have avoided the issue. Similarly, his stand on other questions is known to all, in striking contrast with the evasions of Mr. Balfour on the tariff issue. Nor has Campbell-Bannerman lost any of his aggressiveness, now that he sits on the Treasury bench instead of in opposition. The warmth and vigor of his replies to Balfour, whom he only recently denounced in round terms for making the "most discreditable speech" he had ever heard in Parliament, have naturally had their effect in inspiring the young men who have been accused to lie down under Mr. Balfour's occasional insolences.

In its first six months the Campbell-Bannerman Government has undeniably accomplished much, even though its most important measures, the Aliens bill, the Education bill, and others, are still in the hands of the Lords. The Government has learned to map out a firm line for itself, and to stick to it. Its foreign policy has pleased Conservatives and Liberals; and its plan for army reform, however much it may be attacked in detail, is plainly along the right lines. Turning to the navy, it has shown its willingness to limit construction; in India its policy is one of reform and of home rule. For its general attitude of peace and good-will towards other nations, credit must largely be given to Campbell-Bannerman. Hence every one must rejoice that the Prime Minister is at length receiving due credit as a statesman, a scholar, and a popular leader.

WERE THE NEW SPELLING GOES.

The press, especially in England, has displayed surprising heat over President Roosevelt's adoption of spelling reform. It seems to be the idea abroad that from this hour every American child is to be taught the new style; that every printing office throughout—or "thruout"—the country will laboriously adapt itself to the Carnegie Board's dicta. "It is rather odd," says the London *Speaker*, "that the American system of government should lend itself to small monstrosities of tyranny that would never be tolerated in Russia or China." In the same tone the *St. James's Gazette* asks: "Could the Czar venture to do such a thing, or even the Kaiser?" Probably not; but it can do no harm to pause long enough to consider just what "such a thing" is, and what are its implications.

Grant that the new spellings appear in the bulk of the Government publications. Now, the Government Printing Office is the largest establishment in the world. Its output is widely circulated gratis, or at nominal prices. Seemingly, this vast number of books and

pamphlets ought to leaven a large lump of unregenerate national literature. Yet there is one peculiarity about Government publications which makes them an almost negligible factor in the fixing of orthography. People do not read them at first hand. Let any one of us consider how many pages of Government print he has ever actually read. Some people religiously go through the President's message every year, but they read it in the newspapers. This year a few newspapers will print the message as it is spelled, in order to show their readers what it looks like; but when the novelty has worn off the newspapers will treat the President's utterances as they treat all other contributions and dispatches—follow the office "style card." Exactly the same thing will be done with reports of Cabinet officers. So far as the general public is concerned, it would not matter much if they were sent out originally in runes, or "New York point" for the blind, or the Morse telegraph alphabet. The newspapers would translate them, and not one American in a thousand would ever know what the original spelling and capitals were. The "Statistical Abstract," which is a generally consulted reference book, is composed mainly of numerals which no one wants to reform. The *Congressional Record* has readers, of course, among curious constituents and those personally interested in legislation. Yet even supposing that everybody who gets a copy reads it—a somewhat daring assumption—it would still reach no more people than the *Courrier des Etats Unis* or the *Clipper*. No one would suggest that the use of reformed spelling in *The Foolish Book* would be a potent way of spreading it, yet that periodical goes to nearly twice as many people as the *Congressional Record*. Moreover, Congress has not yet voted to make the *Record* conform to the President's order for publications of executive departments.

Nevertheless, there are Government books which are read, so to speak, in their own right. Nearly all of them are publications of the Department of Agriculture. The report of the Superintendent of Documents shows that the Department year-book leads all others in favor. Then follow the "Special Report on Diseases of the Horse," the "Special Report on Diseases of Cattle," "Bulletin on the Honey Bee," "Bulletin on Chemical Composition of American Food Materials," and so on. Here is the field in which—if the Secretary of Agriculture so wills it—Presidential spelling may have most sway. The farmer's natural inclination toward phonetic spelling has for many generations been a cause for mirth. Whenever he reads about anthrax and ring-bone and the ginseng plant, and the way to make bread and the way to exterminate cabbage rot, and—as we were tempted to say—"whether pigs have

wings," he will rise up and bless the President who brings the mysteries of spelling right down to the soil.

Our Government has had one practical experience in a tussle with language. The Board of Geographic Names has for many years been making lists of approved spellings and pronunciations for the names of places. It has done great service in securing uniformity and correcting preposterous usages. But it has never been able to enforce its ideas a foot beyond the line marked by regular custom. In many foreign instances it has announced preferences for names supported by arguments of analogy, etymology, and history. But it has not brought them into use outside the publications which are under obligations to accept its findings. There is no reason for expecting a different outcome in the contest over a broader issue.

In short, an analysis of the scope of the President's order merely confirms what various critics had already said would, on general principles, be the progress of spelling reform. A new spelling will be tolerable only if it is promulgated under weighty literary or academic auspices. For example, the reformed spelling of German gained its partial victory because a number of academic periodicals simultaneously agreed upon its adoption. If the British and American quarterlies and three or four great London publishers can be converted, a real start will have been made. Without such backing, newspapers will be exceedingly reluctant to adopt it because they will see no advantage in irritating and alienating readers. Thus most people will rarely see a page a year in the "new style" unless they go out of their way to observe it as a curiosity. The wonderful "model" which, with the Government imprimatur, was to change all our spelling, will really be before the eyes of few except Government employees. The President's adherence to the movement will advertise it, and, so far as advertising can help, will help it. But spelling and grammar and the meanings of words are fixed, not by the edicts of Presidents or even of dictionary-makers, but by the slowly but steadily changing common consent of all who use the language.

ART LIBRARIES.

The report of the librarian of Columbia University contains the interesting announcement of an intention to build up a department of fine arts. Edward R. Smith, in charge of the Avery Architectural Library, declares that since Columbia is to have an art faculty and to be the centre of art study, the need of an appropriate library is pressing. He makes an appeal for a sufficient endowment for this purpose, since the general funds do not suffice, and it is un-

dignified to beg from pocket to pocket. With his plan we are in complete sympathy, though the matter of parallel enterprises, dismissed summarily by Mr. Smith, deserves a certain consideration. And it cannot be held that the appeal is premature, even if the art faculty of Columbia is still largely on paper; for the library must precede the professor; without it his work is vain, without him it may do useful service. Furthermore, to build up such a collection of books is in some ways more of a task than to recruit a teaching force; hence the mooted of this project is wholly in order.

Several institutions are, it is true, pursuing a parallel and possibly competitive course. The Public Library has a large general collection of art books, not to mention the fine collection of modern etchings, given by the late Samuel P. Avery, and a small but choice collection of Japanese color prints and illustrated books. Mr. Weitenkampf, the curator of the print-room, has also begun collecting all manner of facsimiles of paintings, is exhibiting an important loan collection of photographs of Italian paintings, and means to expand this reference library of facsimiles as fast as funds are provided. The Metropolitan Museum, primarily for the use of its staff, but also for public service, has brought together an art library of more than 10,000 volumes, and this autumn makes a beginning upon a comprehensive collection of photographs of paintings. The Cooper Union, besides a general collection of books, has a remarkable array of albums running into the thousands, in which all manner of prints illustrating the industrial arts are systematically classified. Clearly, if the Columbia Library is to extend its scope to include all the arts, it must in a large degree duplicate the work of three existing libraries. One naturally asks, then, if, by some measure of co-operation and division of labor, this overlapping could not be avoided.

In the main, probably, each library must run its own course. The Public Library evidently must continue to seek completeness in this as in all other departments; the Metropolitan Museum, the best provided, financially, of all, cannot well abridge its plans; the Cooper Union has its work in the arts and crafts inexorably laid out. In other words, any adjustment must come chiefly from Columbia, whose art library is yet to make. The problem of articulating its new facilities with those in other parts of the city will tax the ingenuity of its library staff, and perhaps bewilder its readers. Possibly, Mr. Smith's plan of frankly disregarding the other libraries may in the end prove the simplest. Obviously, the professors of the university schools of art will need a working library on the spot, and between a working and a compre-

hensive collection it is difficult to draw the line. At certain points, however, Columbia might do well to depend on the other libraries.

For example, the print-room of the Public Library has got such a start that an attempt to rival it would be unfortunate. A donor with fine prints to put at the disposal of the public would be foolish to give them elsewhere. Similarly, the assembling of photographs of paintings is so obviously a necessity of the Metropolitan Museum that students will naturally look to it for aid in that regard. We are, however, ready to believe that select collections of photographs, both at the Public Library and at Columbia, might also perform a useful educational and pedagogical function. It is clear also that, provided the money were given for the purpose and not withdrawn from other projects, sheer duplication would to a certain extent be no disadvantage, but rather a benefit. Yet three such complete collections would surely be in the nature of a luxury. Generally speaking, no librarian should be at pains, perhaps at the sacrifice of other activities, to repeat a work already satisfactorily done by a colleague.

In the whole matter of studying art history Columbia will undoubtedly find that the Metropolitan Museum is its best auxiliary. Lecture courses of a general sort will naturally be given at the university itself, and books and illustrative materials for such courses, besides the working facilities we have already mentioned, must be provided on the spot. But the art faculty will, we believe, find that research courses can best be conducted in connection with the Metropolitan Museum, and perhaps actually under its roof. There is already a sufficient community of interest between the Museum and the University to make such an arrangement feasible, and as the staff of the Museum is increased and strengthened, Columbia will naturally draw on that supply for her lecturers. If Columbia finds an æsthetic Carnegie who insists on setting up a comprehensive art library, a print and photograph department, and a lantern-slide laboratory, nobody can blame her for accepting the offer. But for immediate and practical purposes it seems that both the Metropolitan Museum and the Public Library should be reckoned among academic facilities for the study of the history of art.

THE CURRICULUM FOR GIRLS.

To temper the wind to the shorn lamb seems to be the desire of most people who are concerned about the education of girls. But lambs have a habit of growing out of a tender and protected youth into an age which is forced to weather storms. The training of young people is always a deal in futures. To educate girls by a method adapted to give them uninterrupted pleas-

ure between the ages of sixteen and twenty, and to spoil them for any satisfactory living after they are twenty-five, is a curiously shortsighted policy for people of intelligence. A wiser undertaking for girls' schools would be to abandon experiments on the wind and to provide their lambs with a warm fleece, sure to become pleasant and easy to wear, as its power of defence against the blasts of human life is proved.

Since misunderstandings are so rife, it may be well here and now to introduce a caveat and say that rigorous intellectual training does not involve either overwork or failure to recognize the place of recreation and social pleasure in the scheme of education. Under existing circumstances, however, girls suffer less from overwork than from misdirected work. Parents who wish to give their daughters serious mental discipline, something more than the most superficial graces and accomplishments, are often at a loss as to which way to turn, what school to choose, what curriculum to plan. This bewilderment is not surprising. Even women's colleges, we must admit, are not invariably of the sterner mould, although in general they have united to make genuine discipline an important part of girls' education. Some few schools are glad to follow suit; but probably they would be the first to maintain that strong opposing influences make their task difficult. Defects in the preparation of girls for college are still obvious. This, however, is but a limited aspect of the wider truth that there are defects in the methods of preparing girls to carry on a life that shall be in the least satisfying to themselves or to any appreciable degree useful to the rest of the world. Whether the fault lie chiefly with the college or with the school, or even with the parents, is not the present question. While they are quarrelling over Patroclus's body, we discuss the situation as we find it. The correct apportionment of responsibility would better follow than precede a consideration of the vital issues.

The chief cause of confusion and wasted energy is the line commonly drawn between those girls who are going to college and those who are not. This division is about as senseless as an early division of infants according to their future tastes in foods. A preliminary milk diet is inevitable for them all. We need not erect this figure of speech into a formal argument in order to urge that the same preliminary training between the ages of fourteen and eighteen, if it be sound and sane, should be equally good for all girls, whether they are going to seek the shelter of college, or, heedless of further provisioning, make at once for the open. To say this is not to entertain the roseate view that the present college requirements are ideal. But probably they need only modifications, enlargements here and retrenchments there, rather than any complete transformation. Even as they stand, they demand nothing unreasonable of any intelligent girl, however pretty, and nothing that any intelligent woman, however charming, should not be able to look back upon as part of the spoils of youth, and to use as part of the possessions of maturity. These college requirements, as

set forth in the technical language of the school programme, sometimes strike the layman as a terrifying mystery; but they are, in fact, extremely simple. A modicum of English for self-respect, a modern language or two to help one farther afield, something of an ancient language to show that "it is we, and not the world, are new," a little history to make the sky line more remote, a few facts of mathematics to keep the mind clear, and a hint of science to reveal a world of law—surely these are by no means over-heavy accoutrements even for women who are going to be unlabelled members of society. Yet they are the only ones which colleges demand of their new recruits.

The mere enumeration of these requirements is sufficient proof of their importance in the intellectual equipment of every girl who aspires to anything beyond childish acquirements. They are obviously the irreducible minimum. Indeed, the only plea for offering a different course to students who are not going to college is that the rigid preparation required for college leaves no time for the pursuit of other desirable subjects from which those should not be debarred to whom school is the last educational opportunity. This plea, however, is based on the curious theory, unchallenged because unexpressed, that no woman (or man) acquires knowledge after twenty-two, and that a larger proportion of women reach at eighteen the end of acquiring. Anything, therefore, that a human being may conceivably need at any future time must be secured before that age; for outside the portals of the school house and beyond the teacher's bell, minds are never stirred by curiosity or impelled to find out the unknown. The working of this fallacy among college students results in their desire to take every subject announced in the catalogue; and among school authorities, in foisting into the curriculum such things as political economy, "mental philosophy," and art criticism—subjects as many and as diverse as the ingredients of a nonsense rhyme. We forget that there will be many a brave year after the traditional four or eight of school and college, when the treasures of this world may be exploited by minds made keen and supple through a simple and coherent training. Whether the bell rings for the last time after school life or after college, it should usher out young men and women who are not arrogant vaunters of scraps from the ragbag of knowledge, but who, because they know, in proportion to their youth, a few fundamental things accurately, will answer a humble, hopeful, and eager *adsum* to the peremptory call of greater masters.

One of the evils resulting from the existence of two school courses side by side is that the preparatory course is made to seem an unnatural thing, taken for no more rational reason than to pass examinations irrationally set by erratic colleges. Parents therefore hesitate to plan to send their daughters to college because it means separating them at an early age from what they understand "educators" regard as the best training for the normal girl. Even bright girls, who take natural enjoyment in a moderate amount of study along with their play, grow so tired of hearing college

talked about in school and of having all their work portioned off as "preparatory to college" that they revolt from the idea and prefer a course in which they are not a target for constant nagging.

Thus it often happens that a girl's decision to go to college comes late. Within a year or two of the proper time for entrance she decides that, after all, college is too fine an experience to be thrown away. Certain requirements must be met, and she is put into the incubator. If any regard is had for her physical and mental health, she is allowed to cover the ground with just sufficient thoroughness to pass, creditably enough, her examinations. This procedure is manifestly unjust to the college preparatory course, robs it of much of its disciplinary value, and incidentally strengthens in the minds of the girl and her parents the suspicion that it is arbitrary folly. Really to educate her mind to the stage proper for her years, and really to equip her for handling the substance of knowledge and of life as it is to be later presented to her is of course impossible. That kind of training is a slow process and its starting point must be placed much farther back. As for the schools and the teachers who allow long hours and nervous strain to take the place of learning, and who make a contemptible travesty of education by setting the goal of mere high marks to be won by anæmic girls—they deserve the heaviest millstone and the depths of the deepest sea.

With this anathema kept ready against the only real offenders, we may revert to the main point, the only point of great moment—the thesis with which we began. It is simply that students should be taught what it is to work hard. The greatest wrong done to girls lies in giving them no chance to follow out, firmly and severely through a long series of years, a course of intellectual and moral development. They are cheated out of seeing that fair sight, the smile upon the face of duty. We are so afraid of making them into the most pitiable of God's creatures—women of shattered nerves—that we deprive them of that healthy enjoyment of sane work, combined with a sane enjoyment of healthy play, which keeps a girl well and normal. A splendid vitality can be preserved in unison with work which clears the brain, strengthens the will, and enlarges the capacity for cheerfulness, quite as well as in unison with continuous pleasure-seeking which befogs the intellect, weakens the fibres of character, and tends toward restlessness and disillusionment. We are so afraid of making girls into the most useless of God's creatures—women lacking grace, gentleness, and human sympathies—that we deprive them of that absorption in larger interests outside themselves which quickens their perfect adjustment in all social relations.

In reality our need for girls to-day is schools which, while they do not scorn health and manners, will keep them as equerries in the train of hard thinking and sturdy living; schools which will establish traditions and methods of discipline and training, and keep to them though the heathen rage; schools which will prepare for college, if that is to be our terminology, not spasmodically or with difficulty, but steadily and with the inevitable ease of rigorous perseverance. A few such schools, it must be repeated, have already

come into existence. What they need is the support of public sympathy. Let us talk less about shorn lambs, and, with an eye to the inexorable winds, help to make ready the fleeces.

A. C. E. ALLINSON.

Providence, R. I.

LONDON BOOK NEWS.

LONDON, August 22.

August is usually a month when publishers and authors, like the dog mentioned by Quilp, are "lurking for a spring," and are not actually springing anything on an eager public. Madame Buchholz, we know, in a holiday and season of entire leisure, began to read Humboldt's "Cosmos," but, after two trials, discovered that she "had no time," and that, after all, it did not matter how high the mountains are in Colorado. It has usually been taken for granted that in their holidays people have no time to read. On the other hand, when they are in town, they certainly have no time (I speak of the women), for they have to pay visits, and the dressmaker is "the thief of time." In the holidays they are far from their dressmaker, and, in dreary lodgings and hotels, on wet days, they are often seen with books in their hands, and melancholy throned on their brows.

Thus a wise popular novelist will choose "the dead season" as the very best season for publication. Our two most eminent creative minds have done so, and a new novel by Miss Corelli is in the hands of all. Decorated with a portrait of the fair author, this volume appeals to the bibliophile no less than to the mere student. With the portrait of Hall Caine we are already familiar, and I think none is given in his new romance, sold at sixpence, and appealing to our romantic instincts under the engaging title of "Drink." A lady in the narrative does not drink to us only with her eyes, as the temperance poet, Ben Jonson, requests a fair one to do, but is even too convivial. The publishers inform us that "the love story is enthralling," and that the work is "as important as a sermon, and as sensational as a detective story." Doubtless this novel will be criticised in the *British Journal of Inebriety*, a convivial review which lies on the table of a public library frequented by myself, beside the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*. The pages of both are usually virgin of the paper cutter.

Except for the two masterpieces mentioned, little or nothing is being published. As if one *Life of Walter Pater* were not enough, Thomas Wright promises a successor to the critical study by Mr. Benson. "It will be in many respects the most valuable work that has proceeded from his pen." His publisher says so, and his publisher ought to know. We are to be told much about "the early Paters," who lived at Olney, celebrated as the birthplace of the Olney Hymns. Information is also promised about Richard C. Jackson; all of it will have the merit of absolute novelty to readers hitherto ignorant of Mr. Jackson's life and adventures, while Richard Robinson's career will not be neglected. Concerning Mr. Pater's friendship with these eminent men "no previous writer has recorded a single word."

Personally I look forward with more excitement to a new book by the ladies who

wrote "The Reminiscences of an Irish Resident Magistrate," a book of genuine humor, and of much unobtrusive literary skill. "Some Irish Yesterdays" is the title: few people can write well about Irish life, but we are safe with "E. Somerville" and "Martin Ross." Again, "The Life and Letters of Leslie Stephen" is sure to be much better worth reading than most *Lives and Letters*, as Sir Leslie was a truly original character, who had known all distinguished people of the literary world since Thackeray. The author is F. W. Maitland, a writer who can give vivacity to the history of early mediæval institutions, a topic which certainly needs enlivening. How Augustine Birrell is to find time for a book on Browning, only very busy men can imagine.

There is a proposal to found a "Titmarsh Club" in honor of Thackeray, but there are already so many literary dining clubs that one more seems a superfluity of conviviality. The best are those in which it is forbidden to make speeches, but none are to be called very amusing, and at a Rabelais dinner one yet felt as if one were celebrating the memory of Blair, author of "The Grave."

ANDREW LANG.

Correspondence.

NAPIER'S LOGARITHMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: How did Napier work his logarithms? Who can tell? Some years ago I reviewed a book in which Lord Napier's great invention was treated, but his method not set forth. I raised the author's anger by trying to supply the gap from what as a boy I had seen in an old German book (Vieth, 1804). Napier, he said, drew square roots consecutively; say, trying to get the logarithm of two, he would twenty-seven times draw the square root, thus finally arriving at the 134,217,728th root of 2, which is = 1, then a decimal point and 8 ciphers, then 8 telling digits, all the root-drawing having been carried to 16 figures. For a quantity of this sort we may say $\log(1 + \omega) = \omega$ within the decimals used. Multiplying the eight telling digits by 134,217,728, they will from places 9—16 drop into places 1—8, and the result = $\log \text{ nat } 2$. The author, though rejecting my statement, did not give any other in place of it; and he set me to searching.

I knew all along that Napier's logarithms, being those of sines or of tangents for arcs less than 45° , were all negative; also that his seven places were not marked as decimals; and thus we might say that though his logarithms were at bottom "natural," he, in form at least, used the modulus —10,000,000. At the first opportunity, stopping at Washington on business, I looked up the "Mirifici logar. canonis descriptio" (1614), in the Congressional Library, and found to my surprise that Napier's logarithm for $\sin 30^\circ$, i. e., of $\frac{1}{2}$, is 6931469, though $\log \text{ nat } 2 = .69314718$. So his logarithms are not natural at all, and could not have been reached by the method which Vieth describes. The "Constructio" (1617) is not in the Library and I could not get hold of it. I looked the matter up in some histories of

mathematics (e. g., Hutton), but found no clue; I then consulted the Encyclopædia Britannica, and this (art. Logarithms) gives Napier's modulus at—10,000,000, which is *wrong*. Taking further notes from the "Descriptio," I found $\log \sin 1' = 81-425681$, while $\log \text{nat} \sin 1' = -8.1425717$, a difference of 36 in the last two decimals. I found likewise Napier's $\log \tan 30^\circ = 5493-059$, while $\log \text{nat} \tan 30^\circ = \frac{1}{2} \log \text{nat} \frac{1}{3} = -5.4930614$. These three instances, which I found confirmed by another, and which are undoubtedly in harmony with all the rest of Napier's table, show that his modulus is not—10,000,000, but pretty nearly—9,999,995.6 (9,999,995 and six-tenths, negative).

How did he come by this modulus, either consciously or unconsciously? Is there any one of your readers who can tell me?

L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., August 28.

Notes.

Some of the more important of the autumn announcements of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have already been mentioned in this column. Other books that promise special interest are: "Walt Whitman," by Bliss Perry; "Charles Godfrey Leland," by Elizabeth Robins Pennell; "Mémorial and Letters of Frederic Dan Huntington," by Arria S. Huntington; "My Pilgrimage to the Wise Men of the East," by Moncure D. Conway; "Through Man to God," by George A. Gordon; "Atonement in Literature and Life," by Charles A. Dinsmore; "Christ and the Human Race," by Charles Cuthbert Hall; "Realities of Christian Theology," by Clarence A. Beckwith; "The Hebrew Literature of Wisdom in the Light of To-day," by John F. Genung; "Ecclesiastes in the Metre of Omar," by William B. Forbush; "Friends on the Shelf," by Bradford Torrey; "The Higher Study of English," by Albert S. Cook; "The Poetry of Chaucer," by Robert K. Root; "Books, Culture and Character," by J. N. Larned; "Talks on the Teaching of Literature," by Arlo Bates; "Le Plutarque de Montaigne," by Grace Norton; "From Old Fields," a posthumous volume of poetry by N. S. Shaler; "The Practice of Diplomacy," by John W. Foster; "Progress in the Household," by Lucy M. Salmon; "The Struggle for a Free Stage in London," by Watson Nicholson; "Organized Democracy," by Albert Stickney; "Studies in Philosophy and Psychology," by Charles E. Garman; "Pure Design," by Denman W. Ross.

Among the autumn announcements of Little, Brown & Co. are: "Mars and Its Mystery," by Edward S. Morse; "Starting in Life," a guide to the selection of a business or profession by Nathaniel C. Fowler, jr., and others; Lillian Whiting's "From Dream to Vision of Life," uniform with "The World Beautiful"; "Last Verses," by the late Susan Coolidge; "A Handbook of Polar Discoveries," by Gen. A. W. Greely; "Buff: A Tale for the Thoughtful," a popular work on the common sense of health "by a Physiopath"; "The Stars and Stripes and Other American Flags," by Peleg D. Harrison; "The Economy of Happiness," by James Mackaye; "The Syllogistic Philosophy," by Francis E. Abbot; "An Atlas

of Physiology and Anatomy"; "Forget-Me-Not," a book of selections for daily reading by Anna Mellen Stearns and Clara Bancroft Beatley; and "Paul the Apostle," as viewed by a layman, by Edward H. Hall.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will soon have ready "The Pursuit of Happiness," a series of essays by Dr. George Hodges, dean of the Episcopal Theological School of Cambridge, Mass. Another book to be published by the same house is Homer B. Hulbert's "Passing of Korea." Mr. Hulbert was the special agent of the Emperor of Korea to this country to protest against the usurpation of Japan in the peninsula, and his work is a thoroughly sympathetic study of the land, not without glances at the Eastern question as it is there developing.

D. Appleton & Co. are publishing "The House of Islam," a novel of Turkish life by Marmaduke Pickthall, the author of "Saïd, the Fisherman." Other books on their autumn list are: George Moore's "Memoirs of My Dead Life"; Albert Abend-schein's "Secrets of the Old Masters," and Charles F. Thwing's "History of Higher Education in America."

Henry Frowde announces these books as in the press: "The Theory of Good and Evil," by H. Rashdall; "Hyperides" (Oxford classical texts), edited by F. G. Kenyon; "Tacitus Annals" (Oxford classical texts), edited by C. D. Fisher; "Oxford Anthology of English Literature," by G. E. and W. H. Hadow; "Cæsar's Civil War," translated by F. P. Long; "Knuth's Flower Pollination, Vol. II," translated by J. R. Ainsworth Davis.

Two new volumes in the Scriptorum Classicorum Bibliotheca Oxoniensis may be named here without attempting to criticize the construction of the texts: Longinus "De Sublimitate," edited by A. O. Prickard, and Plato's "Euthyphro, Apologia, Crito, and Phædo," edited by John Burnet.

Mrs. Russell Barrington has prepared "The Life, Letters, and Work of Frederic Leighton," which will be published in the autumn by George Allen, London. Mrs. Barrington has had access to the papers and correspondence of Lord Leighton through the assistance of his sister and other members of his family, and the volumes will contain his diaries and letters. Among his correspondents were George Eliot, Ruskin, Browning, and Dickens. Other books of interest in Mr. Allen's autumn list are "Lord Acton and His Circle: Letters to Various Correspondents," edited by Abbot Gasquet, and "Sir Thomas Lawrence's Letterbag," edited by G. Soames Layard, with the unpublished recollections of the artist by Elizabeth Croft.

Thomas Whittaker is the American publisher of "A Mission of the Spirit," being a series of addresses delivered last Lent during a progressive mission in his diocese by the Bishop of London, the Rt. Rev. A. F. Winnington Ingram.

Herbert B. Turner & Co. are about to publish "The Historical Bases of Religions: Primitive, Babylonian, and Jewish," by Hiram Chelliss Brown. It is an attempt to explain the religious sense from purely natural and historical causes.

T. E. Thistelton-Dyer has prepared what he calls the "Folk-Lore of Women," which

is to be issued this autumn by A. C. McClurg & Co. It is, in brief, an anthology of what men have written and said about women—a large subject.

We are soon to have a new anthology, "A Pageant of Elizabethan Poetry," selected by Arthur Symons. The period is from Spenser to Herrick, and the arrangement is not chronological, but by subjects.

The University Press of Sewanee issues Emerson's "Essay on Compensation" in a neat pamphlet, with an introduction by Lewis Nathaniel Chase.

"Foilbes of the Bar," by Henry S. Wilcox, will be published by the Legal Literature Company of Chicago, October 1. It is a companion volume to "Foilbes of the Bench."

Beginning September 7th the *North American Review* will be issued as a fortnightly magazine. It will contain a new department devoted to the criticism of current literature. Ninety-one years ago the *North American* started as a quarterly. Sixty years later it became a bimonthly, and for a generation it has been a monthly. Henceforth it will be published on the first and third Fridays of each month.

The new *Putnam's Magazine* will be published on the 25th of September, and on that day of successive months.

We have before us a reprint of Richard E. Helbig's "Deutsch-Amerikanisches in der New York Public Library" from *German-American Annals*. It gives an account of the recent increase of material in the library on a subject which is attracting more attention every year.

A new volume of the Mermaid Series (imported by Scribners) contains four plays of Farquhar's with an Introduction by William Archer. This completes for the series the four leading "comic dramatists of the Restoration," to use Macaulay's grouping. It is to be remarked that in several cases the new format of a well-known series is by no means as agreeable as the old. Thus the new volumes of Bohn's library are without character, and in every way inferior to the old. The Mermaid texts are now issued in those thin-paper editions which are the detestation of most good book-lovers. Other series might be named which have put on a new and inferior dress.

All who love Mr. Hardy's novels will welcome the new edition of Dr. Windle's "The Wessex of Thomas Hardy" (John Lane Co.), which was reviewed in these columns on its first appearance five years ago. The present edition is unchanged as regards the contents, but is made up in a rather smaller volume, which is very attractive and light in the hand. E. H. New's charming illustrations, though occasionally too much of the "decorative" order, as one expects from a disciple of William Morris, have for the most part the sombre beauty which is appropriate to pictures of Wessex, that background of tragedies.

Painstaking care and a kindly spirit rather than a style which will appeal to readers characterize the Rev. Bridgeman C. F. C. W.-Boughton-Leigh's "Memorials of a Warwickshire Family" (Henry Frowde); and much the same care has marked the

production of the book, which is an example of the University Press at Oxford at its best. A kindly and appreciative spirit runs through this story of the Leighs and the Boughton-Leighs, which is specially noteworthy in the treatment of the Baptist Chapel at Rugby and of one of its pastors, the Rev. Edward Fall—noteworthy because usually when clergymen of the Church of England are writing of any of the Free Churches such notice as the author bestows on the Baptists of Rugby is not the rule. Sir Egerton Leigh, Bart. (1762-1818), was, however, of the Baptist Church. He preached for many years at the chapel at Rugby and often in the open air; and a baronet in the pulpit is about as uncommon in England as a territorial family which is not of the Established Church. Warwickshire is the home county of the Leighs; and as the churches and mansions of twelve Warwickshire villages and towns, including Rugby, are described, these "Memorials," apart from their genealogical and family interest, are an addition to the local literature of the show county of the Midlands, and for that reason likely to appeal to a larger audience than that immediately concerned with the history of the Leighs and the Boughton-Leighs. The illustrations are particularly good, and contribute in a high degree to this wider appeal.

We have reached a period where we may well employ very critical standards as to data on the Philippine Islands. We are therefore unable to find much justification for the new edition of Foreman's work on those regions ("The Philippine Islands," by John Foreman; imported by Charles Scribner's Sons), a large volume of about 650 pages. Mr. Foreman, who was for some years before the end of Spanish rule engaged in introducing into the Philippine Islands English machinery for tropical agriculture, published in 1890 a treatise on those islands, occupied mainly with the data he had gathered as to sugar and other cultures, observations on his trips through the islands, and a bad hodge-podge of information and misinformation in a number of chapters on the history of the islands. The author had collected a jumble of data, often garbled, from Father Concepción and one or two other friar-chroniclers. In recent years no treatise on the Philippines had been published in English except translations from German and Spanish originals. Hence, Mr. Foreman was accepted as the English-speaking authority on the Philippines and was invited to enlighten our peace commissioners at Paris in 1898. The next year he brought out a new edition of his book, which had a large sale in the United States, and which in consequence gained an undeserved reputation. It has been quoted regularly since 1899 as authority for many remarkable untruths as to Philippine history (especially that of the rebellion in 1896 and subsequent events). To this 1899 edition, the original imperfections and the many vital errors of which are nearly all left uncorrected, Mr. Foreman has now, besides expanding somewhat the chapters on the Filipino rebellion against Spain, added eight chapters on the war with the United States and the American government of the Philippines, 1898-1905. In these new chapters he has corrected the wildly exaggerated statements he made in the *Contemporary Review* for

September, 1904, but errors abound, and the omissions of vital data or events are frequent and sometimes more serious than the errors. A good review of American occupation of the Philippines is a desideratum, but such a work as this is of scant value to anyone.

Admirers of Thomas à Kempis cannot fail to be interested in J. P. Arthur's translation of his lives of Gerard Groote and his followers, and his "Chronicle of Mount St. Agnes" (London: Kegan Paul). Mr. Arthur has called his rendering of the lives, "The Founders of the New Devotion," the New Devotion being the name given to the religious movement, started in Holland by Master Gerard Groote (Gerard the Great) in the latter half of the fourteenth century. Gerard's object was the restoration of piety and morals, then sunk grievously low, and partly with this view he and his disciple, Florentius Radewin, planned the formation of societies known as "Brotherhoods of the Common Life," the members of which were to live together, but without taking vows, to support themselves by their own labor, and to devote much time to prayer and work for the poor. Sisterhoods were also formed on the same pattern. That these communities might not lack advice and assistance, regular monasteries were also founded. Among the earliest were those of Windesheim and Mount St. Agnes near Zwolle. This latter à Kempis entered as a young man, having received his previous training at the town school at Deventer, where Florentius and the house of the Brotherhood of the Common Life exercised great influence. A special interest thus attaches to Thomas's account of the Brothers and their institutions, and it is not a little surprising that his works on the subject have only now been rendered into English. The Rev. S. Kettlewell in his "Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of the Common Life," contented himself with translating selected passages.

The title of President Henry Churchill King's "Letters to Sunday School Teachers" (The Pilgrim Press, \$1 net) is misleading. It has nothing to do with religious instruction through the Sunday-school, nor with the principles and methods of teaching, but is concerned rather with doctrines and belief. It is a sort of primer in dogmatic theology, and should be classified in the library rather under Doctrinal Theology than under Sunday-schools. These are certainly sad, degenerate days, when our dogmatics come to us in pretty green and white booklets, declivity-edged, and paged at the bottom. How must the shade of the angelic Thomas move at the suggestion that this trifle be placed under the same category as his portly tomes! Calvin maintained the dignity of the queen of sciences, Pearson expounded the creed with proper gravity, and Hodge brought down mysteries from high heaven in three-volume ponderosity; but here we have the "great truths" of God and the soul made clear and satisfying to uninstructed minds in a few score, wide-margined pages, daintily covered in green and white. It is said that eminent divines occasionally preach in simple churches near their vacation residences clad in the negligée of the golf course rather than in the habiliments of the pulpit, and that

the sermons are not altogether bad. Similarly with President King's *Summa Theologia*, its dress is certainly negligée, but its matter, so far as its modest limits allow, is not so bad. To be sure, the doctrine is not uncomfortably orthodox, but it is sincerely religious, and has the warmth of real piety. It endeavors to trace the way from the surest realities of experience to positive and satisfying religious convictions.

Parts 5 and 6 of Prof. Angelo de Gubernatis's "Dictionnaire International du Monde Latin," have followed each other so quickly that the work is completed in less than two years since it was begun. It contains over 1,500 double-column quarto pages, carrying some 10,000 biographical sketches. The editor regrets, in the final part, that many of the sketches are fragmentary, owing to the failure of their subjects to furnish adequate data, but he promises to make good this deficiency, so far as possible, in a supplement to be issued before the end of the year, and to comprise also corrections and a general index. This supplement will be sent without cost, except one lira for postage, to the original subscribers to the work; to others, the price will be seven lire. Professor de Gubernatis has produced a book of reference unique in scope and of permanent value. He has further given his subscribers nearly 50 per cent. more than he promised—an unusual instance of editorial generosity.

A much disputed point of recent history seems ready to be elucidated. Why was France left without allies to aid her at the beginning of her conflict with Germany in 1870? The revival of the controversy dates from the visit in July of ex-Empress Eugénie to Emperor Francis Joseph; which was said, very improbably, to have for its object the restoration of a letter written by the latter to Napoleon the Third shortly before the declaration of war and promising assistance. In 1878 Prince Napoleon accused the diplomacy of the French Empire of incompetence under the circumstances. Gen. Türr, the *alter ego* of Garibaldi, replied by stating that he had been as aide-de-camp of Victor Emmanuel a confidential agent in secret negotiations, from 1864 to 1869, for the formation of a Franco-Austro-Italian alliance to counterpoise the disquieting growth of Prussia; like every one else he then attributed the failure of the proposed alliance to Napoleon the Third's unwillingness to hand over the Pope and Rome to Victor Emmanuel. Emile Ollivier, French minister at the opening of war, now extracts from a forthcoming volume of his "Empire Libéral" documents showing that, among other things, the Emperor's Roman policy was his own, and not imposed on him by the Empress. Gen. Türr now adds to his former statements that he is certain the proposed Latin League against encroaching Pan-Germanism was rendered impossible by the intrigues of England and Prussia. The controversy, among these surviving political actors of the time, has become so heated that both Marquis Visconti-Venosta and Count Nigra, who was Italian Minister at Paris, announce the speedy publication of their own authoritative memoirs.

The lady who has so recently made a reputation under the name of "Pierre de Cou-

levain," is apparently determined to live up to the time-honored adage of making hay while the sun shines. Her new book, "L'He inconnue" (Caimann-Lévy), shows signs of being old material hastily put together for publication to catch the present wave of Anglo-French cordiality. The unknown island is England, and the author's treatment strikes about midway between Max O'Rell and Emile Boutmy. A love story is woven in, and there are many clever observations, but the style is slipshod, and the pruning knife has not been used. The author has so much real talent that she can afford to produce a little more slowly and more carefully.

It is a sign of the times that a Brazilian should write a book in French and send it to an American weekly for review. His Excellency Sen. Nabuco, ambassador of Brazil to the United States, publishes through Hachette a volume entitled "Pensées détachées et Souvenirs." We observe with regret a marked note of disillusion in the book, which we hope does not arise from the nature of the author's duties. It is pleasing to reflect that a diplomat at Washington has leisure to frame moral aphorisms after the manner, if not in the style, of La Rochefoucauld. The diplomatic antagonists of the Brazilian ambassador should not fail to become acquainted with the interesting turn of mind his book reveals.

In our review of Holyoake's "History of Coöperation" the book was credited to the wrong publisher. It should be E. P. Dutton & Co.

Twenty-eight years ago an association was founded for the purpose of defending and propagating the principle of the universal protection of literary and artistic property. Victor Hugo was the first president of the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale, which now numbers four hundred members. Its annual congress will be held this year at Bucharest from September 21 to 26, when the question of admitting Rumania to the international copyright union, known as the Berne Convention, will be a leading topic for discussion.

The University Extension summer meeting at Cambridge, Eng., this year was of unusual interest. Large numbers of foreigners were present, America, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden having been especially well represented. Even China and Japan provided students. Among the foreign lecturers were professors from Bucharest and the Catholic University of Lille. Attention was concentrated on the eighteenth century, and though this limitation did not apply to the scientific courses, special note was taken of the great astronomers, botanists, and zoölogists of that century. The most encouraging feature was the representation of the working classes. Three years ago the Workers' Educational Association was formed to promote the higher education of work-people, and scholarships have been provided by it to send some of its most promising students to the summer meeting free of cost. Upwards of sixty delegates of the association attended a conference in Cambridge to discuss how free libraries could be made of greater service in the education of the people.

Professor von Behring, whose tuberculosis investigations are more than ever interesting the scientific world, recently made, to a party of French scientists, a more detailed statement of his achievements than has hitherto appeared. In this he affirmed that he had been able to prepare a fluid named "tulose," differing radically from Dr. Koch's tuberculin, by using which he had been able to check the infection of animals by malignant tuberculosis bacilli. He frankly admitted, however, that he had not yet succeeded in developing a serum similar to the diphtheritic antitoxin, and that he considered the future discovery of such a serum "extremely doubtful." Yet it was not impossible that by further experiment the "tulose" could be made to develop curative properties. Meanwhile, clinical experiments have shown that injections of this new fluid are of value in the treatment of children suffering from either tuberculosis or scrofulous troubles. Finally, Professor von Behring announced that, until further experiments have shown for just what uses "tulose" is best adapted, it will be dispensed only to a few select hospitals and clinics, which will pledge themselves to use it only in accordance with certain conditions prescribed by him. If this calm statement disappoints those who have already seen the white scourge disappearing before Dr. von Behring's magic, it is yet proof that a great scientific advance has really taken place.

According to circular 118, issued by the Harvard College Observatory, covering observations of Phœbe in May and June, 1906, six photographs of Saturn, showing images of Phœbe, have been obtained with the twenty-four-inch Bruce Telescope at Arequipa.

Luther W. Burbank's plant "creations," celebrated as they have become, have not yet added much to the every-day American table. Neither have the foreign plants introduced by the Department of Agriculture. But the two combined are likely to bring to market within the next few years an array of fruits and vegetables almost as varied as that of the tropics. Isaac F. Marcosson, who writes in the current *World's Work* on "Exploring for New Tropical Crops," names a long and wonderful list as within the immediate possibilities. Not only dates, pistache nuts, and citron are well established, but less familiar varieties. The Japanese udo is being introduced as a salad plant, and, cultivated in the Far West, has already been served on New York tables. The Javan mangosteen has been grown in America, and is to be followed by spineless, edible cacti from Spain.

Some important acquisitions have been recently made by various German museums. The Kaiser Friedrich Museum at Berlin has acquired the artist's sketch for the "Good Samaritan," by Rembrandt, at the Louvre; "The Fainting Lady," by Metsu; a "Madonna," attributed to Giovanni Bellini, and a *predella* by Lippo Lippi, with scenes from the childhood of St. Ambrose. The National Gallery at Berlin has acquired a picture of still life by Courbet; the Royal Library at Berlin, a copy of the "Mayence Psalterium" of 1459. The sale of this precious volume to America was al-

ready pending, but a national subscription was raised, and the owner was patriotic enough to accept £4,000 from a German institution in preference to a higher offer from abroad. The Wallraf Museum, Cologne, has acquired "Summer's Bliss," by Hans Thoma; a fine portrait of the artist and his wife, by Steinhausen; and paintings by Robert Haug, J. Bergmann, R. Jordan, and W. Schreuer. Menzel's painting of "Gustavus Adolphus Receiving His Wife at Hanau," one of the few large paintings by Menzel not yet in public keeping, has been added to the Municipal Museum of Leipzig.

The National Portrait Gallery, London, has recently acquired several interesting portraits. A study in oils of Samuel Johnson by Sir Joshua Reynolds for the well-known portrait at Knole, was presented by T. Humphry Ward. A water-color sketch by Charlotte Brontë, drawn in 1850, by her friend, Paul Héger of Brussels, has been purchased by the trustees. This sketch was acquired from the family of the artist about forty years ago, and since then has been in private hands. Another purchase is a small portrait in oils of Edward Gibbon, the famous historian, painted by Henry Walton; it is said to be the best extant likeness of the historian. A chalk-drawing of James Anthony Froude, by J. E. Goodall also figures on the list, as well as a portrait in oils of William Farren, the actor, and one of Samuel Cousins, the mezzotint-engraver.

The "Grande Médaille d'Emulation," offered by the French Government to the student receiving the greatest number of "values" in the first class in the École Nationale des Beaux Arts, has been won by George A. Licht, an American student of architecture. Licht is a "Prix de Paris," and holds a two years' scholarship offered by the "Société Beaux Arts Architects," composed of "Anciens Étèves" of the École in America.

The gold medals at the Venice international exhibition recently ended were awarded for painting to: Camarosa Hermen (Spain); Blanche, Simon, and Jacques (France); Karoly (Hungary); Innocenti (Italy); Larsen (Sweden); Shannon (United States); and Zugel (Germany). For sculpture the gold medal went to Bistolfi, an Italian.

The seventeenth annual exhibition of the New York Water Color Club will be held in the galleries of the American Fine Arts Society, No. 215 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York; opening to the public Saturday, November 10, and closing December 2.

Macmonnies has been appointed the sculptor for a monument, to be erected in Central Park, to perpetuate the memory of Joseph Jefferson. The statue will represent Jefferson in the character of Rip Van Winkle. The work will be life-size, wrought of bronze, and mounted on a pedestal of granite.

William Edgar Marshall, a portrait-painter, whose name once was much more familiar to the public than it is now, died last week, Wednesday, in this city, at the age of seventy-one. Beginning his career as an engraver at Washington, he attracted attention by engraved portraits of President Buchanan and Gen. Fremont. In the fifties well-wishers

sent him to Paris to study. Returning here, he painted portraits of Charles H. Dana and Nathaniel Hawthorne that gave him a reputation. At various times he had such sitters as Lincoln, Grant, Sherman, and Longfellow.

TEXT BOOKS.

"A College Algebra" (Ginn & Co.), by Professor Fine of Princeton, is without a rival among English text-books of college algebra, whether it is judged in respect to style or in respect to spiritual solidarity. Ripe scholarship, patience, conscientiousness, expository power—all these were necessary, but (as the mathematicians say) not sufficient to produce the book. There was needed, besides, a certain just faith that interest and intelligibility are not sacrificed, but are enhanced by a serious regard to the logic of the subject. The result is a work in which algebra is made to appear in its proper character as a genuinely deductive science, as a rigorously concatenated structure of thought on a foundation of explicit assumptions. The treatise falls into two parts. The first (of 70 pages) deals with the number system as such, including both reals and imaginaries. The system as presented includes ideas usually reserved for graduate years. Professor Fine has happily rendered them really accessible to the beginner—an important and difficult achievement. Unfortunately, judgment regarding availability for classroom use will depend upon the habits and attainments of teachers. For Professor Oswald's recent statement that improvement in the teaching of chemistry meets its chief resistance in the inertia of teachers already formed, is, unhappily, valid in every branch of science. In the second part occur several departures from the usual arrangement of topics. These changes were dictated alike by didactic and by scientific considerations. We note especially the early introduction and use of the method of undetermined coefficients; of the "division transformation," and, in connection therewith, the emphasis placed upon the remainder theorem and synthetic substitution; the prominence accorded to the notion of graph of a function, and especially the introduction of that illuminating notion prior to the presentation of Sturm's theorem. On the other hand, as some will think, both earlier and greater stress might well have been laid on the method of mathematical induction. In the later chapters will be found a really scientific presentation of such cardinal matters as infinite series, infinite products, continued fractions, continuity of functions, functional oscillation, upper and lower limits, etc. The merit of these discussions is that the doctrines as presented will not require to be subsequently unlearned—a melancholy process to which the disciple of the traditional text is so cruelly condemned.

C. N. Schmall's "A First Course in Analytical Geometry" (D. Van Nostrand Co.) is a direct and energetic account of the conic sections, including the usual chapter on higher plane curves and a brief introduction to the geometry of three dimensions. The style, while it is in general clear enough, tends not in-

frequently to be a little slap-dash. Some of the demonstrations are excellent, as, *c. g.*, the proof that every linear equation in two variables represents a straight line. On the other hand, the attempted demonstration (p. 298) that "a single equation in three variables represents a surface" hardly supports the author's claim that "all proofs given are rigorous." The author's intention to exalt general method over specific matter is praiseworthy, but it ill consists with an exclusive use of the so-called "secant method" in tangent problems. In this connection it is a pleasure to refer to Candy's "Analytical Geometry," where the intention in question is admirably carried out. Mr. Schmall's frequent use of determinants and the abridged notation of Plücker and Bobillier is commendable, but his use of "sinister" and "dexter" to denote the left-hand and right-hand member of an equation is doubtless unhappy and injudicious. In the matter of nomenclature, it is sheer folly to try to tempt the real mathematician either to be the first by whom the new is tried or the last to lay the old aside.

"A Brief Course in the Calculus" (D. Van Nostrand) by Prof. William Cain, University of North Carolina, contains some well written sections, but the work is marred by frequent inaccuracies and infelicities both of thought and of expression. Descartes appears as Des Cartes (p. 1); continuous motion is motion without "hops"; and exception may be taken to the phraseology of some of the more technical definitions.

The "Projective Differential Geometry of Curves and Ruled Surfaces" (Teubner) is a notable work by Dr. E. J. Wilczynski, assistant professor of mathematics, at the University of California. The author says, "The instructor in an American university finds his time fully occupied by other things besides the advancement of science." This deliverance is doubtless too sweeping. American professors entirely free for research activity are very scarce, but the species is not unknown; in proof of which it is sufficient to refer to publications by the author himself prior to his appointment two years ago as associate of the Carnegie Institute of Washington. Nevertheless the present work is chiefly the result of investigations made by Professor Wilczynski in the capacity of such associate and would certainly have been much, it may be indefinitely, delayed, except for the freedom which the Carnegie Institution has enabled him to enjoy. Under the unbroken empire of Euclid, the birth of projective as distinguished from metric geometry was delayed for nearly two thousand years, and even then the times were inauspicious, for the genius of Desargues and Pascal dates with Fermat and Descartes and ante-dates but little the great years of Leibniz and Newton. The now famous Brouillon was even lost for two centuries. Meanwhile differential geometry had greatly flourished, and projective geometry was reborn in the genius of Poncelet and Plücker. But the former doctrine was *metric* and the latter, though algebraic, was not concerned with the *infinitesimal*. It is here, then, between these fields that Professor Wilczynski's domain, overlapping and penetrating them,

is found—*projective differential geometry*. Halphen in an "admirable theory of plane and space curves" had already made a start in this field. The author's contribution consists in presenting by his own method Halphen's work anew and in greatly extending the researches, particularly to ruled surfaces.

Unlike the foregoing work, "The Theory of Functions of Real Variables," vol. I. (Ginn & Co.), by Prof. James Pierpont, of Yale, is not of the nature of an addition to mathematical science as such, but it is not on that account a less difficult or less important performance, being a most admirable exposition of what in modern times has come to be regarded as the unshakable foundations of Analysis. "The work is based on lectures which the author is accustomed to give at Yale University on the advanced calculus and the theory of functions of real variables." Could the inventors of the calculus and those giants who during the succeeding two centuries boldly employed it to the great advancement of knowledge behold that instrument of investigation as transformed, chastened, perfected, by the master critics of the last generations, they would gaze at first in amazement. In such an exposition as that before us the student may catch something of the spirit that has wrought the transformation and gain acquaintance with the means and fundamental ideas of the masters of modern analysis, such as Cauchy, Gauss, Grassmann, Riemann, Wierstrass, Bolzano, Georg Cantor, Dedekind, Jordan, and others. Hitherto, in order to gain a knowledge of the best that has been done in the subject, it has been necessary to repair to foreign institutions; now it is no longer necessary to have recourse to foreign tongues, thanks to Professor Pierpont's simple and scholarly presentation of the matter in 555 pages. Some may not like the colloquial style of the author's discourse; some may not approve of the didactic Euclidian form of the exposition, notwithstanding its adaptation to the uses of reference and consultation; but every one will applaud the happy citation and criticism of current defects of argument.

The general public has taken very little interest in discoveries in physics of the last few years, although they are fairly revolutionary in character, and bear directly on many philosophical and practical questions. One reason for this apparent indifference has been the difficulty of getting readable and comprehensible accounts of the recent advances in science. But this difficulty no longer can serve as an excuse. Professor Rutherford has given us a comprehensive and thoroughly scientific treatment of the subject in his "Radio-Activity" (Macmillan); and Professor Duncan in "The New Knowledge" (Barnes), has presented it in a lighter and somewhat sensational style; and now Professor Jones of Johns Hopkins has published a book intermediate between these, well adapted to bringing one's physics up to date ("The Electrical Nature of Matter and Radio-Activity," D. Van Nostrand Co.). It is comprehensible to any one who has studied college physics, but Professor Jones takes no pains to present his facts in a striking way by either verbal or pictorial illustrations.

We may note together two text-books

which have a great similarity, being intended for the same class of students, the last of the high school or the first of the college, and they come from the same laboratory, that of the University of Chicago. ("Physics," by Charles Riborg Mann and George Ransom Twiss: Scott, Foresman & Co.—"A First Course in Physics," by Robert Andrews Millikan and Henry Gordon Gale. Ginn & Co.). Both are practical text-books, modern in matter and method, and printed and illustrated in the handsome style to which our school-book publishers have accustomed us. Both have final chapters on the recent discoveries in radio-activity and the electron theory. Professor Mann has cut out no small part of the dead wood which usually encumbers text-books on physics, such as descriptions of antiquated apparatus and old formulae, to make room for machines in commercial use and newer mathematical treatment. He is determined to make physics real and practical to the student, and among other devices to accomplish this end he has put on almost every page a small photographic illustration. Professor Millikan has given considerable space to the illustrative experiments which he is so skilful at inventing, and tries to interest the student in the biography of the science by full-page portraits of distinguished physicists from Archimedes to J. J. Thomson.

The variations in the principles and construction of dynamos and motors are so numerous that it is difficult to prepare a text-book which shall be at once comprehensive and manageable. In his "Alternating Currents: Their Theory, Generation, and Transformation" (Van Nostrand & Co.), Alfred Hay has given much material in small space; he not only describes standard tests and machines, but includes a large amount of new matter hitherto scattered in the journals. The only drawback is that he has thus crowded the space devoted directly to the theory of alternating currents. These chapters should have been expanded or omitted altogether. A student not already grounded in the subject will not be able to follow this part of the book, and, on the other hand, it is too fully developed for a mere reference manual. Modern texts on engineering are not made any too attractive. What with the elimination of all but skeleton outlines of results, the abbreviation of words and phrases, and the barbarous nomenclature introduced by electrical engineers, these books are, to say the least, not milk for babes. The engineering student would not be hurt by a little more polish and ease of expression, and the best way for him to obtain these would be from his college text-books.

Professor Linville has charge of the biological work in the DeWitt Clinton High School of New York city, and his "Text-Book in General Zoölogy" (Ginn & Co.) is designed to cover the whole field of zoölogy in as complete and practical a manner as the time allotted to such a course will permit. It includes both laboratory and field work on representatives of each group, and, besides being comprehensive and accurate, is readable. In place of the old stock cuts, it has been freshly illustrated with a large number of original drawings direct from nature. In the pictures and in the text especial attention is paid to the

relations of animals to their environment and to each other, to the presentation of a complete picture of the life of a particular locality.

Good plays, it is said, are never written; they are rewritten. The same is true of good text-books. Professor Smith is, therefore, justified in thinking that his work is the better for having grown gradually from the needs of his fifteen years' teaching in the University of Chicago. ("Introduction to General Inorganic Chemistry," by Alexander Smith: The Century Co.). This is a very complete college text-book, containing a large amount of descriptive and explanatory matter, similar in scope and character to the inorganic chemistry of Gooch and Walker, published last year by the Macmillan Co. The author has attempted nothing revolutionary in the order of presentation and in the treatment of topics. The hypotheses and conceptions of the science are introduced gradually where they are most needed. The atomic theory is postponed until the student has acquired a sufficient number of facts to make him appreciate its help. The ionic theory is used freely, but not extravagantly. It is useless to recommend a text-book because it has to fit the teacher, but we can say that any college instructor ought to take this book into consideration in selecting his class text.

"A Text-Book of Sanitary and Applied Chemistry, or the Chemistry of Water, Air, and Food," by E. H. S. Bailey is issued by the Macmillan Co. This somewhat cumbersome title is necessary because we have no convenient name for the new science of the household, which is coming to be a popular course in many high schools and colleges. It has had to be taught by lectures because the information is scattered in the innumerable bulletins and reports of experiment stations, and in the technical journals. In this book, however, Professor Bailey has brought together much of the material which he has used for his lectures on domestic economy in the University of Kansas, and made of it a practical class text-book. It includes chapters on the atmosphere, fuels, cleaning, sewage disposal, the composition of foods, the detection of adulterations, and the balancing of dietaries, illustrated with 150 students' experiments.

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF HAMILTON.

Alexander Hamilton. An Essay on American Union. By Frederick Scott Oliver. With portraits and a map. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3.75.

A life of Hamilton by an Englishman is a novelty, and we have read Mr. Oliver's biography with interest to see in what new light a career so distinguished, but so well known, could be reexamined. Of course, new facts are hardly to be expected. No life has been more minutely searched by friend and foe alike, than Hamilton's; not merely since his death, but from the moment when he appeared on the stage, haranguing a public body at the age of seventeen, to the hour of his unfortunate end. An extraordinarily frank and courageous man, he had no pose for the public which concealed his real character. He played no part, he wore no mask. His professed opinions and objects were always his real opinions and

objects. From first to last he laid himself bare to observation, and to detection, if there were anything to detect. Involved in a most serious scandal, raising a doubt as to his official integrity, he cleared himself by a confession of the real wrong done so palpably truthful as to convince his most rancorous slanderers. Mr. Oliver has painted a good picture of the man, but it differs mainly in vividness from those which we have already. Like every one who comes into contact with Hamilton, Mr. Oliver is filled with admiration of him, made enthusiastic by his enthusiasm, sees with his eyes, hears with his ears, is persuaded by his eager and cogent reasoning, animated by his fiery zeal. In narrating the story, the author becomes a Federalist himself, and his account of the Democrats headed by Jefferson, and "the politicians" of whom Burr was the type, is not very different from the impression they made upon Hamilton himself.

Hamilton's enemies called him an adventurer—a convenient term, for it is capable of a double meaning. In the sense that he loved adventure, and that his whole career was a great venture—he was a new man, without family or "backing"—it was true. In the sense that his allegiance was to be had by those who would offer most for it, the term was ridiculously false. What the author says on this point can hardly be improved upon:

It is not without importance that upon the appearance of the first pamphlet Hamilton was approached by the Loyalist party with flattering offers of employment if he would transfer his services to the other side. Such proposals must have been attractive, not only on account of his youth and poverty, but for the further reason that so many of his sympathies were bound up with the ideas of monarchy and a settled Constitution. His prompt rejection of the offer is all the more remarkable, when we remember that it has been the ignorant habit of Democrat historians to write of him as if he had been a pure adventurer, and that even in recent times apologies for his career and appreciations of his character, with equal ignorance and less excuse, have tacitly assumed the justice of the charges. Only in the most romantic sense can Hamilton be termed an adventurer: only because he was a young man from a strange land seeking adventure; never because he sold his sword. A character less mercenary, and less concerned in any personal advancement, save as a means of rendering better service to the State, has never played a part upon the public stage. To the Dugald Dalgettys of history he bore no resemblance save in his courage; and if we are in search of an analogy we shall find it rather among the Knights of the Round Table than among the soldiers of fortune (p. 32).

Better, perhaps, than any of his previous biographers, Mr. Oliver has seized upon the salient features of Hamilton's temper and ambition. Enthusiastic as he was from boyhood, his enthusiasm was different from that of most of those with whom he was associated. Freedom, equality, even independence, were not by him worshipped as abstractions, as ends in themselves. They were all means to an end—the welfare of the Commonwealth. That just and orderly administration of affairs in the common interest which is the key to the happiness of States, was his ideal. "For all his love of freedom, his hatred of lawlessness was the stronger passion. Both, indeed, had their origin in his detestation of injustice and oppression." A generous and fiery devotion to justice is unhappily rare

among political leaders. United as it was in Hamilton's case with extraordinary political sagacity and power of exposition, and oratorical gift, he stands as the most interesting figure of the Revolutionary period. The "Oracle" of the patriots, he did not hesitate to risk his hold upon his party by resisting mob violence directed against persons suspected of Tory leanings.

In one important respect the book differs from all previous lives of Hamilton. It is written for an English audience and with a definite English purpose. Mr. Oliver is a Protectionist and a believer in "federation," and his object is evidently to show that as Hamilton planned and secured the adoption of a union among the emancipated colonies of Great Britain, expounding to them meanwhile the doctrine of Protection, so that they became in a hundred years one of the greatest of modern states—so might an English Hamilton of our day by some such means bring about a federation of the colonies and dependencies of Great Britain with the parent state. Here the book is, to our minds, distinctly weak; the author has nothing definite to propose, while the greatness of Hamilton lay, as he very clearly shows, in his ability not merely to dream of a Union, but to plan the whole charter of a confederated state, and to demonstrate in advance to the satisfaction of the communities affected that it was feasible. Had the author seriously asked himself how his dream of imperialist federation was to be carried out, he would have perceived at once that the cases were not only not parallel, but unlike at every point. The communities which Hamilton guided into federation were sovereign states, already linked together in a loose union, which had not to be invented, but to be improved and made more effective. Their governments and institutions were already democratic and homogeneous; to form a real union they had but to turn over to a central authority powers of which they had already a complete knowledge, and with the limits and scope of which they were perfectly familiar. Great Britain, on the contrary, is an established empire, of which the colonies and dependencies are bound to the parent state by an ancient system, which mingles great central authority with great local freedom. The British Empire is now a union of its own sort, and what is proposed is to change it into a union of some different sort. But the question is, of what sort, and by what means. Mr. Oliver draws no picture of what his union would be, nor suggests the means by which he would introduce it. To say that it could be introduced by Protection certainly derives no support from anything in the work of Hamilton. The Constitution introduced Free Trade between the States. If Great Britain copied us, the first step would be to bring to an end the existing system by which the colonies protect themselves, not only against foreign states, but against the mother country. How is this to be done? Mr. Oliver makes no attempt to answer the question. He gives us instead a fair account of Hamilton's report on manufactures, in which Hamilton showed, what no one, we believe, at the present day doubts, that Protection may be made an effective weapon in a young and wholly agricultural state to stimulate and diversify industry.

It is a wild jump from this to the conclusion which Mr. Oliver's "Essay on American Union" is intended to enforce.

The author devotes a chapter to "The Federalist," but makes no examination of its contents. Although he contrasts it with "The Prince" and with "The Spirit of Laws," he does not explain why it is a great political book; except that its chief author succeeded in carrying the plan of the Union through, against violent opposition, and that the Government of which he was one of the founders turned out a success. But there is no analysis, and the author seems to be one of those who discredit all political philosophy, a branch of science which he speaks of as having since Hamilton's day "drawn in its horns." This method of treatment is far from satisfactory. The author is puzzled to know how it was that Hamilton changed a hostile majority of two to one in New York into a majority for the Constitution. Mr. Oliver says, oddly enough, that the explanation is that while "The Federalist" is "pure advocacy," it appears to the reader to be "a reasoned judgment." The fact is, of course, that "The Federalist" is an argument addressed to a popular audience—the public itself—in favor of a plan of government—a political scheme, or charter—approved by the reasoned judgment of its advocate. It was the soundness of the reasoning that changed the obstinate majority of Clinton into a minority; and this is what makes the adoption of the Constitution the crowning act of Hamilton's life. In the pages of "The Federalist" we find the foundations of his reasoned judgment, and they are no other than those very principles of political science which Mr. Oliver thinks we have got beyond, but which Hamilton believed in with all the fervid conviction of his nature. Hamilton was a political philosopher, just as Burke was, and as Montesquieu had been before him. But he was a statesman, too, and was one of the few men in the history of the world who found the opportunity as a statesman to enact a scheme of government based in great part upon the philosophical principles which for him were the foundations of all government. This is what makes "The Federalist" a great book, in the opinion of all who believe that there are principles underlying the art of governing man. Hamilton's philosophy was the guide of his inspiration. We miss here any satisfactory account of it.

Mr. Oliver says in his preface that "no adequate life of Hamilton has yet been written," and modestly adds that he does not suppose himself capable of supplying the deficiency. To our minds, his narrative is by far the most interesting and vivid account that has yet been published; but, being neither a publicist nor an economist—and, if the truth must be told, having an opportunist's scorn for all principles of government—he is positively disqualified from the task of estimating Hamilton's work. To perform this, the biographer must be another Hamilton himself, at least as far as acquirements and mastery of principle go. He must unite with this, the generous capacity for sympathy which has enabled Mr. Oliver to seize upon and paint vividly the scenes of an heroic and even inspired career.

SIR RICHARD BURTON.

The Life of Sir Richard Burton. By Thomas Wright. 2 vols. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$6.50 net.

When a man's life has been written five times in eleven years, it is for the sixth adventurer to show that the lists are still open. Especially if the subject has unhealthy aspects, he must make it very clear that the previous attempts were fatally inadequate and misleading, and that his own work will bring us at least near the end of a disagreeable matter. He must not only have full and fresh information as to his subject, but he must have a broad and exact knowledge of the matters involved and ample tact in handling them. Our business is to get, as soon as we can, to a broadly correct estimate of a man who had in him undoubted elements of greatness, and to be clear as soon as we can of the repellent mass of uncleanness and prurient curiosity which has so long been associated with him. Gossip and chatter have here no place.

Unfortunately, Mr. Wright is a born gossip, and his chatter would be oppressive were it not so light. Lack of restraint is shown on almost every page, and he drops out-of-place remarks like the suggestion (ii, 95) of a notice in public libraries against King Yunan's method of turning over a leaf. Trivial anecdotes are his speciality. He boasts in his preface that about fifty are entirely new, and he indexes them carefully under "anecdote." These chronicle such important matters as Burton's rudeness—under great provocation—to Mr. Gladstone; how he swore at a waiter; how he quoted the rhyme of "Miss Baxter"; how he was recognized ecstatically here, and had limitations there. On another side it is only the license of the biographer when he enormously exaggerates the achievements of his subject. Burton was certainly, on no count, the first geographer of his day (ii, 25) nor the greatest English Oriental scholar (ii, 249), and even to speak of him as a great anthropologist or a great archæologist is to strain terms dangerously. In general knowledge, also, Mr. Wright unfortunately fails. He cannot follow and test Burton in his miscellaneous learning, and he is astounded by commonplaces of quotation. He is in ignorance of the relative standing of scholars; at E. H. Palmer, a far better linguist and Orientalist than Burton, he can poke fun (i, 209; ii, 43); and his remarks on Lane, certainly the greatest English Arabist, and on his translation of the "Nights," in some important respects better than any other, are simply absurd (i, xiii, 130; ii, 53, 54). The same ignorance appears again and again in dealing with Arabic and Oriental subjects. Mr. Wright is no specialist, but a *littérateur* at large, handling a very slippery matter, and even a specialist may easily come to grief over the "Arabian Nights."

What, then, is the justification of this book? What new point of view does it take, and what new facts does it offer? The justification, it may be said, is complete, in spite of Mr. Wright's weaknesses. Of all the five preceding books about Burton, its only real rival is that of Mr. Wilkins, which dealt with Burton only indirectly. The others were *Tendenz-schriften*, polemics by Lady Burton or by Burton's family, and unscrupulous at that. In the pres-

ent volumes we have a really fair attempt, without marked bias, to get at the facts in the case and to show Burton as he was. Of course, the objectivity is far from perfect. The hero-worshipping was to be expected and can be discounted. But the attitude towards Lady Burton is less explicable. In spite of general admissions of her good influence upon her husband, of her untiring and often successful labors on his behalf, of her essential nobility and sweetness, and even of her intellectual quickness and originality, Mr. Wright loses no opportunity of making damaging remarks about her and of exhibiting her generally in a ludicrous light. Her excellent, but un-schoolmastered English style especially arouses him, and that she, like Robert Louis Stevenson, never could learn to spell marks her, for him, as "uneducated." It is true that her character, with its frankness and enthusiasms, often lent itself to too easy ridicule, but the woman who held the love and respect of Richard Burton through almost thirty years of married life, who wrote "The Inner Life of Syria" and her autobiography, and who passed triumphantly through the test of the "Scented Garden," should not have been subjected to such belittling.

The new facts bear almost entirely on the translation of the "Arabian Nights," but are significant, also, for Burton's character. That he, in that translation, had curious indebtednesses to Mr. Payne was tolerably evident; he had, indeed, claimed the right to transfer to his own pages from those of Payne, Lane, or Torrens any rendering which seemed inevitable, but few guessed how inevitable the enormous mass of Mr. Payne's version had seemed to him to be. Mr. Wright compares them and finds pages with only a word changed here and there, not often for the better. He finds, further, that Burton's story of his translation is fundamentally false. When Payne's translation appeared, Burton had no written materials except a list of the contents of the first Bulaq edition, which was the only one he had, so far, used. Burton's version, then, is fundamentally Payne's with certain changes. (1) The verse is all different; some of it may, indeed, antedate Payne, as it was the verse which Burton had arranged with Steinhäuser to do. (2) The first few pages are enormously expanded and paraphrased, with what object is not clear. The same thing is occasionally done elsewhere; thus one complete anecdote is inserted on the principle that it should be in the "Nights" if it was not. (3) An attempt is made to bring the tone of the whole nearer that of the original. That Burton was not a book-Arabic scholar is now admitted, but, through his familiarity with the East, he had a very precise feeling for the language and tone of these stories and knew that Mr. Payne had missed it by miles. Their combination of Biblical simplicity, rank rolling rhetoric and drastic slang and vulgarity he thought he could reproduce on literal principles; simplicity with simplicity, rhetoric with rhetoric, slang with slang. Mr. Payne had reduced and polished until the "Nights" were trimmed down if not to decent, at least to polite society; Villon was made to go as Boccaccio. So Burton took "Payne" as a basis, and made most unjustifiably broad use of it. Yet he did put upon his book a separate stamp. Those who can stand

its artistically jarring style will get indefinitely nearer the real "Arabian Nights" than through the smoothness of Mr. Payne. (4) He added an elaborate and very peculiar commentary. Of this Mr. Wright thinks far too highly, just as he fails to appreciate Burton's restoration of the tone of the text. There are stray bits of real observation and information in it here and there, but Burton was always an amateur in the weak sense, and when his "learning" is most rampant, its second-hand, catch-word nature is plainest. A good example is that very note on circumcision, with which Mr. Wright is so impressed (ii., 122).

All this throws a peculiar light on Burton's sense of literary morality. The origin, too, of the method is plain from a remark of Mr. Wright, though he does not, himself, make the connection. Payne had issued five hundred copies only, and had pledged himself to print no more. The demand far exceeded that supply, and Burton actually suggested that he should reprint in his own name and account to Payne for the profits. Of course, Payne refused, and Burton seems then to have reprinted in his own fashion as well as in his own name (ii, 52). We find him also suggesting to Payne to change the order of the tales so that each volume may close with something peculiarly attractive (ii, 43).

Another and still more painful aspect of Burton is that developed by the episode of the "Scented Garden." There is no need to dwell upon it here. Mr. Wright only adds some color and heightens the pathos of the old man ending his life in his repulsive labor of love. Two things stand out very clearly: one, that the subject had become a true monomania with Burton and had destroyed the sense of comparative importance, never strong in him; and, another, that he had observed the money which could be made with "curious" books, and had wittingly set himself to pander to that taste. In what proportion these motives worked upon him it may be impossible to say; certain is the presence of both. Mr. Wright's hope that he can produce a life of Burton in drawing-room table form is naturally vain. His verbal restraint and suppressions will only excite curiosity.

What then, is left of Burton after all this biographizing? It can be put in brief. He was an adventurer rather than an explorer. From his journeys he brought little back, and he hardly ever accomplished what he set out to do. His "Pilgrimage" is his one clean-cut and finished bit of work, and even in that he did not carry out his programme. Again, he was a linguist, in the most colloquial sense, rather than a scholar. His book-knowledge and the lists of names he was fond of parading were always got up for the occasion. If he once knew Arabic grammatically, it seems certain that he had forgotten it. Steingass's notes to the "Supplemental Nights" and his version of "Aladdin" contrasted with Payne's made that clear long ago. But though his knowledge of book Arabic was probably not a tithe of even that of Payne, and though as a translator he was most untrustworthy, yet he had so steeped himself in the life and thoughts of the Muslim East that he was an interpreter of the highest value. If his "Arabian Nights" is often grotesque, repulsive, and inaccurate, the

student will always find it full of suggestion and atmosphere. His world is the world of the East, far from the trimmed topiaries and Italian garden effects of Payne. The same curse of the amateur, further, is over him in his archaeology and anthropology. Yet in both he was an amateur full of fertile suggestion and reckless courage. It is hard for the present generation to realize how narrow and mealy-mouthed anthropology was in its beginnings. That that stage is passed was largely Burton's work, and the present commonplaces of anthropology were the horrors discussed by him. Perhaps his real excesses in language and taste were needed to bring this about; certainly, his reputation was for long the victim of his work, and his character, almost his reason in the end, suffered under the dominance of a fixed circle of ideas.

It may be hoped that we have now, in this book, supplemented as it must be by the other five, the last of Sir Richard Burton. But much undoubtedly remains untold, including some matters of real interest. In spite of the wealth of information and photographs with which Mr. Wright has illustrated Burton's circle of friends and helpers, there are curious gaps. One important gap concerns Burton's attitude to the phenomena of spiritism. Another concerns the question of his relation to the Roman Catholic Church. That the constant dripping of his wife's words and example may have, in the end, worn through his cynicism no one who had observed his interest in the mystical side of the system of the Roman Church could absolutely deny. Such men as he are caught on the rebound; the mystery of life does its work; and with advancing years the wager of Pascal assumes a different aspect. His girding at the different forms of Christianity had become a bad habit only. Such points are still left, but our final hope must be that this is the end, and that the hates and loves, the weakness and strength, the achievements and failures of Sir Richard Burton may now rest in peace. And the final moral is, how little we really know of the man in spite of all these books.

Entomology, with special reference to its biological and economic aspects. By Justus Watson Folsom. Philadelphia: Blakiston, Son & Co. \$3 net.

Entomology includes within its view the greatest number of living creatures known in any one division of zoology. One might speak of insects as an "innumerable host"; for the number of existing species, of which over three hundred thousand are listed, must greatly exceed a million. It is not strange, therefore, that those who are interested in the study of animal life should have turned freely to them. Besides, they are so approachable by the unskilled, and many of them so attractive in their manners, that they have won the notice and engaged the thought of nature-lovers, especially of the young. Not a few men and women who have reached the highest distinction as naturalists, have begun their careers as tyros in entomology. Among those who have persisted in their first love and found their life work in the vast domain of insect life, is Professor Folsom of

the University of Illinois, whose "Entomology" is before us. The facts above stated—not to speak of the economic importance of insects—explain the appearance of the many books on entomology recently published. Most of them are well worth printing; some already have become classics. But "there is always room at the top"; an adage which one feels like applying to Professor Folsom's work. It easily takes rank not only with the best treatises on entomology, but among those which modern zoölogical science has produced.

The book has been written avowedly to meet the demand for a biological treatment of entomology. That end has been kept in view, leaving details of classification and habits and general relations to specialists in those departments. Yet the author gives briefly the fundamental facts upon which insect classification rests, together with an outline of the latest accepted system. Most naturalists and all laymen will approve his conservative attitude (p. 247) in the matter of species-making, which depends so much upon the good judgment of the systematist. He, if wise, is neither a "lumper" nor a "splitter"—shunning equally the tendency to break down the walls of well-established species, and the temptation to minute subdivision upon fanciful or insufficient characters, and thus to multiply generic and specific names to the sacrifice of the student's convenience and of the stability of nomenclature.

The chapters on "Anatomy and Physiology," and the closely related one on "Development"—embryological, not evolutionary—have a chief place, covering more than one-third of the 408 pages of text. Although adequately treated, in view of the limitations of the volume, one could wish that even more space had been given to such subjects as the so-called "music" of insects treated under the sense of "hearing"; and "luminosity," which is taken up under the physiology of the fat-system.

The chapters on "Color and Coloration" and "Adaptive Coloration" call up many interesting subjects, including that of "mimicry," which are presented with the author's characteristic sanity. In some cases the zeal, or perhaps one should say the imagination, of writers, has quite run away with their discretion; so that many assumed examples of "protective resemblance" are far-fetched. Yet it is certain that such a fact exists in nature and is particularly striking among insects. The pages given to this subject are crowded with interesting information and suggestions, which aim not so much at brilliant theories and original discoveries as at an intelligent abstract of existing knowledge. And this is the controlling motive of the book.

In the several chapters on the relations of insects to plants, to other animals, to one another, and to man, and on "Insect Behavior," the field of ethology—to use Professor Wheeler's apt term for studies of animal habits—is opened up. This gives the author the opportunity to present some typical examples of those wonderful ways of our "little brothers" of the insect world which have won the attention of so many observers in all ages. This discussion runs into the important subject of economic en-

tomology, which the Agricultural Department of our Government officially represents, and with which our whole citizenship is deeply concerned. The story of how the relationship of certain diseases to certain insects, especially the mosquito and the fly, was discovered and demonstrated, with its rare examples of high devotion to science, to duty, and to humanity, and its list of noble martyrs, is far too briefly told herein. It is to be hoped that it will never lose its power to win the attention and awake the admiration of those who read or hear it.

The Entomological Bureau of the Agricultural Department is fittingly noticed, and the reasons for its existence shown in the character of those insect destroyers that yearly mulct farmers, planters, stockmen, fruit-growers, gardeners, and florists in the sum of over three hundred millions of dollars.

The author's style is simple, concise, and lucid. His treatment of other writers is uniformly generous and just. He has made a book that will fill a real need. It is a book for public libraries; for scientific men; for physicians; for those who, lacking time and opportunity to take up the details of systematic and ethological entomology, wish to have at hand a volume of reference on general entomology which gives in brief and authentic and sufficiently popular form the latest results of the science. One of the most valuable features of the book is the large and well-chosen bibliography, which covers a vast field of entomological literature. Its topical arrangement greatly adds to its convenience and value. As a matter of course there is a full and satisfactory index.

La Révolution Française et les poètes anglais (1789-1809). By Charles Cestre. Paris: Hachette & Cie.

At the beginning of his volume M. Cestre complains not without reason that the English critics have maintained toward French revolutionary influence on their national literature "a conspiracy of silence." In spite of Professor Dowden's "French Revolution and English Literature," and some other recent studies, English criticism, as a whole, continues to be provincial in this respect. Hazlitt says of Horne Tooke that "he had none of the grand whirling movements of the French Revolution, nor of the tumultuous glow of rebellion in his head or in his heart." Hazlitt not only experienced these "grand whirling movements" himself, but in the closing pages of his lectures on the English Poets has pointed out the close relationship between the revolutionary spirit and the innovations of his great poetical contemporaries. It was left for a Frenchman, M. Legouis, to make the first scholarly study of this interdependence in his excellent volume on "The Early Life of Wordsworth." M. Cestre, besides adding to M. Legouis's material on Wordsworth, has extended the inquiry to Coleridge and Southey, and some of the minor figures of the movement. The chapter on the origins of English romanticism (pp. 231-341) is a very necessary supplement to the books of Professor Beers and Professor Phelps on the same topic. The eighteenth century English influences that these writers enu-

merate—Spenserian and Miltonian revivals, Percy's Reliques, Ossian, etc.—only succeeded in producing what M. Cestre terms classico-romanticism, a mixed genre still marked by pseudo-classic artificiality. Wordsworth's early work ("Descriptive Sketches," etc.) is of this transition type. The decisive step from "Descriptive Sketches" to "Guilt and Sorrow," the first poem truly Wordsworthian in both theme and diction, was taken under the stress of emotion called forth by the progress of the Revolution. But then, according to Professor Beers, Wordsworth is not a romanticist at all! M. Cestre is worth hearing on this point. "Wordsworth," he says, "is romantic by his antagonism to traditional poetry, his return to nature, his rehabilitation of the humble, his passionate expression of the elementary emotions, his idealizing of the commonplace, his mystical raptures, his conception of the poetical priesthood, his subjectivity." He is above all romantic by his endeavor to throw over the objects of every-day life something of the fresh wonder of the dawn.

One evidently gets deeper into romanticism by calling it the Renaissance of Wonder than by restricting the term with Professor Beers to the revival of the middle ages. Certain of M. Cestre's chapters (*Enthousiasme concret*, etc.) would suggest that a still more vital definition would be the Renaissance of Enthusiasm. In its essence, his book is a study of the awakening of enthusiasm in Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Southey by the Revolution; of the shock of disillusion that came to all three poets, not so much as the result of the revolutionary excesses, as of the invasion of the sister republic of Switzerland by the French armies; finally of the survival in some measure of the original enthusiasm for humanity even into the period of conservatism and Tory reaction.

The volume would perhaps have gained in living interest if M. Cestre had followed a method more intimately biographical, if he had gathered together into a connected narrative all the material bearing on each one of the poets, instead of scattering this material under a number of rather abstract chapter-headings. The subject is treated with a philosophic seriousness, one is tempted to add solemnity, that detracts in places from purely literary amenity. If there is too much philosophy for the literary reader, there is not always enough for the reader who believes that there are other possible outlooks on life besides that of the humanitarian enthusiast. The book is in the main a model of scholarly objectivity. Yet one is reminded occasionally that the author is himself, as would appear from another volume he has recently published in English,* a humanitarian with socialistic leanings. In dealing with the Utopian reveries of his heroes, he displays almost an excess of sympathy. His exposition of Coleridge's philosophy, for instance, admirable as it is in some respects, makes one regret the crisp and at times caustic good sense with which the

* *John Thelwall, a Pioneer of Democracy*, By Charles Cestre. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co. In addition to the published material, M. Cestre has drawn on unpublished MSS. of Thelwall's and has produced an interesting study of the beginnings of English radicalism.

classical Nisard dissects the whole tribe of Utopists in his chapter on Rousseau. And then, too, a touch of dry irony of the kind of which Leslie Stephen was a master would have just suited the exquisite absurdities of Pantisocracy and the dream of an idical colony on the banks of the Susquebanna. In a book that traces sentimental humanitarianism in England back to its source, M. Cestre might profitably have devoted all his psychological acumen to marking the ultimate differences between the humanitarian and the non-humanitarian views of life. Instead, he takes the humanitarian view too much for granted. He apparently reserves the term "idealistic" for the man who, in Wordsworth's phrase, has made "society his glittering bride." He praises Southey for having preserved, in spite of his disillusion, "la passion de vertu." Yet what a very modern notion of virtue this is! Rousseau is really the first who raised virtue to the dignity of a passion, much as the elder Dumas said that he had raised history to the dignity of the novel. Rousseau, indeed, is the father of the sentimental humanitarians by his substitution of enthusiasm and sympathy for restraint as the foundation of ethics.

M. Cestre has shown a correct artistic instinct in translating the passages from his English authors that he has incorporated in his text. At the same time, his book would have had more value for students and teachers of literature in America and England, if he had uniformly given his originals either at the foot of the page or in an appendix. As a whole, the volume deserves to take its place alongside Le-gouis's "Wordsworth" and Angellier's "Burns." Like these books, it was prepared to satisfy the requirements for the French doctorate, and like them combines accurate scholarship with broad and mature generalization. This is a union of qualities that one does not look for in an American doctor's thesis, and perhaps has no right to look for under present conditions for the granting of the degree.

Origines de la Novela. Tomo I. Introducción. Tratado histórico sobre la primitiva novela española por M. Menéndez y Pelayo. Madrid: Bailly-Baillière é Hijos.

With this volume the "Nueva Biblioteca de Autores Españoles" is splendidly inaugurated by its chief editor, Don Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo. Writing, as is his wont, in an excellent style, entirely free from the fatuously pompous and involved rhetoric in which so many Spaniards take delight, Menéndez gives us the opening chapters of an account of the tale and the novel in his native land. His history, when completed, will serve as an introduction to an edition of tales and novels not included in the old "Biblioteca de Autores Españoles." It has a distinct entity of its own as a storehouse of information regarding the subject treated. Replete as it is with facts, which are accompanied by the critical views of a competent judge and embellished with valuable bibliographical notes, the work will supersede a large part of the Dunlop-Liebrecht "History of Prose Fiction."

By way of preface to his main subject, the author outlines the history of narrative fiction in ancient Greece and Rome,

This is no perfunctory performance on his part, for he has thoroughly explored the field of classic letters, as all know who have used his "Ideas Estéticas" and his manifold critical essays. For Menéndez, as for most critics, the novel is a secondary literary form. It represents the ultimate degeneration of the epopée, and therefore did not and could not exist in the really classic age of Greek literature. Classic Greek has no genuine novel, unless, perhaps, the "Cyropædia" be classified as historical romance, and certainly the Alexandrian, the Greco-Roman, and the Byzantine periods are those most important for the development of the novel. At the same time, an undeniable prelude to the coming novel is found in Lucian, with his imaginary accounts of journeys, his remnants of Milesian tales, his philosophical allegories and the like.

Greek shows hardly any trace of the realistic novel of manners. In Rome, however, this form is clearly present in the work of Petronius and in that of Apuleius. The former has influenced modern literature only slightly, but the latter's "Golden Ass" has inspired a large number of dramatic and novelistic productions, and it is Menéndez y Pelayo's opinion that most of our autobiographical novels, and especially the Spanish picaresque genre of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, owe something to Apuleius. This hint of a literary source for at least a part of the make-up of the Spanish novel of roguery, is interesting and plausible; it has been too readily assumed that the "Lazarillo" and its kindred are of wholly native inspiration.

Passing now to the body of his treatise, Menéndez y Pelayo surveys the course of the Oriental apologue and tale in the West and particularly in Spain. Upon the history of the "Kalila and Dimna" and the "Sindibad" legends he dwells with due regard to their significance, and he traces the Oriental heritage down through the productions of leading authors of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, among them Juan Manuel and the Archbishop of Talavera.

One of the most attractive divisions of the volume is that devoted to the chivalrous romance. In this chiefly exotic form he notes many borrowed factors. Thus, contributions were made by the Carolingian and Breton cycles, by the Italian romances of chivalry that hark back thereto, by the mediæval history of Troy, by the Greco-Oriental novels exemplified by the "Floire et Blanchefleur," by the stories of the Crusades, and so on. But, strange to say, Menéndez believes that the vast mass of chivalrous literature made no very strong impression upon the Spanish national life. "The ease," he says, "with which the romances disappeared and the profound oblivion that descended upon them indicate that they were not really popular, that they had not penetrated into the consciousness of the people, although for some time they dazzled their imaginations with brilliant phantasmagorias." To all of this many critics will hardly subscribe; the vogue of the "Amadis" and its congeners was certainly too enormous and too continuous to permit us to consider it in the light of a passing fad.

Waiving the question of the date of the "Amadis," we must concede that the oldest

romance of chivalry indigenous to Spain is the fourteenth century "Caballero Cifar," the sources of which an American student, Mr. Wagner, has industriously investigated. To this story historians have at last begun to give an all too tardy justice, and now Menéndez y Pelayo points out—as he has done also in his tercentenary "Discurso" on the "Don Quixote"—that the figure of the Ribaldo, the picaresque squire of the Knight Cifar, is a prototype of the immortal Sancho Panza. It is hard to escape the conclusion, after reading the earlier story, that Cervantes, for whom Sancho Panza was really an afterthought, since Don Quixote issued forth on his first sally unattended by any squire, read and imitated the "Caballero Cifar."

After the novel of chivalrous adventure, the author considers at great length the categories of the sentimental, the historical, and the pastoral novel. To his treatment of these subjects unstinted praise should be given; it is characterized by great fulness, accuracy, and lucidity, even when he deals with the artificial, perplexing, and deadly dull romances of shepherds and shepherdesses. We shall await with eagerness the appearance of the continuation of the "Orígenes de la Novela."

The German Universities and University Study. By Friedrich Paulsen, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Berlin. Authorized Translation by Frank Thilly, Professor of Psychology in Princeton University, and William W. Elwang. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3 net.

This is Professor Paulsen's well-known work, translated in 1895 by Prof. E. D. Perry, enlarged to more than four times its size, and fresh in the clear, forcible English of Professor Thilly. Curiously enough, there is no mention of the earlier German or English volumes, though Paulsen gives Professor Perry ample recognition for his study of the American university field. The work is an absorbing presentation of the theme, and by its rather frequent allusion to American institutions, throws not a little sidelight on the progress of the higher education here. There is an introductory chapter on the general character of the German university and another, on its historical development from the Middle Ages to the present time; there is a discussion of its present organization and place in public life, and a study of the university teacher, university instruction, and that *Lehrfreiheit* which, to quote Paulsen, made Stanley Hall, ten years ago, exclaim: "The German university is to-day the freest spot on earth"; there is an investigation of the student and of student life, with special reference to *Lernfreiheit*, or elective privileges; and there is a review of the different faculties of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy, the unity of which, as formerly, the author contends, centres about the school of philosophy. There is, too, a bibliography, a list of German universities, and an extensive, but incomplete, index. The work, however, is something more, and for the educator in general: Professor Paulsen chats with us, and even gives us lengthy dissertations on methods in lecturing and teaching—the

form of the lecture, the question of textbooks, the nature of the student—thus making the work, without doubt, all that Professor Thilly claims for it—"the most satisfactory exposition of university problems and the most helpful practical guide in solving them that has been published in recent years."

Admitting the dangers of the "big leap" from school to university (which, by the way, Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler pointed out in his Introduction to the first edition in English), Paulsen thinks that Germans "might approximate the English-American system with intermediate and transition steps between the school and independent scientific research," and suggests it as a good place to put in the year of military service, with its broadening, disciplinary value. With Andrew D. White he attributes to the German universities much of the fame that Germany enjoys in America, notes with satisfaction the number of American scholars who "studied and won their doctorates in Germany," and thinks that Americans have had greater success than either the English or the French in unifying scientific labor and instruction. In accord with Kant, Paulsen believes that science exists in order to be of service to mankind, and that science is therefore the concern of the people as well as of scholars. Thus he comes naturally to the small but promising beginning in university extension work, after the example of the English and American colleges, which has been made in Berlin, Leipzig, and Munich. In co-education and its modified acceptance in German academic circles, Professor Paulsen sees only the recognition of a just demand by women for greater opportunities, but—and this will be of special interest to those who know Paulsen's recent private views on the attitude of the German universities to *das ewige Weib*—he does not find in the rising woman, with her physical and consequent mental limitations, either any serious danger to man or any promise of additional strength to advanced science.

Our author glories in the intellectual freedom of the German university, commending the ultimate decision in the famous case of Dr. Arons, the *privat-docent* of physics, who was arraigned by the Government for affiliation with the Social Democrats, and defended by the University of Berlin; rejoices that American universities, like the French, have caught the German watchword of "original research"; and, with Lamprecht, in his recent "Americana," believes that some of the higher institutions here are making great strides in freeing themselves from all trammels. He draws the line, however, at various schemes which are growing in favor in the Western world, and which seem to him fads. He objects in particular to the plan for a seminary of "university pedagogics"; the only seminary for the training of teachers, he declares, is the "master's studio," at the feet of a modern Gamaliel. Of the international exchange of professors now going on between Germany and America, and proposed for other countries, Paulsen says nothing, although it was long discussed before the German Emperor gave it his support. He does recommend, however, the sending of German students to America for a term or two, to round out their training. In theological matters Pro-

fessor Paulsen seems unusually fair, especially in treating the question of additional Roman Catholic faculties of theology to give adequate exposition to their side; he does not hesitate, however, to say that Catholicism needs a revival of a "freer, deeper, more personal religious life," and that "if Catholicism expects to live, if it does not wish to cast its lot exclusively with the decaying group of nations, it will be compelled once again to submit to the Germanic spirit," to heed the warning of changes in its own ranks in America and elsewhere.

Taking up the matter of both professors and students, the distinguished author has much to observe of special interest to Americans. He has a good word for the system in Germany by which a professor is excused from duty in old age rather than neglected or even retired on a pension; he reprobates sharply the increase in titles and decorations among professors, and condemns the professor who is occasionally tempted to shine in the limelight of the daily press. He advocates the erection of dormitories in large cities and the encouraging of students to leave their undesirable private quarters; and he favors the still further introduction of healthy out-door sports among the students, not merely for their own sake, but in the hope that through them the German public may be reached. Paulsen also advises the abolition of *Stundung*, or delayed payments of fees, which burden students and often require police and court aid to collect. He finds in fraternities some of the opportunities for students to rub up against all kinds of people, as in the general society of English and American colleges; and he severely condemns duelling and, for the most part, the *Mensur*, though pointing out one or two good influences resulting from it. Altogether the professor holds several briefs for the German university student. He does not believe there is much wanton shirking of lectures; cites the known fact that there is no rowdiness in a class-room (would that we Americans could say as much!); and notes that if any student offends, as by even regularly coming late to a lecture, "the students themselves do police duty." Social and economic changes, however, especially in great cities, are doing away with many of the good old customs of the past, and with the steady increase in attendance, professors and students are drawing further and further apart.

Aus Meinem Leben: Erinnerungen von Rudolf Haym. Aus dem Nachlass herausgegeben. Mit zwei Bildnissen. Berlin: Gaertners Buchhandlung.

Four years have passed since these autobiographical sketches of Haym were published as a private memoir, and to-day, with their re-issue in popular form, we are still better able to judge the striking personality of this German scholar. Unfortunately, the work is incomplete: it begins with Haym's birth at Grünberg, Silesia, October 5, 1821, extends through more than forty eventful years of social, political, and literary revolution, but fails to record the fruitful period in which the great critic wrote his "Romantische Schule" and "Life

of Herder." It fails necessarily, also, to show us how Haym, following his long series of contests with the German Government, maintained his individuality while settling down in a Government university and adapting himself to his later environment. For his last decades, Haym was the most honored figure at the great University of Halle; thousands of foreigners studied under him and his relations with Americans were particularly agreeable; yet because, on his vacation trip to St. Anton in the Tyrol, in 1901, his light died out suddenly before he had finished his task, there is scarcely any allusion to his foreign friends and disciples, where we should have expected a mass of reminiscence and personal anecdote. That which has flowed from the pen of the old man, however, bears on every page the stamp of the painstaking, conscientious diary-keeper; his *Selbstbiographie* has that rarest of all autobiographical virtues, absolute honesty and openness of mind and heart. Those who knew Haym personally will recall him as manly and straightforward in the extreme; and in the volume before us he lays bare his innermost feeling concerning not only others but himself. Indeed, some of the spiciest passages give the riper opinion of his own early literary, bread-winning, and love performances, and there are not a few well-directed, though kindly, thrusts at his forerunners and contemporaries. Evidently the manuscript has been little changed.

Haym was preëminently a literary critic and his literary and academic career first engages our attention. Disturbed as it was, it had, after all, considerable unity of purpose and result. Sweating over algebra, as a non-mathematical *Junge*, he became early acquainted with Herder's works, and from his first entry into Halle, in 1839, he had a distinct longing for the fields of literature and of higher education. He thought of theology, and on the advice of Gesenius, made several vain attempts to prepare for the Church; he worked on encyclopædias, writing philosophical articles, and learning English; he received his Ph.D. in 1841, and passed his State examination, doing well in ancient languages, but flunking on the map of Rome—though he had marked up the wall and furniture of his room with geographical names. He tried his hand at *gymnasium* teaching at Cologne, but failed on account of near-sightedness (having run a knife into one eye when he was a boy), his Silesian dialect, and his inability to control the pupils. In 1850 he entered Halle University as a *privat-docent*, and finally, in 1860, established himself there as professor to succeed Pratz. During these years his association with eminent men had a marked effect on his career. His first visit to Gesenius brought him the reproving advice to come next time at a more reasonable hour; he was taken under the wing of Niemeyer in the trying days of his *Fuchsthum* at the university; he visited Turnvater Jahn on his first journey to Weimar and the Wartburg, and met Eduard Erdmann, who later opposed his entrance to the Halle faculty; he attacked none other than Lachmann, and won his friendship thereby; and he came into close touch with Kuno Fischer, the elder Droysen, Gustav Freytag, Mommsen, and the brothers Humboldt. Erdmann's political objections to Haym were overruled by the Government,

and Haym was appointed to Halle while Erdmann was still rector. Custom required Erdmann to welcome Haym officially, but he showed his spleen by an address in which he declared his difference with Haym on political issues, avowed ignorance of anything that Haym had as yet done in literature, and expressed the wish that, since he was appointed despite the faculty's will, he might soon write something of value.

Haym's own account of the political movements with which he was identified is full of interest. We find him in his teens at Halle partaking, as a radical *Theolog*, of the student unrest there; at Rudelsburg, on Pfingsten, 1840, we hear him shouting with the rest of the *Burschen* at the news of Frederick William III.'s death; a little later, with several students, he overpowers a trio of constables and releases a woman charged with notorious theft; he is called before the police on account of his close identification with the theological movement at Halle, is told that he is ahead of time in his views, and astounds the chief of police with the answer: "We are the times!" He tries to live at Halle, in 1845, and is opposed on political grounds; he writes a political comedy, becomes editor of the proceedings of the first Prussian Legislature, of which body he was also a member, is swayed by the news from Paris of the February Revolution and duped by Hansemann into going to Berlin to join the agitators there, and so on through the early years of his life.

The personal side of Haym must always have presented much that was attractive, though as a boy and youth he was timid and reticent to a degree that interfered with his progress—a weakness that prevented him later in all three parliaments, powerful as he was with his pen, from making a single speech or taking part in any debate. We find him a boy among boys, now drawn into a scheme to cheat the theatre with cancelled tickets, now evading the gymnasium on account of an unwillingness to flirt with the all-too-fascinating daughter of the common drill-master, and then half-drowning in the swimming school through his repugnance to water and the swimming teacher's determination that he shall get all he can of it. He pictures himself as a youth welcomed to Halle Vereins by the romantic dreamers of that slower age, one of whom finds Haym's heart in a heavenly hour, by asking, *Hast du denn deine Ideale?* and we catch him failing to take a water-cure, because he carries too long each day with the miller's daughter, and never reaches the old water-wheel, used for a shower-bath!

Nelson's Encyclopædia. Volumes I., II., and III. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons. (To be complete in twelve volumes. Price \$42.)

In the three volumes before us the editors and compilers have fairly well accomplished their purpose of furnishing a high class reference work for busy men. Since there is no pretence to literary merit the lack of it can scarcely be criticised. For those who seek a "family" encyclopædia in which to follow "courses of reading" during winter evenings, the present production will be inadequate. It cannot take the place of the German "Brockhaus" or "Meyers,"

the English "Britannica," or less extensive works such as "Chambers'" and the "New International." But, despite many grave faults, it is, in concise treatment of topics of general and current interest, perhaps the most useful compilation yet published. In method it follows to the extreme the idea of the "Konversations Lexikon"; that is, each distinct part of a large subject is treated as a separate article in its appropriate alphabetical order. In this respect the "Nelson" more nearly than any of the other large cyclopædias approaches the abridged French "Larousse."

In the maps and illustrations we note one of the most striking shortcomings in these volumes. The maps are, if anything, below the ordinary low level of American-made maps. Beside a few poor colored maps of the larger divisions there are numerous black and white line maps of cities, States, and nations, many of which are little more than undecipherable blotches. The illustrations by their character and profusion are clearly intended to popularize the volumes, but here, too, quality has been sacrificed to quantity. There are colored plates, execrable both in taste and workmanship, and poorly printed half-tone portraits of the grade one finds in daily newspapers. The "current interest" fetish is responsible for a series of page groups such as "Admirals of the United States Navy," who are not all admirals, and of "Famous Actors of America," including such modern celebrities as Sothorn and Mrs. Fiske. The effect of many otherwise good full-page portraits, of which Burns and Aristotle are examples, is marred by printing on the back, which shows plainly on the face of the picture. The only acceptable illustrations are the simple line drawings of architectural works, machinery, and the like.

The bulk of the text was prepared in England with an avowed subordination of literary and classical subjects to those of "living interest." This English text is now publishing in England under the title of "Harmsworth's Encyclopædia," to which British authors and scholars of the highest rank have largely contributed. The best of these contributions remain intact, and are among the most valuable parts of the work. For sale in this country, however, the encyclopædia has been extended and thoroughly "Americanized"; and this process has introduced many new articles of varying quality. The result has been some rather startling examples of disproportion; for instance, Benedict Arnold and John Brown are accorded more space, respectively, than Alfred the Great and John Bunyan. Length, however, is not a just criterion of value, and as a rule the long biographical articles, such as those mentioned and the articles on John, John Quincy, and Charles Francis Adams are exceptionally well done. The same praise cannot be accorded the shorter gazetteer articles and the minor biographies; many of the latter, particularly those of contemporary notables, are mere outlines, like those in "Who's Who." Some of these short outlines are singularly inadequate. There is no estimate of Gertrude Atherton's writings, but space is given to the statement that she "has passed much time in England and the Continent"; while Poultney Bigelow appears to be chiefly

"known for his voyages in a canoe on European rivers."

Many slips appear, such as the use of "Boonesboro" and "Boonesborough" in the same article, and calling Beloit College a "Congregational" institution in the article on the city, and a "non-sectarian" institution in the article devoted to the college itself. Simple proof errors, however, seem to be unusually few. Some of the brief definitions are curious, to say the least; for example, "Bulbul, an Arabic word much used in Persian poetry, though there is some dispute as to the bird to which it applies." Of minor errors of fact there are many. Concord became the capital of New Hampshire in 1808, not in 1816; Arkansas, like the rest of the Louisiana Purchase, was for a time under Spanish sovereignty; Stephen F. Austin founded San Felipe de Austin (now San Felipe), a town on the Brazos River, in 1822, and not Austin, the present capital of Texas. It is of course incorrect to say that David R. Atchison actually "was President of the United States" even for a single day. The fact that there is both a Charleston and a Charlestown in West Virginia, probably accounts for the omission of the first, which, in addition to being the State capital, is by far the more important. Such errors, irritating as they are, can be so easily remedied in future editions, and are confined so generally to minor articles, that too much stress should not be laid upon them. Still their frequency, and the sacrifice of purely classical, antiquarian, and literary subjects, in order to make room for topics of contemporary and passing interest, form a serious objection to a work possessing many admirable features.

The Making of an Orator: With Examples from Great Masterpieces of Ancient and Modern Eloquence. By John O'Connor Power of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law, and sometime M. P. for the County of Mayo. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.35 net.

This book is undoubtedly interesting and valuable; yet it is not entirely obvious who will most appreciate its interest and value. It is announced in the preface to be "intended for students, young or old, who have had no practice in public speaking, and for speakers who are not unwilling to consider suggestions made by another."

And undoubtedly most of its suggestions would be of great value to unpractised speakers, if such were able to carry them out in full confidence. But the truth of them, and still more their practicability, can hardly be appreciated, except by those who have already had practice, and even some measure of success in speaking. The author reduces oratory as far as possible to its elements—an audible voice, a clear arrangement of facts, historical illustration, logical argumentation, profound and sincere conviction. He urges again and again that to make one's self an orator every one of these essentials must be cultivated; and then prescribes that they are to be practised and developed in this order: first, clearness of speech only; secondly, delivery of speeches containing nothing but facts, gradually adding and superadding each of the elements. The difficulty

here is that any speech to produce the effect which Mr. Power contemplates must contain all these elements from the very beginning, or it is no speech at all. He approves to a limited extent of committing to memory and delivering select extracts. But he is eager to hurry his novice to original composition, and dwells with great energy on the superior character of extempore speaking, urging the usual consideration that so only will freshness be secured. Yet it is a matter of common observation that most speeches which have no previous aid from a pen are anything but fresh; a rehash of the old thoughts and phrases which come crowding to a speaker's lips, pushing back the really fresh thoughts whose wonted residence is the tip of the pen. It is safe to say that an oration, devised by Mr. Power's method, so far from having a truly spontaneous character would be artificial in the extreme. There are countless useful anecdotes and warnings interspersed to forestall such a disastrous result. But their point will be scarcely perceptible to the young mechanic, constructing his orations by a series of precepts to be applied externally. They will sound very familiar and trite to the speaker, who has already learned his art by plunging in headlong, as one learns to swim, or, better, as one learns to ride, where the riding-master has given half a dozen directions to be observed all at once, and where a single failure will land one on the ground.

The masterpieces of oratory are in general well selected. Those from Demosthenes and Cicero are in translation, and as far as the Cicero goes in a poor translation, artificial and over-ornamented. There is nothing from any great French preacher or other speaker, where a really good translation would be much easier to find. The English extracts, from Burke, Gladstone, Bright, and others are good; and a liberal compliment to American oratory is followed by Mr. Lincoln's Gettysburg address; while an after-dinner speech of Mr. Choate's is given as a model of lighter speaking.

Such models, as indeed the author himself admits, are likely to do more for the young orator's training than the elaborate precepts; the truth of which will generally be thoroughly admitted—by those who have no need of them.

Drama and Music.

If A. W. Pinero is not absolutely the first of living English dramatists he certainly is one of the most expert makers of plays. His skill in the art of technical construction was shown even in his earliest farces, and has been growing ever since, until his mechanism now is often not unworthy of comparison with that of Ibsen himself. There is a fine example of it in the curiously named "His House in Order," which was performed here for the first time in the Empire Theatre, Monday evening. It is scarcely likely that the piece will be as successful in New York as it was in London, not only because the subject is unsympathetic and the types of character essentially British, but because the American performers are not success-

ful in bringing out the full effect of Mr. Pinero's dialogue, which is superior in general quality to that of most of his contemporaries. This shortcoming is all the more unfortunate, as for two acts the interest depends mainly upon the explanatory and satirical qualities of the conversation. As usual the peculiar ability of the author is shown in the manufacture of one or two leading situations to which all minor considerations of probability are subordinated. This comparative indifference to the nature of the premises necessary to the establishment of a climax was exhibited in "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray," "The Notorious Mrs. Ebbsmith" and "The Gay Lord Quex," to say nothing of that extraordinary blunder, "A Wife Without a Smile." In the present instance he wished to lead up to a climax in which a young woman, the second wife of a widower, driven to desperation by the perpetual tyranny of the family of her husband's first wife, is suddenly, by chance, placed in the possession of evidence clearly proving that her predecessor, instead of being a paragon of all the virtues, had betrayed her husband shamefully, even to the extent of imposing upon him, as his own heir, her lover's child. Clearly this is a situation providing a rare opportunity for an actress of genuine emotional power, but the combination of circumstances by which it is secured will not bear close investigation. All the conditions and most of the personages involved are abnormal. Some of the incidents are almost grotesque, as when the husband and the rest insist that the second wife shall put on mourning to attend a ceremony in honor of the first. But Mr. Pinero rarely hesitates, apparently, at any expedient which, in the end, may serve his dramatic purpose. In his latest play, having endowed the down-trodden wife, with means for the fullest revenge, he makes her resign them voluntarily, and subject herself to new humiliations, in a spirit of Christian resignation inspired by a diplomat, who is her ally. As one of Ibsen's women remarks, "People do not do such things." Nevertheless "His House in Order" is, technically, a wonderfully well-made play, and very interesting after the action has once got into full swing. The characters, especially the narrow, bigoted, conceited, pharisaical Ridgeley family, are admirably drawn, but here the veracious effect of them was marred by the exaggeration of the performers. The dialogue, without being particularly brilliant, has a conciseness and point which give it a positive literary value, and would probably be more effective in print than on the stage, where it is uttered with very little sense of its varied shades of meaning. But elocution is rapidly becoming a lost art among actors. "His House in Order" as a life study, is an advance upon Mr. Pinero's so-called problem plays, though of less interest, perhaps, to the general public. If it adds nothing to his reputation it will detract nothing from it.

The great Theatre Alla Scala, at Milan, is an example of a theatre that is administered not to make money, but as a centre of art, for the education as well as the pleasure of the people. It is in part owned by the city, and received from it, until 1901, a considerable subvention; in that year it was decided by a referendum that

this subvention be suppressed; and for a time the theatre was helped out by a syndicate of boxholders. A commission was appointed last March to propose measures for adoption after the termination of the present contract with the boxholders. In their report recently made, they propose that in a new contract for nine years the city should, by remission of taxes, facilitation of a renewed system of illumination, assumption of the expense of certain changes in the building, etc., enable the theatre to satisfy the demands of a modern public. They support these proposals on the ground that, as the theatre is in part the property of the city, and is an institution of public benefit, and not an instrument for making money, it is the duty of the community, as in the case of a hospital or a museum, to maintain and increase its effectiveness. Among the changes proposed is the lowering of the orchestra, after the manner of Bayreuth and other theatres, and the conversion of the fifth tier of boxes into a sort of superior gallery, for people of moderate means, who cannot afford a box, and do not like the promiscuity of "the gods." By this means, and by maintaining the eight performances (out of the fifty that constitute a season) at reduced prices, they hope to obviate the objection to the opera as the rich man's pleasure, and increase the opportunities for culture of the general public.

The chief event of the Mozart Festival at Salzburg was a performance of the ninth symphony of Bruckner. It was to have been conducted by Dr. Muck, but he could not come, and Richard Strauss took his place. Bruckner died before his works were appreciated. Now they are being played with success everywhere—except in America. The boycott placed in our concert halls on the symphonies of Bruckner is as astonishing as the neglect of Rubinstein's works, which, with their abundance of warm melody, are always sure of a warm welcome.

The Germans at last have an up-to-date book on their deepest musical thinker. It is by Professor Wolfrum of Heidelberg, and is published in Berlin by Bard, Marquardt & Co. Spitta's Bach biography, in two volumes, is a monumental work of erudition and analysis, but it is for reference only, while Wolfrum's is a book to read; it contains also the results of the latest researches. The author shows that Bach, like Wagner, Liszt, and the other great masters, had to spend his life "amid persistent annoyance, envy, and persecution."

The *New Music Review* for September has an interesting article by Lawrence Gilman entitled "A Neglected Page of Wagner." It is concerned with the Paris version of "Tannhäuser," concerning which Mr. Gilman says: "Throughout the seventy-odd pages which now comprise the bacchanale and the first scene proper, there is scarcely a measure that has not undergone some transformation, harmonic, rhythmic, or orchestral; and there is a liberal proportion of absolutely new matter." The musical journalists have not paid sufficient attention to these wonderful changes, with their suggestions of "Tristan," "Meistersinger," and "Parsifal," which so greatly heighten the beauty and the intensity of the music.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

Avery, Myrta Lockett. *Dixie, After the War.* Doubleday, Page & Co. \$2.75 net.
 Baughan, Edward Algerion. *Music and Musicians.* John Lane.
 Block, Louis James. *Many Moods and Many Minds.* John Lane.
 Briggs, Charles Augustus. *Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Book of Psalms.* Vol. I. Scribners.
 Cawein, Madison. *Nature-Notes and Impressions.* E. P. Dutton & Co.

Champlin, John Denison. *Young Folks' Cyclopaedia of Persons and Places.* 5th ed. Holt & Co. \$2.50.
 Flint, Robert. *Socialism.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
 Hopkins, William John. *The Alrship Dragonfly.* Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1.25 net.
 Hume, Fergus. *The Mystery of the Shadow.* B. W. Dodge & Co. \$1.50.
 Illustrated Catalogue of a Loan Collection of Portraits. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.
 Songs Every Child Should Know. Edited by Dolores Bacon. Doubleday, Page & Co. 90 cents net.

Taylor, Joseph S. *Art of Class Management and Discipline.* A. S. Barnes & Co.
 Travels in the Far West. Edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites. *The Far West,* by Edmund Flagg; *Letters and Sketches,* by Father Pierre Jean de Snet. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
 Watson, H. B. Marriott. *A Midsummer Day's Dream.* D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.
 Wildenbruch's (von) *Das Edle Blnt.* Edited by Ashley K. Hardy. Holt & Co. 35 cents.
 Williams, H. Noel. *Five Fair Sisters.* G. P. Putnam's Sons.
 Wilson, F. R. L. and G. W. Hedley. *Elementary Chemistry.* Part II. Henry Frowde. \$1.25.

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NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 13, 1906.

The Week.

Monday's election in Maine looks like a very black eye for the Republicans. In any previous year, they themselves would have so regarded it. To see their plurality for Governor cut from 26,000 to 8,000; to have the majorities for their Congressmen whittled away by from 2,500 to 6,000 votes; to witness the Democrats more than doubling their representation in the Legislature, and carrying all but four of the twenty cities of the State—these things could not have happened to them at any time within thirty years past without exciting both wonder and apprehension. In this year of grace and optimism, however, able Republican explainers arise to make light of it all. A political black eye? Oh, you are wholly mistaken; that is only a dark circle indicating excessive thought. Anyhow, a little skilful painting will make it almost imperceptible. The first dab of whitening is, of course, a reference to the Maine prohibitory law. But the Democrats, having the same demand for resubmission in their platform of 1902, were then beaten by more than 27,000 votes. Again in 1904 they tried to sail with the anti-prohibition current, but were again defeated by over 26,000 votes. Admitting a certain heightened resentment at attempts really to enforce the prohibitory law in cities—for to make prohibition more than a dead letter in any large town in Maine is the sure way to rouse the electorate to fury—it is clear that some force must have been at work this year which was not operative in 1902 and 1904.

Another explanation, though a disquieting one to the very Republicans who offer it, is that the labor vote went solidly for the Democrats. The result in Mr. Littlefield's district is especially referred to. His plurality two years ago was nearly 6,000; Monday it was barely 1,000. Mr. Gompers will undoubtedly point to this marked loss as a direct result of his invasion of the Second District, and of his appeals to laboring men to vote against Littlefield. Yet Congressman Allen's plurality sank 3,400; and that of Congressman Powers fell off more than 6,000; and Gompers did not speak against either of them. Indeed, there were some shrewd observers who alleged that Gompers rather aided Littlefield than otherwise; the Democratic candidate, McGullicuddy, is reported to have said that, if Gompers had only kept away, he would have beaten Littlefield. By making the latter a national figure, votes were won for him

which otherwise he would not have received. We believe that there is much truth in this reasoning; but, of course, it will not seem even plausible to those who do not know the local conditions. Mr. Littlefield's narrow escape will be pointed to all over the country as a demonstration of the political power of the American Federation of Labor. It will alarm the Republicans, and will, we fear, lead them to ignoble concessions to Gompers, and attempts to placate him, instead of withstanding him in the manly fashion of Mr. Littlefield. Chairman Sherman and Speaker Cannon are both singled out for the Gompers lighting, and it will be interesting to see whether they maintain their Ajax attitude, or try to dodge from now on.

Vermont's fame as a political barometer has been sustained by the results of twelve out of the last thirteen elections. For twenty-six years past a Republican plurality of more than 25,000 in the September election has prefaced a Republican victory in the country at large, while, with a single exception—the off-year election of 1898—one of less than that figure has justified the hope of Democratic success. Fletcher D. Proctor's plurality of 15,676, as given in the unofficial returns, is thus rightly regarded as a hopeful sign for the Democrats. For comparison here are the popular pluralities for Governor, with the corresponding pluralities in the House of Representatives and the Electoral College:

	Vermont Governor.	House of Representatives.	Electoral College.
1880	26,603 R	8 R	69 R
1882	21,373 R	74 D	
1884	22,704 R	84 D	37 D
1886	20,522 R	15 D	
1888	28,995 R	7 R	65 R
1890	14,163 R	148 D	
1892	19,702 R	94 D	132 D
1894	28,521 R	142 R	
1896	38,571 R	72 R	122 R
1898	23,869 R	142 R	
1900	31,312 R	45 R	137 R
1902	24,500 R	32 R	
1904	31,559 R	114 R	196 R
1906	15,676 R		

Vermont, it is true, has not often had a campaign conducted so largely on local issues as that of Proctor and Clement has been, but the habit of shifting its vote on national issues is hard to break.

At the Democratic conference in Albany last week there was plenty of inspiration for all who believe that the Democratic party may yet be made of value in the government of this State. For similar earnestness and determination one must turn back to the anti-snap convention of 1892. That gathering was a protest against the unscrupulous methods of David B. Hill, to whose malign influence must largely be attributed the low estate of the Democratic party in New York to-day. This

year's protest had to do mainly with the general disorganization of the party and, next, with the wreckers who, with Hearst at their head, are striving to run off with the remaining parts of the old Hill machine. It was a notable demonstration that in this State there are still Democrats who decline to be bought or to be swept off their feet by the socialistic craze; who yet hold to fixed and historic Democratic principles. More than that, they have a constructive programme. They realize the widespread demand for reform, for the curbing of the criminal corporations. Whether it is in New Jersey, Wisconsin, or Missouri, the popular discontent calls for a change, and with good reason. Here in New York the alliance between the Republican leaders and the pirates of finance makes it impossible to expect any betterment from a machine nomination. Hence the opportunity is the Democracy's.

Portland, Oregon, has a reform Mayor, whose methods of reform are at least thoroughgoing. Harry Lane, a Democrat, it will be remembered, was elected Mayor last year in a strongly Republican city, after the good government element had tried ineffectively in the Republican primary to secure a high-grade nominee for that party. He spent more than a year investigating conditions. Then, suddenly, he electrified Portland by summarily removing the entire city detective force, with the exception of one man. In explanation, he and his police chief have shown the records of crimes committed in the city for ten months past. It appears from these that less than 10 per cent. of the more serious crimes have resulted in arrests. Hence there was a very convincing case of "neglect of duty," certainly far worse than could be sustained on a basis of police records in New York. It will be interesting to watch, however, whether these rejected sleuths really remain off the force. Their appeal for the present seems to be to the Civil Service Board, and not to the courts. But if the Pacific Coast has developed a method by which policemen can be removed so as to stay removed, Eastern cities will soon be sending thitherward to learn how the thing is done.

One State after another may be delivered over to the standpatters, but there is always some State ready to keep alive the cause of tariff revision by the friends of protection. This honor now belongs to Delaware. The Republicans of that State, finally disposing of the pretensions of Addicks as a party leader,

celebrated their victory by uttering what the Philadelphia *Ledger* calls "the first clear note that has been sounded on the Republican side anywhere." Here is the resolution they adopted last week:

We believe that a revision of the present tariff laws in the near future would be beneficial to the great mass of the American people, and we also favor a reduction of duties on imports from the Philippine Islands.

This is so plain and unequivocal that voters will find it hard to believe that it is a quotation from a party platform at all. There are no mealy-mouthed phrases about injury to "any American industry," but a simple statement of what the Republicans of Delaware want done. The Blue Hen State was the first to ratify the Federal Constitution. If it leads the way to freer trade, it will again deserve the gratitude of the country.

The news from Cuba is increasingly serious, while the mystery of it deepens. Who is behind this revolt? Whence come the funds that supply the revolutionists with arms and munitions? We do not pretend to believe the stories that filibustering expeditions are being fitted out in this country to aid the revolution, but it is undeniable that the very secrecy which surrounds the whole thing is a cause for uneasiness. In previous revolutions the sources of supply have been pretty well known. This one began without the slightest warning in the way of premonitory rumors. Its rapid spread and the refusal of the leaders to accept amnesty or a truce are causing many people to ask what powerful force is behind it all. It is an unfortunate fact that there are certain large business interests in this country which have everything to gain from a long and disastrous revolution, resulting, perhaps, in American intervention and annexation. In their interest alone it would be desirable to have the present mystery cleared up as soon as possible.

"Somebody ought to have known; somebody ought to have told." That is the burden of many comments on bank defalcations like those of the past few weeks. The solemn resolution of the American Institute of Bank Clerks last Thursday, that it is the duty of clerks in financial institutions to expose the irregularities of their superiors, indicates at least that those who are likely to be in a position to suspect such peculations are awakening to their responsibilities. Why any one should have considered applying the schoolboy's abhorrence of "peaching" to the service of a bank clerk is really one of the mysteries. The honest patrolman, as Mr. McAdoo says in his book, will not associate with the grafter, but neither will he tell what he

knows against him. There may have been bank clerks who, on seeing other people's money disappearing in the pockets of the men trusted with it, would exclaim, "No, loyalty and sentiment and the honor of the bank compel me to mind my own business. However, I will not add to the loss by stealing myself." If the Atlantic City resolution is meant for such, it will profit them to read it. Otherwise the criminal law regarding accessories before the fact covers the same point fairly well.

If the packing-house scandals did not decrease the sales of Chicago meat products, where was the packers' grievance all the time? "The Jungle" was published on March 3, 1905. Three months later eleven million more pounds of packing-house products were being sold than in the previous July. The total domestic trade for seven months has been 300,000,000 pounds greater than the corresponding total for the year before the exposures began. It is the foreign and not the domestic trade that has suffered. Nothing could be much more illogical, because everybody with the slightest claim to speak with authority has explained that our export products were far and away superior to those for home consumption. It would be only natural for sales to increase after the new meat-inspection law had guaranteed their quality. Yet the unexpected stimulus to trade, which the packers explain on the ground that the South is selling more cotton and buying more ham and bacon, may have a supplemental explanation in the singular ease and promptness with which the American public gets over a scare and forgets a warning.

The victory of Cambridge over Harvard naturally comes as a disappointment; everything seemed so favorable this year for an American success. Apparently, the crossing of the ocean, the taking in of a substitute, the climatic changes, and the recent great heat were obstacles not easily overcome. But in addition there is the formidable English stroke; we confess that its triumph and that of amateur coaching over professional is the one consolation. The long, easy stroke of the Thames ought to win, for it is the natural one, and is best fitted for the physical training of those who row. Had Harvard succeeded, the professional coach would have been more firmly entrenched at the American Cambridge than ever. Beaten in a fair pull, the Harvard crew have been admirable representatives of the best sportsmanship in America; they faced considerable ill luck without grumbling and took the chances of a difficult and trying course. Their pluck will not fail of its proper recognition. May it be given to at least

some of them to turn the tables next year.

An undercurrent of dissatisfaction with what is known as the universal rule of yacht measurement has been apparent in certain quarters throughout the present season, the main contention being that displacement should not be a factor in the rating of a racing craft. Now comes the announcement that at the approaching meeting of the New York Yacht Club an effort will be made to reopen the whole question of yacht rating. If this be true, the result will be nothing less than a calamity. The rule in question was framed at a meeting of Atlantic seaboard yacht clubs in order to eliminate the racing machine, a craft of excessive overhangs, unfit to sail in tumultuous weather, and fit for nothing but racing. The conferrees desired to produce a full-bodied yacht, the greater displacement of which was to be at a premium, being deducted from the rating obtained from sail area, and sailing line. Such a rule was adopted, and its success may be measured by the record of the Herreshoff schooner *Queen* and the sloop *Effort*, designed by Henry Gielow. Why, in the face of facts presented by these boats, a rating revision should be agitated, is puzzling. Opponents of the universal rule allege that the extra weight of the boats of the new type causes them to bury their noses in a heavy sea, and that they lack accommodations, neither of which allegations is borne out by the facts. A graver criticism is made: the schooners to be produced by Herreshoff and Cary Smith next season, they say, will present vicious extremities of the rule, measuring 87 feet on the water line, and yet rating with *Queen*. It may be stated authoritatively that neither of these yachts will exceed 92 feet water line. The new rule, in brief, offered brilliant promise, which has been partially fulfilled. Let us accord it the thorough test it merits.

Simplified spelling would seem to be by way of slaying its thousands, if one could accept without scrutiny the list of 825 university and college professors who have been pledged since August 1 to lead the simpler orthographical life. But to begin with, these scholars have promised merely to use the new spellings "so far as practicable," and, next, as a whole the signers carry rather little weight on the matter in hand. There are, to be sure, a few professors of literature on the list, and a handful who may be said to represent a kind of literary authority, but by and large the list, so far as published, is made up of teachers of science. These gentlemen are doubtless willing to help a good cause along, and presumably many of them have given their adhesion to simplified spelling much as they would to a petition

for universal virtue. But their correspondence is, after all, not the norm and mirror of good literary form. Any editor who has had experience with academic contributors knows too well that in many cases it makes no difference what grammar, rhetoric, or spelling-book they profess, practically they phrase worse and spell no better than the average college graduate. Their preference does not constitute literary precedent. We begin to fear the simplifiers when we learn that Mark Twain, W. D. Howells, Henry James, T. B. Aldrich, and other writers of that grade are insisting that their works be printed in the new style.

Mark Twain's autobiography, which begins in the current *North American Review*, will be far more interesting than his diaries of Adam and Eve, just because he has, in writing about himself, the kind of realistic background that he always needed for his best work. It is too much to hope that Mr. Clemens, while discussing the *quibusdam aliis* according to his plan, will give away to some oncoming author the secret of his genial humor. But there is a delightful hint at his method in this first instalment. We have known that the works by which he will be remembered are those that spring from the homely soil of the Middle West, and from the life he actually knew. It begins to appear now that his characters, too, were drawn from real people. The inimitable Col. Sellers was a genuine person, a cousin of Mr. Clemens; and those turnips and that bucket of water were a fact. Mr. Clemens himself, as a boy, ate and drank of that repast, while the Colonel presided as if over a royal banquet. And the prophetic millions were no invention of the humorist. Late in life the Colonel dined with Mr. Clemens and Mr. Cable, and the undaunted gentleman began to tell of a little project he had begun in New Mexico through his son:

Under his deft hands it grew, and blossomed, and spread—oh, beyond imagination. At the end of half an hour he finished; finished with the remark, uttered in an adorably languid manner:

"Yes, it is but a trifle, as things go nowadays—a bagatelle—but amusing. It passes the time. The boy thinks great things of it, but he is young, you know, and imaginative; lacks the experience which comes of handling large affairs, and which tempers the fancy and perfects the judgment. I suppose there's a couple of millions in it, possibly three, but not more, I think; still, for a boy, you know, just starting in life, it is not bad. I should not want him to make a fortune—let that come later. It could turn his head, at his time of life, and in many ways be a damage to him."

Then he said something about his having left his pocketbook lying on the table in the main drawing-room at home, and about its being after banking hours, now, and—

If in any way communicable, Mark

Twain's humor may be said to lie in this acquaintance with the homely and kindly incongruities of actual life.

The Kaiser is the greatest general of the great army of professional optimists. "Pessimists I will not endure," he has just said in Breslau, "and let him who is not suited to labor leave and seek, if he will, a better country." He then proceeded to create a large number of optimists by distributing no less than 921 orders and decorations among his loyal Breslauers. This speech has recalled another one made by the Emperor in 1892 when he went even further and informed all "unhappy grumblers" that they had "better shake the dust of Germany from their slippers and withdraw as rapidly as possible from our wretched and miserable conditions. They would then be better off and they would do us a very great favor." Should the Kaiser really banish all who are pessimistic about his government, the next census would show an alarming falling off in the number of his subjects available for military service. There are, for example, the three million Socialist voters, who are distinctly of a pessimistic cast, and support their candidates against the Emperor's express assertion that only traitors to their country would do so. Perhaps the Kaiser has recently seen in the Berlin papers Alexander Moskowski's bitter little story of the man who fell from the moon, and, after travelling all over the world in search of the best country, returned to Germany for permanent residence. When asked why, he replied: "My reasons are quite simple. I have observed in various countries how the State's money is thrown about and what a part protection, corruption, dissipation, folly, and waste have each played in its expenditure. The extreme of each of these faults I found in Germany. So I said to myself, 'A nation which can stand all that without jumping the track must be the best.' Therefore I want to become a German." There is just enough truth in this little tale to have given it a wide circulation in the German press.

The *Frankfurter Zeitung*, in many respects the ablest newspaper in Germany and its leading financial daily, has just celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of its establishment. Originally founded as a commercial journal, it has become the foremost exponent of Liberal political beliefs, toadying to no one in authority and unstinted in its censure of narrow bureaucratic methods of government. Had this paper been founded in Berlin it could hardly have become the power it is. Bismarck would have thrown all his influence against it. But Frankfort, the seat of great culture and wealth, was in the forties and fifties the geographical centre of the German Liberal-

ism which survived the revolution of 1848-49, and therefore, even in 1856, a fruitful field for the new newspaper. It is interesting to note in these days of "business-office" and sensational journalism that, without catering either to the advertisers or to scandal-lovers, the paper has been a decided pecuniary success. Its great establishment is one of the sights of Frankfort, and its circulation outside of that city itself is, we believe, unexcelled in Germany. In respect to its special correspondents the world over, it is truly the London *Times* of Germany. As far back as the sixties it had its own representative in New York, and its discussions of American business affairs have been notably fair and intelligent. The same care and attention have been bestowed on the presentation of financial news from other portions of the earth; not even the Argentine Republic is too far away for its affairs to be covered by occasional well-informed letters. But for the foreign reader the *Frankfurter Zeitung* has one defect—the habit of publishing several distinct editions which are in themselves separate issues. Hence the delivery of the parts goes on all day; after the first "morning paper" there may be six or seven more, only to be followed by several four or six-page evening issues, all totally different.

Since more and more American tourists visit Spain each year, the news that the Alhambra, the Mecca of all pilgrims to that country, is in greater danger of total destruction than ever before will arouse widespread interest in this country. The Government contributes 45,000 pesetas a year for its preservation, but that sum has proved quite inadequate for present urgent needs, and one cannot help wishing, therefore, that some wealthy American art patron might immortalize himself by coming to the rescue. That the Alhambra has survived to this day is in itself a marvel. During its five centuries of existence it has been subjected to severe trials. Shattered, at one time, by an explosion, and shaken by earthquakes, it has at other times sunk so low as to be a habitation of smugglers, and even a stable for French army horses. The present danger lies in the fact that the foundations are being undermined by waters from the old ruined conduits. Not only are the Government appropriations insufficient to meet this condition, but the situation is complicated by a quarrel among the three directors. This has resulted in the resignation, after thirty-five years of service, of the eminent expert in Oriental architecture, Señor Contreras. He has restored many of the tiles, as well as the figures and colors and the other mural decorations, thus giving a fair idea of what the Moorish palace was in the days of its glory.

SHAW CONTRA MUNDUM.

Secretary Shaw, speaking at Winston-Salem, N. C., on Monday, dealt man-fashion with the complaint that American protected goods are sold abroad far cheaper than at home. To be sure they are, he said; why not? The Government, by paying drawbacks on goods for export or by permitting their manufacture in bond from free raw materials, intentionally affords this facility to the American manufacturer:

During the last fiscal year approximately \$10,000,000 worth of invoiced ores for smelting, material for manufacture, and distilled spirits and tobacco were thus used, and the entire product exported and no duty or internal revenue paid thereon. . . . To the extent of this saving in the cost of the finished product, the smelter and manufacturer could reduce his export price and still make the same profit.

There we have the matter in its bald simplicity; and Mr. Shaw proceeds confidently to explain why the manufacturer, already virtually subsidized at home, should be freed in addition from any tax that hampers his trade abroad. It is chiefly because the American manufacturer employs labor, and pays to it, by estimate, about half the amount of his gross business. Take more concretely the case of the American Iron and Steel Company of Lebanon, Pa., which exported spikes and bolts for \$75,000 a year, receiving a drawback of \$10,000 against duty paid on its imported raw material. The nature of the transaction Mr. Shaw describes as follows:

In effect, the Government said to this concern: "If you will consume \$35,000 worth of American labor in the manufacture of \$75,000 worth of spikes and bolts, there will be paid back to you as soon as you export your product \$10,000 of the duty which you pay on the billets consumed." This drawback enabled this concern to sell \$75,000 worth of spikes and bolts abroad for \$65,000, and make the same profit as if sold at home for \$75,000.

This concession is made for the further reason that, unhappily, it is impossible "to protect the American producer of spikes and bolts in the foreign market." The Government cannot do everything, but for a struggling and deserving class it will do what it can.

The dogma implied is clear-cut—for this we thank Mr. Shaw: the American manufacturer must be favored in all markets, because the Government regards him as the trustee for American labor. Evidently, he enjoys a monopoly in this trust. The farmers deserve no consideration in this capacity, although they employ nearly four million and a half laborers; somebody or other, according to the census, employs 2,629,000 "laborers not specified"; but this class of employers is not helped that it may help labor. There are about a million women engaged in domestic service; but

Uncle Sam does not aid the average man's business in the ratio that he pays cook, waitress, and laundress. No; Mr. Shaw makes it as clear as crystal that the manufacturing class, and no other, is Uncle Sam's grand almoner. On this point we should be glad to have Mr. Samuel Gompers's opinion. Supposing the Government to be actively in the work of coddling the working man, could not the American Federation of Labor devise some more direct method than remitting the manufacturer's taxes? It might be worth while also to have the opinion of the Charity Organization Society, on procuring employment for the needy by staking an enterprise that paid about half its gross proceeds in wages. But Mr. Shaw deserves all credit for standing by his guns. From him comes no namby-pamby hint of revising the tariff "when conditions permit"; he makes it perfectly clear that the manufacturer is Uncle Sam's baby, and of right and solely entitled to all the pap a paternal Government can provide. Or better, if any infant industry has grown up, it merely becomes an agent of charity, and as such worthy of all support. By the same token, the literary class should be compelled to keep Mr. Carnegie in funds because he spends an appreciable portion of his income in libraries.

This issue Mr. Shaw faces with official optimism and a personal heroism truly exalted. Fully realizing the infamy of buying too cheap, he perceives the blessedness of paying too dear. Industrial suffering there must be, he admits, but he vows:

I will use my best efforts that it come not nigh my country. If, to accomplish this, it shall be necessary that I pay more for my clothes, more for my shoes, more for my sewing machine, more for my typewriter, more for the barbed wire used on my Iowa farm than is paid for the same articles in Europe, then I will not object. I will consent to pay a little more than otherwise would be necessary to the end that the products of American labor shall be put on foreign markets.

Few of us perhaps are capable of this lofty altruism, and of that few how many are willing to undertake the support of the American manufacturer as a means of favoring about 14 per cent. of our wage-earners? Mr. Shaw, as the Calvin of the protective creed, is free to believe that the Dingley act was foreordained from the beginning of the world; but he moves in an atmosphere of faith too rarefied for the plain American citizen.

"RELIEVING THE MONEY MARKET."

That Secretary Shaw's step for relieving the money market last week was taken when the market was approaching a critical position, no one can deny. The stringency, which brought about a

40 per cent. rate for Stock Exchange day-to-day loans, was not confined to speculative borrowings, but had spread to the market for merchants' discounts; rates for such loans had risen to figures seldom paralleled at this season. On the other hand, the cause of this unsettlement was not mercantile operations, but the exploits of a ring of powerful Wall Street speculators. This combination of capitalists, backed apparently by banks and banking houses under their influence, has deranged the whole structure of Wall Street credits. The sound and logical remedy for that danger would be the forced abandonment of their undertaking by these wealthy speculators, and their expulsion from the market as another and equally notorious stock-jobbing clique was expelled, under very similar conditions, in September, 1902. Secretary Shaw has chosen to ignore this possible way out, and to risk the criticism, which will surely be bestowed upon him, for using the Government's resources to help rich speculators out of an awkward scrape.

We do not say that a Secretary of the Treasury should never take steps to relieve a disastrous strain on legitimate business credits. Every such action must be judged according to the gravity of the emergency and the means employed. The method adopted by the Secretary in this instance is, however, open to objection. Mr. Shaw has ventured to repeat his experiment of last April, when Stock Exchange money rates, under the demands of speculators, went to 30 per cent. and New York bank reserves fell below the legal limit. At that time, as at present, Wall Street had been endeavoring to get gold from Europe, and had not succeeded. The Secretary then announced that the price of exchange "had reached the point where gold ought to have been imported," that "the reason it was not engaged was the loss of its use during transit." He therefore decided that Government money should be lent free of interest, against collateral of the savings bank class, to any bank undertaking to import an equivalent amount in gold. The same plan is the present expedient of the Treasury.

Last April, when this new-fangled scheme was tried, we pointed out the fundamental objections. First and foremost, it was avowedly a bit of meddling, by a Government officer, in a market where he had no business whatever. The Treasury, we admit, has some concern in a stringency caused by lock-up of cash in Government vaults. That it has any right or title to concern itself about the rate of foreign exchange, or about a banker's ability to import gold, cannot for an instant be maintained, except on the theory that the Treasury is a fraternal institution, bound to use its available funds for any one's conveni-

ence. Such a theory, baldly stated, is preposterous, yet we defy the most ingenious defender of Mr. Shaw's experiment to produce any other. If the Treasury had been hoarding money and thereby depriving the market of normal facilities, the obvious recourse would be to restore to the market the money taken from it. Nothing of the sort is done. By the terms of the Secretary's offer, the Treasury will not deposit money with a bank until that bank has engaged for import an equal amount in gold; and the Treasury further requires return of such deposit, the instant the gold arrives. This should make clear the true nature of the transaction.

Importing gold is not a function of the Government; it is part of a banker's private business. He obtains gold abroad, and brings it to this country, when the rate of exchange is sufficient to pay for freight, insurance, and loss of interest during transit, and to yield him, in addition, a reasonable profit. When the Secretary explained, last April, that the reason why gold was not engaged was "the loss of its interest during transit," he was simply saying that the exchange market did not yet yield a large enough profit to tempt a gold-importer. This profit the Treasury obligingly undertakes to provide by lending him money for nothing. If this is a proper use for Government money, we fail to see where the line is drawn. What is to hinder some benevolent autocrat of the Treasury hereafter from announcing that, the price of stocks having reached the point where recovery ought to have ensued, and believing the reason why no recovery ensued to be the lack of available capital to purchase them, the Sub-Treasury is authorized to advance money free of interest to national banks undertaking to buy stocks? We do not suppose Mr. Shaw will admit the fairness of the parallel; but to us it seems the *reductio ad absurdum* of his whole expedient.

As to the permanent effect of the Treasury's offer, we profess doubts. Aside from its impropriety as a measure in public finance, the project of helping gold imports by making them cheaper is economically crude. The large forces which govern the movement of gold, from one market to another, make small account of such petty expedients as this. "Special facilities" such as Secretary Shaw's have been offered at times to gold importers by banks in foreign cities, and they were sometimes effective in diverting, from one destination to another, gold already in motion. But they never caused gold export from any market which would not have exported gold without the "special facilities" to foreign buyers. If, as is probable, this market should receive substantial sums of gold from Europe in the near future, it will not be be-

cause of the Treasury's allowance to the banks, but because our bankers have borrowed so heavily abroad, to bolster up their pending operations, that they have turned the balance of international exchange heavily in our favor.

NEW LIGHT ON THE GALLICAN CONTROVERSY.

Pius X., in his Encyclical of August 10, rejected the Separation act *in toto*, and declared that the *Associations culturelles* required by it were incompatible with canon law. He further stated that the French bishops in assembly had rejected the plan of associations, writing: "Knowing your way of thinking, . . . we see that we should confirm by our Apostolic authority the nearly unanimous opinion of your assembly. For this reason, speaking of the *Associations culturelles* as the law imposes, We decree that they absolutely cannot be formed without violating the sacred rights that concern the very life of the Church." Recent disclosures in the *Temps* and *Siccle* give us what actually occurred late last May, when, by command of the Pope, seventy-four French bishops met in the archiepiscopal palace at Paris. At the session of May 30 they voted an address of loyalty to the Supreme Pontiff, and disapproved the Separation act in principle by a virtually unanimous vote. It has been charitably suggested that the two dissenting voices were those of certain very aged bishops whose eyes failed to distinguish between the *oui* and *non* of the typewritten official ballots. Next day, after long discussion and while still condemning the legal associations as an unjust stipulation, the bishops voted, 48 to 26, to comply with the law, and approved an elaborate report of the Archbishop of Besançon, providing for parish committees at once conformable to canon law and the Separation act.

We have no desire to dwell upon the unhappy discrepancy between Pius X.'s Encyclical and the facts of the bishops' assembly. We should, indeed, hardly touch upon a subject chiefly of Roman Catholic interest, if it were not that the revelation of the true attitude of the French bishops opens an opportunity for a *modus vivendi* under the Separation act. The Encyclical, in spite of its uncompromising tenor, does actually leave a loophole for compromise. The Gallican Church, through its bishops, has adopted a plan for retaining its churches under the law. That plan might yet be adopted at the Vatican, as we shall see, without formally reversing the dictum of an infallible Pope. The report of the Archbishop of Besançon still serve as a basis for religious peace in France. The Pope may have ignored

it for tactical reasons; he has never expressly rejected it.

The plan is simple in the extreme. The Gallican Church is willing to set up in each parish a building association (*Association fabricienne*). Clerics must predominate in the membership, which subscribes to an elaborate declaration of fealty to the Catholic Church, and more immediately to the bishop. But the administrative functions of each association will be chiefly exercised by a smaller executive committee (*conseil d'administration*), with the curé as chairman. This committee, in behalf of the association, will maintain the parish services, keep the buildings, pay priests and employees, and in general assume the financial responsibility for the parish. What an *Association fabricienne* is to the Church—a simple revival of an historical name and order—would be to the State an *Association culturelle* in entire conformity with the Separation act. It is, Mgr. Fulbert Fétit admits, a question of words, but words, he added, "have their influence and also their destiny whether for good or evil."

When Pius X., it is reported, learned that the French bishops had voted nearly two to one in favor of the above plan, he exclaimed: "They have voted against me—they have voted as Frenchmen"; and, as we have seen, a few weeks later the Encyclical gave the impression that the bishops had almost unanimously pronounced against any compliance with the Separation act. But, happily, the Encyclical also contained this clause:

Putting aside these associations, which consciousness of our duty forbids us to approve, it might seem opportune to examine if one may lawfully try in their place some other sort of association at once legal and canonical, and thus preserve the Catholics of France from the grave complications which menace them.

Now, since two-thirds of the bishops of France have actually approved a form of association which seems to them "at once legal and canonical," the way should still be open to a reconsideration at the Vatican. The same influence that induced Pius X. to misconceive the mind of the Gallican Church, should be capable of perceiving, on maturer deliberation, the true import of the vote of its assembled bishops. Meanwhile, time pleads the cause of the French bishops eloquently. If compliance was expedient with expulsion from the churches six months away, it may be said to be urgent when only three months stand between the faithful and expropriation.

That the Gallican Church will obey the Pope implicitly, whatever his final decision, admits of no doubt. If he desires what the bishops have variously called "warfare" and "passive resistance," they will loyally undergo the hardships of the campaign. But it would be highly deplorable if the Head

of the Catholic Church should persistently reject the counsel of the French bishops on a matter in which they are peculiarly fitted to judge. They assume that the requirements of the Separation act, while oppressive, will be carried out in good faith; that the State will recognize genuinely Catholic associations, and will give no countenance to those of a fraudulent sort. Pius X. assumes the contrary, unless indeed the Encyclical of August was a conscious overstatement for purposes of negotiation. That negotiation may soon lead to adjustment, is much to be hoped.

GERMAN AND AMERICAN BUSINESS METHODS.

The Emperor's appointment of Bernhard Dernburg as head of the hitherto mismanaged Colonial Office has created a veritable sensation throughout Germany. This is not merely because Dernburg, a Jew of the pushing and aggressive type, has succeeded a prince of the royal blood, or because he had not hitherto held a Government place. It is announced that he represents "up-to-date American business methods," and that his successful introduction of Yankee ideas, garnered in a New York banking office, into the management of his bank, attracted the Emperor's attention. Whatever may be said of his choice, which certainly reveals the Kaiser as a man of broad ideas, and without racial prejudice, it will unquestionably, like the organization of the new Amerika Bank in Berlin by American and German capitalists, increase German interest in our industrial and financial conditions.

What is the difference between our business methods and those of the Germans? A French journalist, Jules Huret, who recently published a book on this country and is now writing for the *Paris Figaro*, declares that during five months in Germany nothing has struck him so much as the frequent suggestions of America, not only in the industrial life, but in the appearance of the streets of the great cities. He is amazed at the way the business men plunge boldly into great enterprises. Analyzing more closely, a German writer, Theodor Vogelstein, whose elaborate study of the "Style of American Business Life" has just appeared in the *Süddeutsche Monatshefte*, finds many points of difference. He is particularly impressed by the concentration of the various trades in certain sections of our cities, and by the contentment with which business rivals conduct their affairs side by side. This is illustrated by the wholesale dry goods and leather districts in New York, and is, by the way, a return to mediæval conditions, when trades-people were compelled to live in given quarters. The readiness with which Americans resort to telephone, telegraph, and

the railroad train, and the nonchalance with which the San Francisco business man steps on the cars for New York—as if he were going to a nearby suburb—fairly astound Herr Vogelstein.

The greatest differences he notices are the most significant—the independence, sturdy self-respect, and self-reliance of the American, whether he be an office-boy or the senior partner. Every office-boy aims to head the firm, and every clerk expects to be a millionaire. It is regarded as an extraordinary phenomenon in Germany if a subordinate without means is elevated to a partnership; something which happens here every day. The obsequious bowing and toadying of inferiors to their employers so frequently seen in Germany are foreign to this country. Indeed, the respect with which the head of a great house treats a \$5 a week employee and takes his suggestions is equalled, in Herr Vogelstein's eyes, only by the familiarity of the Western workman with his boss, which injures neither, and in no wise detracts from the efficiency of the business. The readiness of the American middle-class employee to assume responsibilities and act independently is also a revelation to a foreigner. The absence of the elaborate business reference, so usual in Germany, Herr Vogelstein also notes. In America an applicant for a situation is "sized up" on his looks and then put to work. Young Germans are generally crestfallen at the failure of their official-looking certificates of proficiency to attract any attention in New York offices.

But if the average American is far ahead of the German in aggressiveness, push, and readiness to assume responsibility, the German leads in the thoroughness of his general and his commercial schooling. We are only just beginning to get schools of commerce in this country and high-class business colleges. In the Emperor's domain this kind of education has been carried much further, the first school in Berlin for business instruction having been founded in 1791. Just now an elaborate school of this character has been opened in that city to give the merchant or business man a specially adapted scientific training. Its object is twofold: the supplementing of the pupil's general education and the increase of his technical knowledge. Young business men who have passed through the apprentice stage are the students sought, and for them it is meant to be what the war college is to the army officer and the post-graduate year to the medical man. Accounts of other similar schools are given in the current *North American Review*. Such methodical training as the German boy who enters a business or a bank gets is something quite unknown to us; nor do our young merchants or bankers often think it wise to travel abroad or enter foreign em-

ployment. Young German students of good family can be found in every capital, willingly exiling themselves for a couple of years for the sake of the experience and the language to be acquired. And it is through trained young men of this kind, who are equipped to study a market and then supply its needs, that Germany has obtained, for instance, her extraordinary position in the South American trade.

Louis J. Magee, to whose admirable articles on "The American and German Peril" we have already called attention, is equally struck with the greater thoroughness of the Teuton education. He finds, too, after years of residence there, that the German mind is more friendly to order, clearness, precision, and organization; as a result the strength of the German business machine is relied upon, instead of the daring resourcefulness and independence of decision so often called in by us "to save a situation where correct procedure means catastrophe." Herr Vogelstein admits that the heavens might fall before a subordinate of his country would violate a superior's order even if it meant a great loss to the business. Because of this attitude the naturally conservative German is far too apt to get into ruts or to submit patiently to much red tape. This is only partly counterbalanced by his greater readiness to apply the latest teachings of science to his industry. Altogether, we are inclined to think that what the Kaiser hopes from Herr Dernburg is the thing popularly known as American "hustle"—the ability to go right to the point, to decide quickly, to act aggressively by means of simple and direct methods.

LITERARY TEACHING VS. TEACHING LITERATURE.

A good deal of recent educational discussion has concerned the teaching of a subject that possibly cannot, in the ordinary sense, be taught, to wit, literature. It is evident that one may teach the language in which any work of literature is written; one may also teach the biography of writers or the history of literary tendencies; whether one can inculcate the direct appreciation of literature, which is, after all, the main affair for your schoolboy or college student—is more than doubtful. A statistician will cry aloud that there are hundreds of chairs devoted to literature, ancient and modern, but the question is not the number or dignity of the chairs, but what is actually taught therefrom. An actual analysis of results would, we believe, show that professors of Greek, Latin, French, German, etc., taught their respective languages, and that professors of English taught sometimes philology, again literary history—useful studies in themselves—but only in rare instances literature itself.

This does not evince an inferiority in teachers of English as a class; it merely indicates what has been known since the Attic Age, that the contemporary tongue is about the poorest medium for initiation into literary appreciation. The Athenian youth got his letters largely from the, to him, quite exotic dialect of the Homeric epos. The Roman youth drank of the Pierian spring by way of Greek; the youth of the Middle Ages sought literature in the Latin writers; the Renaissance found Greece again, and the nineteenth century has discovered its "new humanities" in the literatures of modern Europe. In every case, be it noted, available pedagogical values have inhered, not in the contemporary, but in an ancient or, more often, a foreign tongue. It needs no argument that the disciplinary and probably the literary value of English for a German is twofold that for an American or Briton. In fact, it is only of recent years that teaching the native literature has in any land been put on a par with teaching foreign tongues, and the worth of the innovation is still measurably on trial.

The fallacy of teaching a French collegiate student Molière, an Englishman Shakspeare, a German Goethe, is that you use good academic hours and stipends in forcing him to read what, as a man of culture, he ought to read on his own account. The Englishman who has lived with his Sophocles, or even with his Corneille, has the open sesame to Shakspeare; nor does the student who has really mastered his Dante need any especial guidance for Milton. On all practical grounds, the collegiate teaching of English has in many minds a supererogatory look. It is defensible, we take it, merely on the theory that many horses and students must be not only led to water, but made to drink. In other phrase, the elaborate provision of courses in modern English literature is largely a substitute for culture in the home—frequently a tardy and poor substitute. In the schools English may fairly be regarded as a missionary enterprise, and needs no apology; in the university proper it is obviously on an equality with the other languages and literatures. In the colleges, lacking a sound disciplinary basis, it is at a moral disadvantage, and properly. It rarely is as exigent as the other language courses; it rarely is as suggestive as regards formative appreciation. Many a student dates his awakening from "The Cid," "Laokoön," "Faust," the "Divine Comedy"; a few are lucky enough to have Homer, Virgil, or Plato as their initiator; how many can honestly impute their æsthetic conversion to Shakspeare, Spenser, or Wordsworth, as expounded in the classroom? In fine, if a boy has the established habit of reading, English courses are time-wasting; if he has not, the beauties of a foreign author, somewhat laboriously attained,

are more likely to get under his skin. Probably the best-read college students—in English, we mean—are Oxford undergraduates of the ambitious sort; and everybody knows that they read as they breathe, without benefit of faculty. Social differences count for something in the matter; but the query seems pertinent, in view of Oxford's literary supremacy, May not the best way to teach English be to teach something else, possibly the classics?

However this be, the professor of English may often seem to be under the unenviable disadvantage of teaching in cold blood and without a disciplinary basis what the teachers of Greek, Latin, French, German, and Italian teach better by indirection. For, if the teaching of literature is, as we have hinted, extremely difficult—because not facts but a state of mind is to be inculcated—literary teaching is easy, nay, an inevitable by-product, with every professor who has the love of letters and an available fund of human sympathy. The man whose mind is stored with literary parallels, whose browsing has ranged over wide fields of letters, whose experience of life has brought confirmation of the intuitions of the poets and dramatists, of the wisdom of the philosophers, cannot but make his teaching count for taste. May not the problem of teaching literature in the colleges be merely to man the faculties with humanists of this sort?

This editorial will have been much misread if anybody imagines that we would incontinently put all the English professors upon the Carnegie Fund. We do all honor to those whose resourcefulness has prevailed over the disadvantages of the subject; our hats are off to those rare souls who, under the guise of teaching English, do actually profess most suggestively things in general, and the issues of human life. We respect heartily the teachers of English in the primary and secondary schools—true evangelists *in partibus*. But we are convinced that the whole matter of collegiate English needs an honest weighing from the point of view of educational values, for at our great universities such studies seem to be gaining a questionable preponderance. More generally, it should be asked whether much time or money should be spent in the vain attempt to teach literature as such. In how many colleges and universities do elaborate schedules of courses in literature only give ironical prominence to the complete absence of literary teaching! But it is always easier to contrive methods than to find men.

A PROVINCIAL EXHIBITION.

Ghent, August 20.

For the third time I have come to see the international exhibition of painting, sculpture, and black-and-white that Ghent

holds every three years, and for the third time I wonder to find so large and important a show in so comparatively small a town. Really, in London, until the days of the International, there was no exhibition of contemporary work that could approach it in breadth and excellence and ambition. In the Royal Academy, even in the New Gallery's annual summer show, the effort is to keep out the foreigner, or at least to keep him in the background. At Ghent, the effort is to attract him and give him every prominence. The galleries, in the Casino of the town, are admirably arranged, the walls hung with a quiet neutral gray, the works well spaced and balanced.

In the work exhibited nothing is more striking than the indifference to the academic, the conventional. In Belgium you might think art was now but one insistent protest against convention. The foreign artists are chiefly English and French, with here and there an American, a German, a Dutchman, a Spaniard; and in very few cases do they represent the academic bodies at home. From the old Salon, I discovered only M. Pointelin, M. Bail, and M. Henri Martin; from the Royal Academy, only Mr. Brangwyn and Mr. Strang, such new associates that they have not had time to become academical, and Alfred East, who has no paintings and but one print. It is the independents who appear in force—artists like Louis Legrand, Caro-Delvaile, Aman-Jean, Hochard Garrido, Charles Guérin, the most modern of the modern group at the new Salon; members of the International Society and the new English Art Club, the two bodies in England supposed to lead the opposition. It is needless for me to describe their work in detail, for there is little, if anything, that they have not already shown in Paris and London. The portraits by Mr. Sannon, Mr. Sauter, Mr. Lavery, the landscapes by Mr. Priestman, Mr. Muhrman, Mr. Peppercorn, the fantasies by Mr. Conder, the prints by Mr. Pennell, E. J. Sullivan, Morley Fletcher,—all these I have written about in the *Nation* not so many months since; as I have also about the paintings and prints by the Frenchmen who contribute what is interesting to point out. These are the things of foreign art which give its character to the exhibition at Ghent, as, indeed, they are the straws that show the way the wind of art is blowing all over Europe.

To return to the Belgian work is to see how entirely the Belgians have been influenced by the spirit of revolt. They are only too self-conscious in their emancipation; and self-consciousness, if it may do much for movements, seldom does anything at all for art. Their work shrieks at you from every side. You seem to see them, like Ibsen's young man, waving the banner of freedom in your face. And, to be honest, they are just a trifle belated in their belligerent rebellion—just as Ibsen's young man nowadays is decidedly old-fashioned. Theories of art, formulas, recipes, that have come and gone and been forgotten in Paris, are persevered in with, it must be confessed, a genuine vigor and ability that seem wasted in their present application. Screaming color, purple and blue shadows, *pointillisme* gone mad, hrush marks exaggerated to the point of caricature, the gruesome in subject, the grotesque, an ex-

cess of naturalism—all that a bewildered public has a way of jumbling together under the one convenient term, impressionism, confronts you at every step. The difficulty is that that which was done by the leaders of the various movements in grim earnest, in a determined and earnest search after truth, becomes affectation in their followers.

As I have said, however, ability there is and that in good measure. M. Claus and M. Buysse have both accomplished fine work in their close and careful study of the effects of light and atmosphere, and both are seen at their best. M. Buysse, in rendering the pale light of the sun rising over the tranquil canal and the passing away of the storm from the low canal-crossed land of Flanders, is more subdued and tender than he showed himself in the treatment of his earlier, more brilliant themes. Tenderness is not exactly a quality I can imagine M. Claus caring to cultivate, but he has seldom, if ever, been as quiet and restful as in one of his September mornings, with the mists still shrouding the peaceful meadow land, where one woman, a vague form in the grayness, drives her two cows to pasture. But he returns to his more usual manner in another September morning, where the trees in a heavy line rise against a golden sky so brilliant you blink as you look at it. But M. Claus is sobriety itself when compared to M. Van Rysselherghe, who has pushed *pointillisme* to such an extreme that I hope no artist again will be tempted to emulate him. He has two nudes, one a scheme of blue dots, the other a scheme of crimson dots, that refuse to resolve themselves into anything save dots, no matter at what distance you may stand from them. But his most ambitious performance is a large group, portraits of distinguished Belgians, Maeterlinck among them, in which every figure and every detail of the background—the well-filled bookcase, the vase with its bunch of gay flowers—are all carried out elaborately by the same series of dots. That he had the courage and the patience to adapt his technique to so elaborate a theme and to adhere to it throughout is extraordinary—but deplorable. He has only succeeded in making his canvas look like one of those tedious mosaics where the craftsman endeavors to achieve the pictorial completeness for which his medium was never intended.

If there is a great deal of work of this kind, it is only fair to explain that there is also a good deal in which independence proclaims itself with greater moderation. The painting by M. Léon Frédéric has always interested me. It has, I admit, an unpleasant hardness, a flatness, a crudeness of color—qualities that, at times, recall Holman Hunt. But it has also a seriousness that compels respect—a knowledge and vigor Holman Hunt could never pretend to—and his large group of peasants, in blouses, sitting round the rough table of a little café, is so simple and scholarly in technique that it comes as a positive relief. M. Frédéric has treated the figures as if they were so many pieces of still-life, and yet with a sympathy that has a certain solemnity highly impressive whether you will or no. M. Ensor, in his own way, shows that he does not believe sensationalism to be the only al-

ternative to the academic. He can make a street in Ostend amusing by the way he sees it; he can get quality out of its houses, color out of their red roofs, without extravagance of vision or eccentricity of technique. M. Khnopff does not contribute; but there are two church interiors, gray, quiet, solemn, that he might have inspired, by M. Alfred Delannois. And Willaert, Wytsman, Verstraete have careful, if not over-fresh or stimulating work.

Nor must I give the idea that all the work from abroad has been chosen for its eccentricity and extravagance. It is a pleasure to see again the portraits and landscapes M. Cottet, at various times, has had at the old Salon; the vague, pale, shadowy lady in violet, by M. Aman-Jean, and one of the little impressions of Quebec, white under its mantle of snow, by Mr. Morrice, that were exhibited in Paris this year. Here, too, is one of M. Le Sidaner's dim, ghostly gardens; and M. Le Sidaner, if his mannerisms are unmistakable, does not thrust them upon you—he has at least this in common with M. Aman-Jean, that he asserts himself by the subdued note he strikes in the midst of the competitive clamor. The sombre landscapes and river-sides, all murky browns, dull reds, tawny golds, of Mr. Muhrman, hold their own by the same power of reticence, and sometimes by a tragic grandeur M. Aman-Jean and M. Le Sidaner have never yet attained.

Other quiet canvases, full of the distinction restraint can give, are hidden away in the more remote corners or reveal themselves on the second and third round of the galleries, many showing the ever-increasing influence of Whistler; portraits that never would have been painted save for him, streets and seas as they never would have been seen had he not first recorded them in just these aspects on his canvas. The growth of Whistler's influence, now so marked, is one of the most hopeful and promising signs of the day. Cleverness may astonish for the moment, but nothing is more fatiguing in the long run. It sends you hack with renewed zest to the dignity and reserve that the Old Masters had the intelligence to prize above display, above the meretricious facility of the studios.

There is less tendency to the clever in the Black-and-White Section, so that one regrets it has not been made a more important feature. There is not more than enough to fill two small rooms, but what there is has been well and discreetly chosen. It comes almost altogether from London, transposed bodily, you might fancy, from the show of black-and-white the International Society gave last winter in London, with the addition of a series of drawings by M. Renouard.

The sculpture is not so satisfactory. You would think the countrymen of Constantin Meunier could hardly countenance the inane and banal performances that fill the sculpture court, the smooth and pretty and characterless faces of the portrait busts, the old and well-worn poses and gestures of the statues. In such company Alfred Gilbert's one contribution, a bust in plaster, tinted—"Buste de Ch. Popp. Portrait"—seems but the more distinguished. There is such vigor in the modelling, such vivacity, such force, it has

the effect of real flesh and blood suddenly dropped into the middle of a troupe of puppets. And it is the artist who can do this fine, virile work, whom the Academy, though it claims him, has allowed to become an exile from London, and to set up his studio in Bruges. Say what I may about the excess of eccentricity into which many Belgians have plunged headlong, excess is healthier than the stagnation, the calm acceptance of the commonplace, that makes London's Academy the rubbish hole it is, and even the old Salon a hyword among artists.

N. N.

Correspondence.

ACQUIRING LANGUAGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I venture some comments on the matter of Professor Lodge's article on teaching Latin in the *Nation* of August 30. Everybody knows that *In der Beschränkung zeigt sich der Meister*. The principle thus enunciated is sound in pedagogy as in most other things. But there is danger, I think, that concentration may begin too early. No one will deny that a student's ability to read a foreign text depends largely on his general knowledge. There are many words in every classical writer that cannot be interpreted from the dictionary; their meaning must be deduced from the context. The same student will find Homer easy because the thoughts are simple, and the "Phædo" difficult because the reasoning is, for the most part, beyond his intellectual reach. The obstacle is not the vocabulary as such, but the special sense in which many of the words are used. For the same reason, Greek lyric poetry is more difficult than epic poetry or than prose. It is no uncommon thing to come across passages from Greek or Latin authors that puzzle us if we do not happen to know whence they are taken, although we may know the general meaning of every word.

While it is true that many of our textbooks for the study of both ancient and modern authors contain entirely too much matter that is more or less irrelevant, the question has another side. Such matter, if judiciously selected, will have a permanent value to the learner. Let me refer to an item of personal experience. When a student at college, I read Horace, among other Latin authors. We got very little in class except what is found in Lincoln's edition. Some years later I read the same author with Professor Teuffel. But what a difference! Although he devoted an entire semester to the odes in the Sapphic and Alcaic metres, he threw such a flood of light upon the Venusian hard that I seemed to have passed from the "mellow light of the silvery moon" into the blaze of the noonday sun. Yet in both cases we had the same man's works before us. Recently one of my best students in Greek, who has since attained some distinction as a mathematician, said to me: "I am not sure that I know the Greek alphabet entire; but I learned many things in connection with Greek that I have not forgotten."

It is to be feared, if teachers lay too much stress on the mere vocabulary of an

author, they will be constrained to neglect the culture side of the classics, culture being, after all, the most important part of an education. For I assume that it needs no argument to prove that a man may read Latin and Greek fluently and be a boor none the less.

One more point. Among college students I suppose fully three-fourths prepare their lessons in Greek and Latin with the help of "ponies." Their solicitude extends no farther than the recitation. With such helps, a fair show can be made with a small expenditure of time and effort. If then, we assign lessons of such length that we shall, after all, get a good deal of work out of this sort of student, we shall completely overload the other fourth that is more concerned to know than to appear to know. But if, with every *pensum* of text, we require a good deal of illustrative matter to be prepared in connection therewith, we shall put all our students more nearly on the same level. Dealt with in this way, the most indifferent can hardly fail to retain, beyond their college days, something of what they prepared for class.

I fully agree with the principle that we should read much text and little commentary, provided we put the proper stress on *much*. In this direction, our college manuals, it seems to me, are getting worse and worse. Most of our commentators and annotators forget that, if they begin the tale of "Troy divine" with Leda's egg, they will not get to the siege at all. The question is not, "Who can suggest a remedy?" but "Who can secure its general application?"

CHARLES W. SUPER.

Athens, O., September 3.

STUDYING LATIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of August 30, Prof. Gonzalez Lodge suggests that the learning of a larger Latin vocabulary would greatly help students of the language. I am sure, however, that many of Professor Lodge's fellow-craftsmen feel that his "remedy" falls far short of meeting the real difficulties of the case. The acquisition of a vocabulary is certainly a matter of prime importance; but do not all of us know that sometimes the hopeless thing about a sentence in a foreign tongue is precisely the fact that all of the words seem perfectly familiar, and yet we cannot budge an idea out of them? And learning Professor Lodge's two thousand words is a far heavier task than it may at first seem to be. If each word had just one stock meaning, learning a vocabulary would be a comparatively easy matter. But many—let us say, such a large majority—have a variety of uses, so that two thousand easily swells into anywhere from six to ten thousand, and the wrong meaning often obscures the sense of the passage completely. Take the frequently recurring words *ingenium*, *judicium*, *consilium*, *quaestio*, *officium*, *atrox*, *ferox*, *ratio*, and *quodquod* and it is easily seen that they prove great stumbling blocks.

Another point touched upon by Professor Lodge was the fact that so many Latin words suggest a suitable (or, at least, a fair) meaning from the mere fact of their resemblance to the English word. True;

but this advantage is very largely counterbalanced by the fact that so often the English word thus suggested fails utterly to give the true meaning; it diverts the course of thought into a wrong channel, and too often keeps it there by the force of the association of sound. *Frequens, ambitio, petitio, intercessio, crimen, injuriam defendere, audax, honestus*; what teacher does not instantly recognize how these words illustrate the difficulty? They are merely samples of a large class.

Then, too, no amount of vocabulary will obviate the great difficulty of the intricate syntax with its endless possible arrangements and combinations. The three familiar words, *classis secunda tempestate*, meet the student in Tacitus (Agric. ch. 38 end). He begins to wonder: Is *classis* feminine, as it ought to be, or one of those numerous masculines (*ammis, axis*, etc.)? He turns to the lexicon; it is feminine. But now, is it a second *fleet* or a second *tempest*? If the book had *secundā* or *secundā*, he would know at once. But there he is; bothered, and not knowing how to settle the question; and perhaps it never occurs to him that maybe *secunda* does not mean "second," nor *tempestate* mean "tempest," but that *favorable weather* is a possible meaning he had never thought of.

I come now to the matter of school editions of the Greek and Latin authors. They nearly all err—and err grievously—in not giving help enough. One simple and partial remedy would be to mark quantities where they can be helpful. Why not give the boy (or young man) the advantage of receiving as much help for his eye as a good speaker would have given his auditors by careful enunciation? Afraid of making it too easy? "Difficult languages they are, and difficult languages they must remain," wrote Prof. W. G. Hale, and comparatively few editions recognize the difficulties sufficiently, as is proved by the many questions some of the best and most faithful students find it necessary to ask, and *also* by the large sale of translations.

ADDISON HOGUE.

Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va.

CHAUER'S REVISION OF HIS WORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It will be of interest to Chaucer students to learn that, in addition to the differences noted by the late Henry Bradshaw as characteristic of the "Canterbury Tales" framework or "links," there is another such difference, of even more suggestiveness in some respects. When comparing the two editions by Caxton of the "Canterbury Tales," the results of which comparison were printed in "Modern Philology" (volume iii.), I remarked on a shorter and clumsier form of the interruption to "The Monk's Tale," which appeared in the earlier Caxton. I now find this form existing in several manuscripts and one other print, the de Worde of 1498; the manuscripts are Selden B 14 of the Bodleian, the two at Trinity College, Cambridge, Sloane 1686 of the British Museum, and Harley 7333 of the same library, the last being the copy of the "Tales" transcribed from Shirley. Furthermore, Additional 5140 of the Museum began a copy of the shorter form and then, cross-

ing it out, proceeded with the longer form which we now know.

This variant in the "Monk's end-link" seems to me especially interesting from the glimpse which it gives us of Chaucer revising and improving his own work. A fuller note, with the text, will be published in the near future.

ELEANOR PRESCOTT HAMMOND.

Oxford, England, August 26.

VOLTAIRE'S FAITH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of August 16 I have just noticed a letter headed "Voltaire's Faith." Mr. Howes, who speaks in most friendly terms of my article, asks where I got certain information with regard to Voltaire's religious belief. My reply is simple. My information is obtained wholly from Mr. Tallentyre's "Life of Voltaire," p. 501, which contains the following words:

A few days earlier, on February 28, at the earnest request of Wagnière and at a moment when he solemnly believed that his last hour had come, Voltaire had written down, clearly and firmly, his real faith:

"I die adoring God, loving my friends, not hating my enemies, and detesting superstition. February 28, 1778. Voltaire."

So far as a few weak words can express any man's attitude towards the Supreme Being and his own fellow-sinners, this confession expresses Voltaire's.

It is still preserved in the National Library at Paris.

I have relied on Mr. Tallentyre's statement which must, I conceive, be true, unless, what is in the highest degree improbable, he has committed some extraordinary blunder. There is nothing in the declaration attributed to Voltaire which is inconsistent with his known attitude toward religion, nor, as it seems to me, is there anything in the facts stated, I believe with accuracy, by Mr. Howes, which need make one doubt that Voltaire really signed the declaration of belief attributed to him by Mr. Tallentyre.

YOUR REVIEWER.

Oxford, England, August 28.

THE CAREER OF THOMAS WILLIAMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I add a word to your review of my "Life and Speeches of Thomas Williams" in your issue of August 2?

Chief Justice Mitchell of our State Supreme Court said to me soon after the appearance of the volumes: "His was a name to conjure with in the days before and during the civil war. I heard him once; he was a magnetic speaker, like Blaine." Like that statesman, too, he roused an intense following and intense opposition; but his main contentions generally succeeded in the end. His was the greatest voice in breaking down Jackson Democracy in Pennsylvania; he was the chosen spokesman and manager in the construction of a coherent party on the remains of what he was so effective in destroying. To be very instrumental in "downing" the dominant party in the Keystone State and building another is an achievement of no small proportions, and I can hardly agree that it is either local or unimportant. Movements in politics have their beginnings in opposition, and, as a whole, are no more "coherent" than caterpillar, chrysalis, and butterfly; co-

herent or incoherent, Williams's speeches voiced each successive stage as did no other in Pennsylvania. For this reason "Speeches" is an equally important part of my title with "Life"—and, if "Speeches," then *two* volumes, of necessity—a necessity that the author regretted quite as much as his kindly reviewer.

Speeches are notoriously disappointing reading; but if they produce the results out of which history is made, disappointing or not, they are worthy of study in any first-hand investigation of a period. A Life of W. J. Bryan without his chief speeches—what would it be? I cannot conceive such a book. The speeches might be judged of no value, and disappointing, but no first-hand student of American history of the past decade could leave them out of his study. I am not speaking as a Pennsylvanian, either by birth or education—for I am neither—when I say that Pennsylvania is a *Keystone* State, in history, in more fields than one, and it is this element which has attracted my interest, as an historical student, and is the basis of my conviction that many movements in her history are vital and not local to American history, as similar movements would be in many other States.

BURTON ALVA KONKLE.

Swarthmore, August 28

Notes.

Maine's "Ancient Law" has been thoroughly edited by Sir Frederick Pollock, and will be published immediately by Henry Holt & Co.

Dr. Bradley Gilman has turned his experiences in the Holy Land into a book entitled "The Open Secret of Nazareth," soon to be published by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Prof. William Lyon Phelps of Yale has selected nine of the more personal and less critical of Stevenson's "Essays" and published them with a brief Introduction (Scribners).

The Dramatic Section of Heath's Belles-Lettres Series is to contain Gascoigne's "Supposes and Jocasta," edited by Prof. J. W. Cunliffe, and Swinburne's "Mary Stuart," edited by W. M. Payne.

The *Century* in 1907 will return to its old predilection for Civil War subjects. The principal continued story will be Frances Hodgson Burnett's international novel of English and American life, "The Shuttle."

Four more volumes of Scribner's Pocket Edition of the Works of George Meredith have come out, leaving only another four to complete the set. It is a useful edition, clearly enough printed, but without distinction in appearance.

The *Century* Co. has these books on its autumn list: "Seeing France with Uncle John," by Anne Warner; "The Châteaux of Touraine," by Maria Hornor Lansdale; "Don-a-Dreams," by H. J. O'Higgins; "In the Days of the Comet," by H. G. Wells; "Addresses of John Hay"; "Lincoln the Lawyer," by F. T. Hill; "Georgie," by Dorothea Deakin; "A Modern Madonna," by Caroline Abbot Stanley; "Ring in the New," by Richard Whiteing; "The Upstart," by Henry M. Hyde; "A Book of

Music," by R. W. Gilder; "The Treasure of Peyre Gaillard," by John Bennett.

The Arthur H. Clark Company announce for this autumn: "Documentary History of Reconstruction, Political, Military, Social, Educational, and Industrial," in two large volumes, edited by Prof. Walter L. Fleming; Morga's "History of the Philippine Islands," two volumes; Farnham's "Travels in Great Western Prairies"; De Smet's "Oregon Missions," and Palmer's "Travels Over the Rockies," edited by Dr. R. G. Thwaites; vols. 42, 43, 44, and 45 in the Philippine Islands Series, edited by Blair and Robertson. The series "Early Western Travels: 1748-1846" will be completed by the Analytical Index, occupying all of Vol. 31.

We have just had a pretty large dose of the great Mrs. Montagu in Mrs. Climençon's two volumes (with the threat of many more to follow). Nevertheless, John Murray will soon bring out a sketch of "Mrs. Montagu and Her Friends," by René Huchon. This, however, is not so much a biography of the Queen of the Blue-stockings as a study of her work, which for the most part has been neglected by other writers. Another book, to be published by Blackwoods, will give the lives of several of Mrs. Montagu's distinguished female contemporaries and of later women. A. J. Green-Armytage, who writes the book, calls it "Maids of Honor."

Several art books will be issued this autumn by Messrs. Cassell, including "Landscape Painting in Oil Color," by Alfred East, A.R.A., illustrated by reproductions in color of pictures and sketches by the author; "The Old Engravers of England in Relation to Contemporary Life and Art," by Malcolm C. Salaman, with illustrations from the works of the leading engravers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; "Porcelain: a Sketch of Its Nature, Art, and Manufacture," by William Burton; a new color book by Walter Crane, entitled "Flowers from Shakespeare's Garden"; and a fine art edition of "Don Quixote," with Doré's illustrations—a companion work to "The Doré Dante" and "The Doré Milton." Among other works in the list are "Wander Pictures," in which Mr. Bart Kennedy relates his experiences as a tramp in England; "Westminster Abbey: Its Story and Associations," by Mrs. A. Murray Smith, daughter of the late Dean Bradley; a new work by Mr. Richard Kearton, entitled "Nature's Carol Singers," with illustrations from photographs by the author and his brother; and "The Cathedrals of England and Wales: Their History, Architecture, and Associations," in two elaborately illustrated volumes.

The autumn announcement list of Dodd, Mead & Co. includes the following: "John Cable," by G. B. McCutcheon; "The Far Horizon," by Lucas Malet; "Prisoners," by Mary Cholmondeley; "The Subjection of Isabel Carnaby," by Ellen Thorneycroft Fowler; "The Face of Clay," by H. A. Vachell; "The Chase of the Golden Plate," by Jacques Futrelle; "The Seventh Person," by Benjamin Brace; "The White Plume," by S. R. Crockett; "The One Way Out," by Bettina von Hutten; "Billy Boy," by J. L. Long; "The Swarm," by M. Maeterlinck; "Historic Buildings of America," by Esther Singleton; "Rome Described by Great Writ-

ers," by Esther Singleton; "The Heart of Music," by Anna Alice Chapin; "Versailles and the Triangles," by M. Nohlac; "Cathedral Cities of England," by George Gilbert; "Twenty Years of the Republic," by H. T. Peck; "A Life of Charles Dickens," by G. K. Chesterton; "Emma, Lady Hamilton," by Walter Sichel; "Through Five Republics of South America," by Percy F. Martin; "Liberia," by Sir Harry Johnston; "The Life of Marie Antoinette," by M. de la Rocheterie; "The Great Company," by Beckles Willson; "A History of Scotland," Vol. IV., by Andrew Lang; "The Empire of the Hapsburgs," by A. R. Colquhoun; "Sir Joshua and His Circle," by Fitzgerald Mollo; "George Eliot," by A. T. Queller-Couch; "Brain and Personality," by Dr. W. H. Thomson; "The Wit of the Wild," by Ernest Ingersoll; "The Expositor's Greek Testament," Vol. IV., by W. Robertson Nicoll; "American Book Prices Current, 1906," by L. S. Livingston; "The Key of the Blue Closet," by W. Robertson Nicoll.

Scribners announce the following books: "Stories of Early New York History," by Sherman Williams; "Stories of American Explorers," by Wilbur F. Gordy; "History of Ancient Civilization," by Charles Seignobos, translated and edited by Arthur Herbert Wilde; "Studies in the Book of Job," by Francis N. Peloubet, D.D.; "Two-Legs," by Carl Ewald, authorized translation from the Danish by Alexander Teixeira de Mattos; "The Stones of Paris in History and Letters," by Benjamin Ellis Martin and Charlotte M. Martini; "The Robberies Co., Ltd.," by Nelson Lloyd; "Liberty, Union, and Democracy: The National Ideals of America," by Barrett Wendell; "A Frontier Town and Other Essays," by Henry Cabot Lodge; "The Russian Grandmother's Wonder Tales," by Louise Seymour Houghton; "Industrial America," by J. Laurence Laughlin; "Camp Fires in the Canadian Rockies," by William T. Hornaday; "The Northmen, Columbus, and Cabot, 985-1503," edited by Julius E. Olson; "The Apostles' Creed in Modern Worship," by William R. Richards, D.D.; "A Whimsey Anthology," by Carolyn Wells; "Radioactive Transformations," by Ernest Rutherford; "The Integrative Action of the Nervous System," by Charles S. Sherrington; "Court Beauties of Old Whitehall: Historiettes of the Restoration," by W. R. H. Trowbridge; "The Scottish School of Painting," by William D. McKay; "Bible Side-Lights from the Mound of Gezer," by R. A. Stewart Macallister; "The Knowledge of God, and Its Historical Development," by H. M. Gwatkin, D.D.; "Felicity in France," by Constance Elizabeth Maud; "Drawings of Leonardo da Vinci," with Critical Introduction by C. Lewis Hind; "My Garden," by Eden Phillpotts; "Mungo Park's Travels in the Interior District of Africa"; "Chevalier Bayard," translated by Sara Coleridge; "Christian Theism and a Spiritual Monism," by the Rev. W. L. Walker; "The Legend of Ser Perceval," by Jessie L. Weston; "Ornamental Design," by T. E. Harrison and W. G. P. Townsend; "First Age of Christianity," by John J. I. Dollinger.

The *Vossische Zeitung* of Berlin has unearthed from the records of the University of Königsberg a full report of the "salary and emoluments" paid to the professor of metaphysics and logic, Immanuel Kant,

at the time of his death, February 12, 1804. Kant drew salary in a three-fold capacity, as a professor ordinarius, as a senator, and as the senior of the philosophical faculty; and he was also entitled to "extraordinary" additional emoluments. The total income from these four sources was 749 thaler, 23 groschen, and 10 pfennige. In addition, as professor of metaphysics and logic, he was entitled to 44 bushels of rye and 8 cords of wood.

The rector of the past academic year in Berlin, Prof. Hermann Diels, at the close of his official career as head of the university, delivered an interesting discourse on the subject of the International Mission (Aufgabe) of the University. His text was furnished by the exchange of professors inaugurated between America and Germany during the speaker's official year. Professor Peabody of Harvard, who went to Berlin, had declared that a foreign lecturer could do justice to himself and his subject only if permitted to speak in his own language. With this, Professor Diels fully agrees, especially should the lectures be on literary and kindred subjects. The revival of Latin as an international language of learning is, for practical reasons, too, out of the question. Nor does Diels think that the Esperanto, or indeed any mechanically contrived language, will ever answer this purpose. He holds that there is but one feasible solution of the problem, namely, the recognition on perfect equality of the three leading modern tongues, German, English, and French. Such a linguistic "Dreibund" the speaker pleads for as an acceptable *sine qua non* for the perfection of the scheme of exchanging professors, and for solving the international mission of the modern university.

Société Française de Bibliographie is the name of a society organized in Paris with Maurice Tournoux as president and Henri Stein, the editor of *Bibliographie moderne*, as secretary. Gen. Darboux and Léopold Delisle are honorary presidents. The originators of the society have laid out a comprehensive plan, including such undertakings as a bibliography of historical literature, of the history of art, of cartography, an index to periodical literature, etc. But their first efforts will be devoted to three tasks which, rightly, they have deemed to be of prime importance: to improve the bibliographical records of current French literature; to revive D. Jordell's *Répertoire des Revues*, and to establish, with the coöperation of public bodies, a bibliography of official literature.

The problem of the bibliography of official literature received particular attention at the recent meeting of the Verein Deutscher Bibliothekare in Berlin, where it was presented by two papers, one by G. Maas, the other by Dr. Wolfstieg, who will be remembered in this country from his visit to the Conference of Librarians in St. Louis in 1904. The lack of organization in issuing and recording the publications of public bodies throughout the world was very forcibly brought out and a plan presented for the remedy of the present unsatisfactory conditions, as far as Germany is concerned, through the organization of recording offices in the various States in the empire and a central imperial office. The other proceedings of the conference, as published in the

July-August number of the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, included a description of the organization of the seminar libraries at German universities and their relations to the university libraries, and a new paper on the "Gesamtkatalog" by Dr. Boysen of Königsberg, followed by a lengthy discussion. Dr. Boysen urged the extension of the Prussian alphabetical catalogue to cover all the larger German libraries, and its printing in book form, with supplements in annual volumes and on cards. His views were combated by some of the speakers. In the meantime the work on the catalogue continues; on the 16th of June the 1,000th package of title slips was sent out from Berlin, and the comparison of titles had reached the heading Choler.

The Library of the University of London, to be officially opened by Lord Rosebery on October 29, and containing nearly 60,000 volumes, is a remarkable collection, accessible to all students. The nucleus comprises the libraries of George Grote, the historian, consisting mainly of Latin and Greek classics as well as historical works, and of Prof. Augustus De Morgan, a valuable collection of mathematical works. To these have been added by the Goldsmith's Company Prof. S. Foxwell's library on social and political economy. Both Grote and De Morgan were collectors of special books, so that each of these collections contains a vast number of excessively rare and interesting volumes which, published in nearly every case in small numbers, are to-day the despair of the book hunter. They were both also in the habit of writing in their rarities bibliographical and historical notes concerning either the particular book or the author, and these inscriptions will be of high value to the compilers of the forthcoming catalogue.

Even the exacting Dr. Johnson was not disposed to demand perfect veracity in lapidary inscriptions; still, the scientific virus has so permeated us that we prefer at least to shed our tears over the right grave. In 1863 Arsène Houssaye discovered what he believed to be the grave of Leonardo da Vinci at Amboise, and had the remains removed to the modern church where there is a monument to him. According to tradition, Leonardo, who died in 1519, "in the arms of Francis I." (a doubtful legend), was buried in the Church of St. Florentin. This church was demolished a century ago, its site being levelled to form a little square. Houssaye had a theory that the coffins, which were in the crypt of the church, might not have been removed; and so he dug for them, and in due time came to a lead coffin containing the skeleton of a man five feet six inches tall (Leonardo's height) and a skull greatly resembling the shape of Leonardo's head, in the portrait by himself painted in his old age. Houssaye found also bits of a gravestone on which he could decipher the letters I. N. C. and E. O., which he naturally assumed formed part of VINCI and of LEONARDO. Still Houssaye did not succeed in persuading everybody that he had indeed recovered the bones of the great artist, and now we learn that a new excavation is to be made at Amboise in the hope of settling the question.

In England a committee has been organized for the purpose of erecting a monument to Livingstone in the heart of Africa, at

Chitambo, east of the Bangweolo See, on the exact spot where the great discoverer breathed his last and where, as is reported, at the foot of a high tree his heart lies buried.

The inventor of Volapük, the Prelate Martin Schleyer, recently celebrated the seventy-fifth anniversary of his birth in Constance, where he is living in retirement. He is still at work on his world language and is confident that notwithstanding the growing popularity of Esperanto, Volapük is to be the international language of the world. In addition to grammars and chrestomathies of his "world language," Pater Schleyer has published several religious anthologies and is editor of a monthly for Catholic Church music called *Sionsharfe*. He is credited with an acquaintance with eighty languages.

The international Congress for the History of Fine Arts (Kunsthistorischer Kongress), which had been invited to meet in Stockholm this autumn, cannot now be held, as the Swedish capital city has for several reasons been compelled to withdraw the invitation. As no other place had extended an invitation, the newly appointed committee of arrangement, of which Prof. Dr. Joseph Stoyzowski of Graz is the chairman, announces that the next convention will not be held until 1907. The place has not yet been determined.

Under the title "Monumenti d'Arte Medioevale e Moderna," Danesi (Rome) has begun the publication of a series of reproductions of the works of mediæval and modern art, with the intention of providing at low cost carefully selected and well executed illustrations of the history of art for the use of schools and amateurs. The range of both subjects and sources is fairly indicated by the first part issued. It includes two pages from a Syrian manuscript of the Gospels in the National Library at Paris; the Madonna of the Cripte Vaticane by Melozzo da Forlì; an eastern sarcophagus, attributed to the period between the third and sixth centuries, from the Colonna Palace, at Rome, and the twelfth century columns of the cloister of the too little known church of the Santi Quattro Incoronati, at Rome. Each issue includes brief descriptions of the plates and a list of references to sources of more detailed information.

S. W. Fletcher's "How to Make a Fruit-Garden" (Doubleday, Page & Co., New York) gives practical hints in a somewhat overworked field, but the suggestions are sound and the strict directions are safe. The book, although rather awkward for field use, should serve a good purpose in the hands of amateurs. When we remember that many of the striking advances in photography and in horticulture have been due to enthusiastic amateurs who have spared neither time nor money in the realization of their dreams, we can heartily welcome every work like the present, which may further stimulate them to activity.

To those who are fond of Italian, Bilancioni's "Dizionario di Botanica generale" (Hoepli, Milan), will come as a delightful surprise. It is a successful attempt to place within a very narrow compass the essential facts established in the histology and morphology of plants, and also the very newest views regarding their physiol-

ogy. Here one finds the startling innovations produced by the influence of the theory of the "ions," all of the changes being presented in a conservative manner. It seems a little strange to find in these extremely modern pages occasional references to such vanishing hypotheses as that of "od." It may possibly be thought by Dr. Bilancioni, that in these days of speculation in physiology, it is well to show his readers some of the driftwood as it floats past. One can honestly say that this charming volume, well-printed and daintily bound in vellum, adds another proof of the old saying that dictionaries are the most fascinating books.

To those who take pleasure in reading of the slaughter of large numbers of wild beasts Lord Hindlip's book on "Sport and Travel: Abyssinia and British East Africa" (A. Wessels Co.) may be safely recommended. It is true that there is nothing extraordinary in the tale of his adventures and the list of his exploits is rather monotonous, but he writes simply and good humoredly with no pretence of being anything more than the sportsman that he is. His general observations on the countries he visits are honest if not profound. We note that he has a hearty dislike for the Abyssinians, a people about whom different observers seem to form very different opinions. As a British traveller and later settler in East Africa he is full of complaints of the Foreign Office, which at the time of his visit had jurisdiction over the region. Judging from other evidence these complaints were not without good foundation, but we may hope that now that the colony has passed under the control of the Colonial Office, where it belongs, matters are going better. The seventy-two illustrations from photographs are well-selected and well taken.

Except for its place in a series it is hard to see why anyone should have issued the large tome on "Wessex" (Macmillans), painted by Walter Tyndale and described by Clive Holland. For a guide-book it is too heavy in bulk and too full of irrelevant matter; for a serious history it is too ill-arranged and indefinite. As an advertisement of Wessex it scarcely carries conviction either by its pretty but "fancy" illustrations or by its turgidly enthusiastic descriptions. On the contrary, the general impression left will be first how little of architectural interest there is in Wessex proper, seeing that Bath and Winchester are on its extreme limits, while Glastonbury and Wells are admittedly in "Outer Wessex"; secondly, how little part Dorsetshire has played in English history. The last chapter contains eulogies on Thomas Hardy. The wanderings of the unhappy Tess are carefully detailed for us, and the topography of the other novels is handled with reverent minuteness worthy of M. Sabatier at Assisi. But unless we belong heart and soul to what the writer proudly calls the "ever-widening . . . circle of his (Hardy's) admirers," we shall find more agreeable reading in the earlier chapters, where the accounts of Spanish and French invasions, the Civil War, Monmouth's rebellion, and smuggling on the South coast, are given with some spirit. The book is, however, marred by unpardonably slipshod writing, such as relatives so far

separated from their antecedents as to produce unintelligible phrases. When our ears and eyes are vexed by dreadful words like "disarticulated" and "begaitered," or when our souls are oppressed by rhapsodical gush such as the chapter on "The Four Seasons in Wessex," we regret that a book so large, so long, and so sumptuously got up should prove on closer acquaintance so great a disappointment.

Letters of Mazzini to Aurelio Saffi and members of the Craufurd family have been collected in a volume and published at Rome and Milan by the Società Editrice Alighieri. Driven from Lausanne by the ill-will of the Swiss Government, Mazzini wrote the first of these letters from Geneva early in 1850, to his "friend and colleague," Aurelio Saffi, a Roman noble, who with Mazzini and Armellini had constituted the Triumvirate of the Roman Republic in 1849, and who was at this time one of the three who made up the Società Editrice of the *Italia del Popolo*. This paper was the organ of the Italian propaganda which Mazzini had first issued during the last days of the defence of Milan, in 1848, and had recently resumed in Lausanne. The correspondence covers a period of over twenty years and closes eighteen days before Mazzini's death. More than half of these 369 letters are addressed to Saffi, and the rest to members of the English family into which Saffi married, Georgina and Kate Craufurd, and their mother, Sophia Craufurd. Some few of the most important of these letters have been already published, wholly or in part, either in Saffi's or Mazzini's collected works and they were doubtless those "family papers" of which Saffi says that he made use in the volumes of Mazzini's writings which he edited. The publication of this volume, therefore, adds nothing of historical importance to what was already known by students of the movement for Italian independence, but its value lies rather in the intimate view of this Italian idealist in his daily, untiring effort to further the awakening and liberation of his people. He refers constantly to his manifestos, addresses, open letters and circulars; to articles and reviews; to the organization and work of the Italian National Committee, the Central European Democratic Committee, the Friends of Italy and the Party of Action. The letter to Saffi on the death of his mother (p. 99), on the pro-dictatorship of Sicily (p. 228), to the wife of Liberatori declining to stand as god-father for her son (p. 309), and the passage referring to Garibaldi (p. 380) are, perhaps, especially noteworthy for elevation of thought. The book is well supplied with explanatory notes. It has an imperfect index, and the long list of *errata* does not correct all of the numerous misprints.

While there is no dearth of material on the general subject, John Cotton Dana's "Notes on Bookbinding for Libraries" (Library Bureau, Chicago) covers a field and renders a service all its own. The problem with which it deals is purely a library problem, and, more particularly, a public library problem. It makes no pretence of contributing anything to the art or craft of book making; its aim is to give to librarians such an elementary knowledge of this craft that they may intelligently decide upon the methods and ma-

terials that are best adapted to their needs. The point of view is purely the economic one—how shall the library bind its books so as to secure the largest possible service at the least cost. The answer to this, as shown by Mr. Dana, is by no means a simple one, depending on such considerations as the class of literature to which the book belongs, the degree and permanence of its popularity, the rapidity with which it may be read, the quality or thickness of its paper, the character of the community, and many other similar questions. For this reason, general rules are pronounced dangerous, and each librarian is urged to study the problem for himself, and in each class of books adapt the binding to the particular use they are to receive. American librarians are severely scored by Mr. Dana for the general indifference to this matter which they have heretofore shown. "One may frankly say that the character of binding done in nearly all libraries in America has been, up to the present time, a discredit to the library profession. We owe it to ourselves to take up this craft, and do what we can to elevate it." That this small volume will be an important factor in bringing about this improvement is evident from the attention and favor it is receiving in the library profession. Library commissions are recommending it, and it is likely to become the standard text book on library binding in summer schools, apprentice classes, and in the more elementary of the regular library schools.

Under the title of "The Cambridge Press" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), Robert F. Roden has written a history of the first printing press established in English America, and he has added to this a bibliographical list of the issues of this press, which existed from 1638 to 1692. The present volume represents the second in the valuable little series of "Famous Presses," which was inaugurated by Lewis Buddy, 3d, of the Kirgate Press, with "Horace Walpole and the Strawberry Hill Press, 1757-1789." In the summer of 1638, a ship bearing a printing press, a printer, and three pressmen arrived on the shores of New England; the printer being Stephen Daye. In the same year the press was set up at Cambridge. One of the earliest and perhaps the most celebrated of the issues was "The Bay Psalm Book." Stephen Daye's work and that of his various successors is fully treated by Mr. Roden, who also devotes an entire chapter to the Indian books, the issue of which covered the years 1654-1691. It is interesting to know that the actual press which Stephen and Matthew Daye used is still preserved. After various wanderings in Boston, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Vermont, it was found in Windsor County, and presented to the Vermont Historical Society. We wish we could say that Mr. Roden has made an entertaining volume from the material in his hands; but perhaps he would resent the imputation of being entertaining. He certainly has made a valuable and useful book, and if it is in parts rather barren reading, it is because the history of the first press established in English America is not a very fruitful theme. It is to the historian of early presses in America and to the bibliographer and the collector of early American imprints that this book

must of necessity appeal. To the student of the history of typography it does not offer great interest. The period at which these presses did their work was a time when, even in Europe, typography was upon the wane. We cannot help feeling that an opportunity was missed typographically in the make-up of the present volume. The fonts which were used in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in England suggest themselves so obviously as appropriate, that it is not easy to see why the printers should have chosen a type evidently influenced by the modern revival,—from which one can scarcely imagine anything more remote than the first Cambridge Press.

ANOTHER VOLUME OF THE CAMBRIDGE HISTORY.

The Cambridge Modern History, planned by the late Lord Acton, Regius Professor of Modern History. Edited by A. W. Ward, Litt.D.; G. W. Prothero, Litt.D., and Stanley Leathes, M.A. Volume IX. Napoleon. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$4 net.

After a considerable delay the publication of this great historical undertaking has resumed its onward march, and the present volume brings it down to the days of our fathers. The period covered extends from the treaty of Kutchuk Kainardji in 1774 to the death of Napoleon Bonaparte in 1821, but nineteen-twentieths of the narrative lie between the overthrow of the Directory in France in 1799 and the end of the Second Congress of Vienna in 1815. These sixteen years occupy 771 pages. But they are years full of immense events which have proved momentous for succeeding generations, years not only of war, but of extraordinary and far-reaching political changes in almost every part of Europe. They are dealt with in twenty-four chapters, from the pens of sixteen writers, five of whom belong to the European Continent, viz.: Professors Pariset, Guiland, and Stschepkin, Dr. Pflug-Hartung, and Major-Gen. Keim. Among the English contributors, Messrs. Fisher, Oman, and Wilson, and Drs. Ward and Holland Rose have appeared in former volumes; Mr. Wickham-Legge, Mr. Gooch, and Col. Lloyd are new acquaintances. The general level of quality is well-sustained. It is perhaps not so high as in the first two volumes—"Renaissance" and "Reformation"—but it strikes us as rather higher than in the last preceding volume, that on the French Revolution. It resembles all the preceding volumes, as a whole, in its business-like tone. The strict abstinence from anything like rhetoric makes it almost arid, a bare record of facts, from which not only graces of style, but even general reflections and characterizations of persons are scrupulously excluded. Seldom has any book written in our tongue conformed itself so strictly to the modern doctrine that historical writing is to be above all things "scientific," scientific not merely in the sense of Thucydides or Mommsen, but in the sense of the Johns Hopkins or Columbia University Studies, scientific not merely in respect of accuracy and precision, but in the barring out of whatever is calculated to appeal to imagination or to emotion. The general reader, if that creature of the last

generation now reads anything beyond newspapers and novels, may find the Cambridge Modern History dry, but the historical student certainly finds it useful. The narrative is careful; it is clear, and it is as minute as exigencies of space permit; while the bibliography alone, occupying 121 pages, is an aid which everyone who consults it will find of great value. So full is it that one cannot help regretting that it has not been made even more serviceable by a brief indication of the respective merits of the books mentioned. The specialist does not need such indications, but the young scholar often finds them helpful; and though they are not required for all the books named, one wishes for them where it happens that several writers have treated the same topic, and it becomes important to know who is most worthy of confidence.

It is a result of the severe plainness of style that there is comparatively little difference in literary quality between the various writers by whom this volume has been prepared. Some, however, present their facts in more telling and vigorous language than others. Some show more skill than others in selecting out of the mass of facts those that have for us to-day the greatest interest. Among the writers three strike us as specially successful. Dr. Ward, the master of Peterhouse, and one of the editors of the series, gives us two chapters on the Congress of Vienna, the earlier Congress of 1814, and the later, after Napoleon's return from Elba, of 1815. He has a most difficult task in tracing the jealousies, the intrigues, the constantly varying combinations of Powers which went on during many months while the tremendous business of resettling Europe and rearranging the territories of its monarchy was being handled. His wide learning and a scholarship both critical and exact are needed for this task. Dr. Ward has shown these qualities and given us an extremely valuable account of the negotiations which gave to Europe an international system that lasted for more than forty years, till it was broken up in Italy in 1859, and in Germany in 1866. He is rather more tender to the Congress than the Liberals of the last generation were, either in Germany, in France, or in England, and he shows us how even in restoring despotic governments it left foundations beneath them on which free institutions were afterwards erected.

H. A. Fisher has in this volume nothing quite so brilliant as the narrative of Bonaparte's *coup d'état* of the 18th Brumaire, which he contributed to Volume VIII. But two of his chapters are of high excellence. That on the French Codes (Chap. viii.) presents a concise, lucid, and instructive view of the methods by which these famous pieces of legislation were constructed, and of Bonaparte's own share in them. We quote one passage:

Eye-witnesses have described the vivid and animated drama which was enacted whenever Bonaparte came down to preside over the Council Chamber in the Tuileries. A chink of arms, a roll of the drum under the arcades, and then as the door opens and the usher calls, and the councillors rise in salutation, the master steps briskly up to his green table on the dais, nods to Cambacérès on his right, to Lebrun on his left, signs to his Council to be seated, and with his "Allons, Messieurs, commençons," sets the debate aflame. Under the consulate

these discussions were free, vivacious, and unembarrassed; and when the First Consul presided in person—and he presided over thirty-five of the eighty-seven sittings devoted to the Civil Code—they were generally prolonged till a late hour in the evening. His, too, was the most quickening spirit in debate. With little legal learning, save what he had gathered from snatches of reading or from the talk of Tronchet and Portalis, and devoid of the scholarly temper of the professional draughtsman, he possessed so luxuriant an intellectual nature, so lively a power of concrete vision, so keen an instinct for the large issues of politics, that his contributions to the discussion were a series of splendid surprises, occasionally appropriate and decisive, but always stamped with the mark of genius and glowing with the impulses of a fresh and impetuous temperament (p. 151).

In another chapter (xxiv.) the editors, making a concession to a curiosity that is rather human than scientific, have set Mr. Fisher to describe the six melancholy years of exile at St. Helena which closed Napoleon's career. These years have little historical importance, except in so far as (and that to no great extent) they enlarge our knowledge of Napoleon himself. But it is right to find room for them. *Sunt lacrymæ rerum et mentem mortalia tangunt*. In the last pages Mr. Fisher gives some general remarks on the fallen Emperor's character and career, which are a fitting epilogue to the volume.

M. Pariset, professor of history at Nancy, sketches the internal history of France during the Consulate and Empire in two chapters, remarkable for the art with which the salient features of Napoleon's government are disengaged from a mass of details and set intelligibly before us. He helps us to realize the constant change in institutions, and in the men by whom the institutions were worked, which went on in the fifteen years during which this amazingly active man ruled France by a constant personal supervision, while he was at the same time occupied with incessant diplomatic negotiations, and, during many months, with leading his armies in the field. There is so much to tell that we are sometimes disappointed at not hearing more about the causes of events, or about their consequences. The murder of the Duke d'Enghien, for instance, is dismissed in a few lines; and we hear less than we wish about the real state of opinion in France all through these changeful years, and the extent to which the reaction against revolutionary ideas had gone. This, however, is perhaps unavoidable, considering how much of the volume has been allotted to warlike operations.

There is comparatively little about the internal history of other countries than France, though Russia receives one chapter, England and Ireland another. This latter is from the pen of G. P. Gooch, a young scholar from Cambridge (England) of high promise, and is done with care and judgment. He handles Pitt, round whose figure there still surge the waves of controversy in England, with fairness, and, what is perhaps harder, is betrayed into no expression of feeling when he comes to the Irish part of the story. It is a pity that Mr. Gooch has been kept within the narrow limits of thirty-six pages, for the personalities of Pitt, Fox, and others of that time deserved to be dealt with a little more fully; and the Irish Rebellion of 1798, an event important in its conse-

quences, also required a fuller treatment, especially to show the importance of the Northern movement supported by the Ulster Presbyterians.

Germany is handled not as a separate department, but in connection with the successive Napoleonic wars, a method perhaps inevitable, but not conducive to a clear view of the internal changes which went on, and which were specially fruitful in the Prussian Kingdom. Nothing is more remarkable than the contrast between the apparent want of national feeling in the first years of the revolutionary wars, and the passionate outburst of patriotism which marked the close of the conflict. When the French annexed the left bank of the Rhine, Görres, one of the most conspicuous German public writers of the time, accepted the severance from Germany of a large German population with the words, "The Rhine was created by nature to serve as the boundary of France" (p. 91). This indifference soon disappeared; and every year that passed after the battle of Jena stirred the spirit of the nation more and more. The arrangements of the old Romano-Germanic Empire were practically knocked to pieces by the treaty of Lunéville, in 1801, and the Empire itself virtually extinguished by the formation of the Confederation of the Rhine, in 1806, close upon which followed the renunciation by the Emperor Francis II. of the Imperial title itself. New combinations were formed, and territories transferred from one province to be bestowed on another. Thus, respect for antiquity and legal right was impaired, while at the same time the anger of the people was roused by the insolence with which the French conquerors abused their predominance. Napoleon created anew the sentiment of German nationality, and may almost be called the creator of the new German Empire.

This volume, which is entitled "Napoleon," might equally well be entitled "The French Revolution at Work Outside France." It records two immense and far-reaching changes in world history. One is in a sort of sense "change chiefly material." It is the destruction of a whole congeries of institutions which had come down from the end of the Middle Ages, along with the disappearance of old boundary lines and the substitution of new ones. This was primarily the work of Napoleon's conquering activity, which spared no country south of the Baltic. The other change lay in the intellectual and moral attitude of men towards their institutions. The enunciation of those general principles which were deemed to be summed up in the words, "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity," the decline of respect for tradition and for authority, the assertion of the right of the individual to pursue happiness, or at any rate, his own purposes in his own way—all these notions which had found their first and most vehement expression in France followed round Europe the battalions of the man who was doing his best to stamp them down in the country whence those battalions came. They have taken a long time to permeate men's minds in the lands traversed by the French armies, and in some of those lands the progress was at first so slow that one can hardly connect it with any French influence. Only within the last two years has the revolutionary spirit shown its power

in Russia. But that breaking up of the hard soil which was needed before the seed of the revolution could germinate was accomplished in Napoleon's days.

He was in no sense the author of this great movement of change; nor indeed can any man or group of men be called the authors of what was a result of a long series of disintegrating events and (in a sense) of the general progress of the human mind. But his personality is so much the most striking, his action was so much the most pervasive, that he seems to fill the canvas in any picture of those times. We find in this volume no attempt to present a full and exact view of his character and gifts, nor to give any general estimate of what revolutionary France did for mankind. But the record of his activities in so many different fields conveys the most forcible impression of his extraordinary powers. His pure capacity for thinking hard and thinking swiftly has been seldom equalled and never surpassed. He who would find a parallel for it is inclined to go back as far as Julius Cæsar, the man who most deserves to be called, like Napoleon, at once a destroyer and a creator. When we read of the work Napoleon did in so many different fields at once, and remember that he rose to the summit of his power while still a youth, with no advantages of family or wealth, we see in him something that seems unlike the ordinary sons of men, something that may be called not human at all but dæmonic. To account for such a rise one is obliged to remember what the conditions of the time were. Within France the old institutions and habits had been so completely broken to pieces that there was no obstacle left to bar the progress of an adventurer. The path lay open to intellect and audacity. When intellect and audacity bring a man to the top in his youth, their force is intensified in a two-fold way. The impression made on the world is greater, and that impression disposes people to rally round the rising hero, to acclaim him, to abase themselves before him. The rising hero is himself confirmed in his own self-confidence, and ventures on bolder steps, whose very boldness, by terrifying his opponents, goes far to insure his success. Such a swift career of victory as Napoleon's so struck the imagination of men as of itself to sweep obstacles out of his way. There is thus a solid truth in the proverb that Fortune favors the young as well as the bold.

It may seem more extraordinary still that the master of France became so soon the master of Continental Europe. But it must be remembered what Europe then was. The old monarchies had gone on in their old ways, with old-fashioned administrations, old-fashioned armies, officers and generals mostly incompetent, because appointed from an aristocratic class within which merit counted for little toward promotion. The First Consul found to his hand armies already accustomed to victory. He found capable officers who had themselves risen by their capacity. Add to these facts the still more decisive fact that there was as little political genius among the statesmen of Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Spain as there was military genius among the soldiers (Suvorov is, perhaps, the chief exception, and Suvorov never faced Napoleon on a battlefield), and the dazzling triumphs

of Napoleon become more intelligible. The presence in Prussia of a Bismarck or a Moltke might have made a great difference. Nevertheless, when all has been said, Napoleon's personality remains a unique one not only in his own generation, but in the modern world. Had he not become intoxicated by the faith in his own star which led him to attempt the conquest of Spain and Portugal before his hold on Central Europe had been further strengthened, and had his physical condition remained after 1810 what it was in before he had reached forty, he might have continued master of Europe till the malady which had carried off his father carried him off also.

ARISTOTLE'S ETHICS.

Aristotle's Theory of Conduct. By Thomas Marshall. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: The Macmillan Co.

During the past hundred years more books have been written about Aristotle's "Ethics," and mainly the Nicomachean treatise, than any other work of Aristotle; but they have not, on the whole, been distinguished for intellectual power. Minds of more than ordinary force have endeavored to give truthful representations of the Stagirite's moral views; but their accounts have been pretty uniformly tinged with their authors' own opinions. For anybody who may resort to the original, the most useful aid will be J. A. Stewart's "Notes." The presumption that the reader of Mr. Stewart's work has the original text before his eyes may perhaps palliate its ceaseless and glaring misrepresentations. It is, in fact, not Aristotle's ideas of morality, but those of Mr. Stewart, that are there to be found. Often they involve conceptions that no dweller in Athens in Alexander's time could be supposed to have; sometimes they are the most modern ideas; often they are simply the doctrines of Kant or of a Kantianized Platonism. There are not wanting cases in which Aristotle is represented as saying what in other passages, or even in the very passage interpreted, he categorically denies. Moreover, Mr. Stewart's work, although almost indispensable to the student of the Greek text, is too narrow in scope to answer the purpose either of the student of philosophy or of the general reader. He never, for example, except in the most desultory manner, touches upon the question when and how the existing text came into being. We speak of the general reader, because Aristotle's work, unlike modern treatises, is not chiefly occupied with the theory of morality. Its main purpose is practical; namely, to aid men to behave on all occasions with moderation and good sense. In that respect it is certainly one of the most interesting and improving books that ever was written. Mr. Marshall gives a skilful paraphrase of the whole treatise, intermingled with explanatory remarks showing the relation of what is said to the state of Athenian society at the time, etc., while at the bottoms of his pages he skims the cream of the Greek text, for the benefit of those who though they can enjoy that language in bits, would lose patience on being asked to read long passages.

The plan is admirable, and is well carried out. The practical parts of the work

could not have been rendered more judiciously; so that the volume makes agreeable and profitable reading.

The work has, however, certain shortcomings. Mr. Marshall is capable of making somewhat sweeping assertions that seem to be supported but by the slenderest of premises. We do not know how he has ascertained that the Athenians of Aristotle's day did not regard the great works of sculpture and architecture as worthy of any deep admiration; but (p. 217) he gives us his word that "to regard them as ennobling agencies for the education of mankind would have seemed nonsense to an educated Athenian. . . . To admire art is not vicious; it is a permissible relaxation; it relieves moodiness and low spirits—so Aristotle and Pericles seem to have thought, but their admiration did not go much further." In like manner, it seems to us that Mr. Marshall is over-confident of the completeness of the historical record, when he avers (p. 174) that the problem of free will was not raised as a serious difficulty until the fifth century of our era. For, not to speak of the fact that the debates on that subject mentioned in Saint Augustine's "Confessions" took place in the fourth century, it is difficult to believe, when the Stoics, from Zeno down, insisted on Destiny, while Epicurus and his followers were emphatically for free will, that the endless disputes between these sects on every other conceivable question should never have touched this one; especially after Parmenides had asserted the universality of Necessity, and Socrates that the man who knew virtue would inevitably pursue it, while Aristotle puts forth the doctrine of free will with no hint of its being a novel idea, but rather the reverse.

The whole volume is more or less tinged with the author's attribution to Aristotle of an opinion to which he himself happens to be personally predisposed. This opinion is that the distinction of right and wrong is an artificial creation of men, or at any rate that their bounds are so. His only formidable reason for attributing the opinion to Aristotle lies in a single sentence which that philosopher set down on the first sheet of papyrus of his manuscript. Namely, having remarked that the whole inquiry is a political one (which was the natural point of view to a Hellene), and that, as such, it cannot be expected to do more than to render the matter clear, since scientific exactitude does not belong equally to all subjects of reasoning any more than to all handiworks, he adds: "The ideas of the honorable and right, as politics treats of them, present so much divergence and anomaly (*διαφορὰν καὶ πλάνην*) that they seem due to instituted law alone, and not to nature" (*ὥστε δεκτὴν νόμου μόνον εἶναι, φύσει δὲ μή.*) This sentence arrests attention, and at first sight appears to support Mr. Marshall's view. But on re-reading it we remark that it is not a categorical assertion; that Aristotle does not even use the expression, "it seems to me," but merely says that so it seems from the point of view of politics (*περὶ ὧν ἡ πολιτικὴ σκοπεῖται*). Moreover, the utterance stands quite alone. Mr. Marshall is able to bring no other passages to its support, except those in which it is said that conduct is the subject of praise or blame, as if this were not true on any ethical theory, and more so on almost any other than on

the one he attributes to Aristotle. Finally, in the fifth book, we come upon a categorical and emphatic denial of the truth of the doctrine in question. What does Mr. Marshall say to that? He simply uses the higher critic's routine method of dismissing difficulties, by supposing that the reporter of the particular lecture misrepresented in that part of the fifth book misunderstood what Aristotle had said. If we suppose, he says, that such utter misunderstanding took place, and that Aristotle never revised the report, there is nothing to prevent our believing that Aristotle said just the opposite of what we read in the text. He is quite right there: on such terms, we can give any interpretation we like to any passage.

For our own part, we entertain no doubt that the manuscript of the Nicomachean "Ethics," though assuredly not intended for publication, was prepared by the hand of Aristotle himself. One of several valid reasons is suggested by the title of the longer exposition, "Nicomachean." Nicomachus was the name of Aristotle's father and of his son. Half a dozen ancient authorities tell us that the work was dedicated to the latter by Aristotle. It is altogether probable that this was the case. But surely Aristotle would not have dedicated a work he had not himself written. During the many years through which the manuscript was in use in the school it is natural to suppose that annotations, such as cross-references, would have been inserted in it; but that any change of its main doctrine should have been permitted is quite incredible. The history of the Aristotelian texts ought to be investigated by a comprehensive, objective, thoroughly scientific and well-considered method; and that done, the present practice among even eminent critics of suggesting inconsiderately that this or that sentence, or even chapter, is spurious, should be discredited.

As for the present question of whether Aristotle regarded the distinction of right and wrong as wholly conventional or not, we have only to read the text just as it stands, and we obtain a result that is consistent and intelligible in every particular. He would have shown himself a poor rhetorician if he had planted himself upon immovable ground in his opening lecture. It was far better to let the mixed audience understand that every theory would receive fair examination at his hands. Mr. Marshall's method, however (if such it can be called), leads him into such a slough of contradictions that he is at length obliged to declare that Aristotle addresses his treatise to the kind of people who do not care to carry their beliefs to their logical consequences.

The weak spot in Aristotle's treatise considered as an aid to the practice of virtue is that he assumes man to have an immediate power of will which, without any previous preparation, can be summoned upon emergency to overcome any temptation. It is the usual error of the partisans of free will. He recognizes, indeed, that a given virtue can be acquired only by habituation; but he seems to think that a person who does not possess the virtue in question is able, on occasion, to behave as if he had acquired it. Great as his discoveries in psychology were, he had never found out that repeated performances of any action in vivid and detailed imagination—say, for

example, in imagining that one moves one's right foot round a horizontal circle clockwise, while one moves one's right hand round a parallel circle counter-clockwise—is almost as effectual in creating a habit of so acting, as if the outward acts were really performed. We now know that that same action—the same in quality, if not equal in intensity—that is performed when we really act, is also performed when we vividly imagine we act; only, in the latter case, we add to that exertion an opposite exertion inhibiting it. This principle could not be directly applied to the cultivation of a habit of activity, since along with the habit of making the desired exertion one would equally be growing a habit of inhibiting the exertion. But in a self-warfare against any of the innumerable vices for the cure of which a habit of inhibition is alone required, this method is advantageous.

RECENT FICTION.

The Treasure of Heaven. By Marie Corelli. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

To give the lady her due, Miss Corelli's latest story is by no means lacking in power. Lacking in distinction, it of course is; but it has more dignity of substance and less indignity of style than anything of hers we have hitherto seen. The opening chapters move on stilts. The people are wooden people, speaking in the dialect of melodrama. But when the real narrative gets into its stride, forgetting about Miss Corelli and her theories, matters are different. The central motive is a strong one: an old man, and a very rich one, wearying of the emptiness of his life, setting out, disguised, afoot, and nearly penniless, in quest of the treasure of Heaven—love. How by great pain he achieves at the eleventh hour the quest constitutes a theme of really epical quality. Not that the power of "The Treasure of Heaven" is an epical power; but the book has, unlike most current novels, a certain animus, a suggestion, at least, of something large and sound. It contains also good characters and episodes. David Helmsley, the aged millionaire tramp, is himself an appealing figure. The pathos of his lonely pilgrimage is, if obvious, not more so than it would have been in the hands of the Gadshill romancer whom Miss Corelli's audience, at least, does not pretend to have outgrown. The character of Matthew Peke, herbalist and born wayfarer, asks no favors of anybody; nor do Miss Tranter, Feathery Joltram, and the rest of the rustic crew at the "Trusty Man." More doubtful persons appear, notably one Arbroath, a bigoted, meddling, and immoral parson, whose selection as arch-rascal of the story would seem to indicate that the author regards a parson as a little more dangerous member of society than a reviewer—toward the latter unfortunate she directs a number of incidental thrusts, intercalated here and there, somewhat gratuitously, it should seem, and yet with fell purpose. All the poor people met by Helmsley in his wanderings treat him with uncalculating kindness; it remains for him to be brought back from death and nursed to happiness by the good angel from whom (but not in the way of matrimony) he is to win the longed-for love, and

who, when he presently dies, is rewarded, illogically but fitly, for the purposes of romance, with the inheritance of his curse of wealth. It would be easy to make game of this book, but we suppose Miss Corelli will admit that even a reviewer may have his better moments, and will allow us to express the opinion that there are many worse kinds of popular fiction than that of which she here shows herself to be capable.

Witch's Gold. By Hamlin Garland. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

According to Mr. Garland's "Foreword" this is more properly a restoration than a reprint. Originally written in much the same form and with the same title, it was cut down to meet "the needs of a serial publication," and printed under the title "The Spirit of Sweetwater." It is now restored, and published in that ornate and expansive form reserved for holiday reprints. We are not sure that it has deserved such honor. The story does not represent Mr. Garland at his best; it is simply an amiable frontier romance, altogether barren of the grim power of "Main-Travelled Roads," though it was apparently written at about the same time. In that remarkable collection of tales Mr. Garland showed himself a prophet of the plains. He succeeded in interpreting the farm life of the Middle West in broad human terms; the and the sordidness, to be sure, rather the beauty of it; but this with a peculiarly healthy-minded intensity of concentration upon the facts with a view to getting the truth out of them. We know nothing more spontaneous and of the soil in American literature. "Witch's Gold" does not give us this impression. The intimations of the "Foreword" explain the fact. Some years ago Mr. Garland travelled in Colorado for the avowed purpose of collecting literary material—we will not say making copy. He had in mind a moral situation as basis for a story, and accidentally picked up from the conversation of two miners an anecdote which promised to be useful in enforcing that situation. This is one way of working toward fiction, and it has its merits; but it cannot possibly have been the way in which "A Branch Road" or "Among the Corn-Rows" was written. There he did for the life of the small farmer what Bret Harte did half a century earlier for the miner. Harte's vein ceased pretty soon to yield pay ore of the first quality; and it cannot be said that the last decade has produced from Mr. Garland all that was hoped for. Is it in the nature of things that the interpreter of life through local American conditions should so quickly find himself out of voice?

A Midsummer Day's Dream. By H. B. Marriott Watson. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

A delightful bit of romantic foolery. To be sure, the sprightliness of the hero lapses now and then into sheer silliness; but it is hard to represent in print that mere bubbling over of animal spirits which is so tolerable in real life. The sketch is a record of certain amorous adventures contingent upon an out-of-doors amateur rendering of the "Midsummer Night's Dream." The principal motive is a mystery connected with the finding and trailing of a wo-

man's shoe. In the course of his search the hero is constrained to make love pleasantly if somewhat indiscriminately; and there is plenty of chance in "Titania's Glade" for comfortable philandering. Titania is married and therefore immune from his attentions, which wander among Hermia, Helena, and several of the fairies. Everybody falls in love with him, but this seems rather desirable. In fact, the whimsical tone of the book is so well maintained that all its absurdities of situation and incident take on an amiable glamour. Nothing that is so is so, and all things are justifiable. Wherefore it may be said that the author has not profanely connected his extravaganzas with the greatest of romantic fantasies.

The Shock of Battle. By Patrick Vaux. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mr. Vaux, the title-page informs us, is the author of "Thews of England." We have not read that work, but there is ample evidence before us as to what its character would have been. Like the present story, no doubt, it suggested an advance upon the swashbuckling romance comparable to the advance of the motor car upon the bicycle. The romancer speaks in terms of battleships, and flings squadron against squadron with the ease of a chess player. He is, withal, a ruthless god of the machine, preferring open slaughter to hair-breadth escapes, and by no means grudging of gory detail. He writes as a war correspondent who, being the inventor of his war, is naturally omnipresent and omniscient; and the journalist whom he uses as spokesman is rather a pale phantom. For the rest, Mr. Vaux is an enthusiastic "rooter" for England, in the imagined contingency, shortly to be faced, of war with Germany. He paints the Germans as treacherous brutes, and, if not poltroons, hopeless blunderers. He sweeps them from the sea with much promptness and fortitude. He writes with animation and vividness. As a piece of imaginative journalism the book may rank about with Mr. Wells's prophetic flights.

Charles Lever: His Life in his Letters. By Edmund Downey. Edinburgh: W. Blackwood and Sons. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$5 net.

Hitherto there has been no satisfactory record of Lever's literary life. On his death, in 1872, a biography was written by Fitzpatrick, full of detail and in the main accurate. But Fitzpatrick concerned himself chiefly with Lever's early career, nor had he access to the mass of correspondence which Mr. Downey has been able to use. The present work consists almost entirely of letters, and in them Lever discusses his money affairs, his family life, and especially the evolution of his numerous novels and occasional articles. The correspondence with John Blackwood (1863-72) illustrates once more the ideal relations that the great publishing house was able to maintain with its contributors. Lever's articles were often rejected by Blackwood, and his novels when they ran as serials in *Maga* were subject to the severest criticism, but it was all done with so much tact that even the hot-blooded Lever never

took offence. On the last evening of Lever's life he entertained the Blackwoods at his villa at Trieste, and it was Blackwood who took charge of everything and laid his old friend to rest in the British Cemetery, in June, 1872.

In Ireland nowadays one hears little of Charles Lever or his novels. Of the man himself there are few local memories. A great part of his life was spent on the Continent, first in Brussels, and later in Florence, Spezzia (where he held a sinecure as consul), and Trieste, where, to his great chagrin, his consulship involved much work and the unlimited entertaining of naval officers, a class of men with whom he had nothing in common. "The constant intercourse with creatures of mere action," he writes to Blackwood in 1865—"with creatures of muscles, nerves, and mucous membranes, and no brains—becomes one of the most wearing and weakening things you can imagine." This was after a visit from the English fleet, during which he "insulted the ward-room and d—d the cockpit, and even sneered at the admiral," in the vain hope that the admiring but brainless blue-jackets would give him a day's leisure for writing. From Ireland he was exiled by no such oppressive admiration. When, after five years of medical practice in Brussels as a young man (1837-42), he settled down near his native Dublin, and took over the editorship of the *Dublin University Magazine*, he meant, no doubt, to spend his literary life in Ireland. But though he could always fill his house with the most interesting men of the literary world of Dublin and London, he was coldly received by official Irish society. He never forgave the snubs that he endured from the Viceroy Lord de Grey when he tried to take part in public life; and (what was far harder to bear) men like Carleton, the novelist, and the "patriotic" set attacked him in the press, asserting that he had made Irishmen ridiculous in English eyes by the caricatures in his novels. In 1845 he returned to the Continent, and Ireland was never to see him again, except at long intervals, when he would spend a day or two dining out and playing whist in Dublin.

Lever fixed forever the English notion of the rollicking Irish dragoon. His personages have always appealed to English rather than to Irish tastes, a fact which he found extremely mortifying. Nothing angered him so much as to be told by Irish critics that his types were anachronisms, and he often defended himself by pointing out the original—always, of course, some eccentric. He was far too sensitive to make a successful editor, and the nervous worry of editing the *D. U. M.*, as it was popularly called, nearly shattered his robust health. Most of his novels were written abroad, where he rejoiced in the sunshine and the freedom from conventions. He made a large income by his enormous industry, and more than once had so many novels on the stocks together that he found it safer to be anonymous, except in the case of one or two, lest he should be suspected of over-production. All that he made he spent forthwith, and almost every letter to Blackwood contains a few fervent phrases of gratitude for a timely check that would float the family in luxury for a few weeks more.

Lever hated intellectual women: "We

never see him," writes Mrs. Browning in Florence; "it is curious . . . in fact, he lives a different life from ours; he is in the ballroom, and we in the cave, and peradventure he is afraid of the damp of us." "It was amusing," says a friend, "to observe his transparent manœuvres to avoid Mrs. Trollope as a whist-partner; and it was equally amusing to observe Mrs. Trollope's undisguised desire to secure Lorrequer as her partner."

The letters are well worth reading. Lever wrote in haste and illegibly so that on almost every page some word has to be supplied by conjecture. Of his brilliance, the wit and geniality that endeared him to all, there is plenty of evidence, and these two volumes will probably be read when his novels are never taken from the shelf. At present, one meets here and there a boy of old-fashioned tastes who prefers Lever to Kipling, but to most people "Charles O'Malley" is merely the name of a minor classic that one need not read. Mr. Downey's book has good portraits and is well got up.

Literature of Libraries in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries. Edited by John Cotton Dana and Henry W. Kent. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.—Vol. 1.: *The Duties and Qualifications of a Librarian.* By Jean-Baptiste Cotton Des Houssayes.—Vol. II.: *The Reformed Librarian-Keeper.* By John Dury.

This series of sources of the history of librarianship in former days is most welcome. The two volumes before us and the four that are promised (see the *Nation* for August 2) form together a collection that should be studied by all library workers, and that might well be read by any student of educational and intellectual history. Unfortunately, the price is high and the edition small: 250 copies at \$12 for six volumes of less than 100 pages each. The address which the Abbé Cotton Des Houssayes delivered before the General Assembly of the Sorbonne on his accession as librarian to that learned body, in 1780, is a scholarly and eloquent picture of the ideal librarian:

A librarian truly worthy of the name should, if I may be permitted the expression, have explored in advance every region of the empire of letters, to enable him afterwards to serve as a faithful guide to all who may desire to survey it. . . . The superintendent of a library, whatever be its character, should be no stranger to any department of learning; sacred and profane literature, the fine arts, the exact sciences, all should be familiar to him. A diligent and indefatigable student, ardently devoted to letters, his sole and abiding aim should be to make sure their advancement. Especially should the superintendent of such a library as yours—which is not, by right, designed for the public—if he desires to increase the reputation of the illustrious society which he represents—if he also desires to give proofs of its devotion to learning—receive all its visitors, whether scholars or simply curious, with an assiduous attention, so polite and kindly that his reception shall appear to each one the effect of a distinction purely personal. . . .

The second volume in the series, John Dury's "Two Copies of Letters Concerning the Place and Office of a Librarian-Keeper," is preceded by a biographical sketch, by Ruth Shepard Grannis, chiefly telling about the author's travels and activity in the interest of Protestant Church Unity, but without explaining the connection between

the present publication and his other activities. Still, there was such a connection. After more than fifteen years of travels in Holland, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden, John Dury married, in 1645, an Irish lady and remained thereafter for ten years in England. Here he became associated with that small band of educational enthusiasts and reformers, whose leader was Samuel Hartlib, the philanthropist and friend of Comenius. In 1649, Hartlib published a work by his friend, entitled "The Reformed School," in which the latter advocated advanced ideas in education, anticipating many of Fröbel's and Herbart's principles. The work met with some criticism, and Dury replied to his critics in a supplement, which was accompanied by two letters to Hartlib on the subject of library management. The volume also contained "the description of one of the chiefest libraries which is in Germany, erected and ordered by one of the most Learned Princes in Europe" (namely, the library in Wolfenbüttel). The present reprint contains only the two letters; a translation of the Latin description of the library at Wolfenbüttel where eighty years later Lessing became librarian, might well have been included.

Dury's ideas of library management were not based on actual experience, but he had thought deeply on the subject, as he, during his travels, must have had occasion to use libraries in many lands. He is particularly concerned with university libraries. As in educational matters and in the question of religious toleration, so he is ahead of his time in matters of library "keeping." He regards as the constituency of a university library not only the members of the university of which it forms a part, but the world of scholars in any country; librarians, he says, "ought to become agents for the advancement of universal learning." John Dury even anticipates President Eliot's plan to stock "dead" books separate from the "live" ones:

Discretion must be used and confusion avoided, and a course taken to distinguish that which is profitable from that which is useless; . . . yet because there is seldom a fine book wherein there is not something useful, and books freely given are not to be cast away, but may be kept, therefore I would have a peculiar place appointed for such books as shall be laid aside to keep them in.

J. G. Schelhorn mentions Dury's Librarian-keeper in his "Anleitung für Bibliothekare und Archivare" (Ulm, 1788-91), among books of value to libraries; since then it seems to have been forgotten until Richard Garnett called attention to it in a paper read before the Library Association of the United Kingdom, in 1884. Eight years later the first letter was reprinted by Mr. McAlister in *The Librarian*, with an historical introduction, and the following year, 1893, J. Kemke published an account of it in the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*.

The Training of Boys' Voices. By Claude Ellsworth Johnson. Oliver Ditson Co.

The author of this little volume, who is organist and choirmaster in a New York church and vocal teacher at the National Conservatory, declares that never before in the history of music has the singing of children been so much a matter of popular interest as at present. Schools every-

where, both public and private, are providing instruction in music reading, and every year there is a greater number of churches which rely upon boys to lead the religious worship in song. Quality is here, as in so many other things, far more important than quantity. In some cases cathedral services are rendered by twenty soprano boys. Smaller churches do not need so many, "provided that all are well trained and developed." In other words, large numbers are not so much of an advantage as thorough training. A good teacher is therefore a requisite; but as the training of children's voices constitutes a department of voice culture for which some special preparation is required, Mr. Johnson has written his treatise to assist in such preparation.

Inasmuch as, up to the time of maturity, the voices of boys and girls are alike, both having a natural soprano, why is it that boys are favored in the forming of church choirs? Is it because of the *mulier taceat in ecclesia*, or some other survival of masculine tyranny? No, it is simply because of the greater delicacy of the feminine organization. Boys are better fitted for any extraordinary efforts, such as those involved in singing before the public, in choirs, etc. Girls, our author maintains, "ought not to be taxed with serious vocal work until the system has completely settled after the change to womanhood." They have only one voice, which develops gradually, whereas a boy's larynx is so much that a new vocal organ is practically the result. And the boy-voice is richer, and has more musical value than the girl-voice. Hence it is that, through the long flight of centuries, the singing boy has maintained his place in the choir stalls, while the girls were excluded.

Even boys, however, though more robust than girls, should use their voices gently at first. Soft singing is the method which alone leads to musical results. This is perhaps the most useful of the lessons dwelt on by our author. It suggests the query whether the reason why so few American men have become famous singers is not to be sought in the fact that the American boy is so preposterously noisy. Mr. Johnson strongly disapproves of teachers and parents who urge their children to speak and sing loud, thus causing them to force the "thick" register of the voice in range and power until it becomes reedy, coarse, and harsh, like that of children who scream in the streets. These disagreeable qualities, he maintains, "are not natural, but acquired, for children reared in refinement have sweet voices." Perhaps this statement is too sweeping. Some children naturally have ugly voices, as some have ugly faces. But it is certainly true that screaming in the streets spoils child-voices by the wholesale, and that the American boy's voice is like the average steam whistle in being about a hundred times louder than it need be for its purposes.

Mr. Johnson accepts John Curwen's names for the three registers of the voice: "Thick," "thin," and "small," which have much to commend them, and he believes that the secret of success in beginning with children's voices consists in the immediate production of their middle and upper register tones. His remarks on voice training

are commendable, and he supplies several pages of dally exercises for the voice. To the selection of music for boys' voices the final chapter is devoted, and there is a twelve-page list of choir music for boys' and men's voices.

Slavery and Abolition, 1831-1841. By Albert Bushnell Hart. The American Nation. Vol. XVI. New York: Harper & Bros. \$2 net.

There can be little save praise for Professor Hart's contribution to the series which he is editing. The volume does not, indeed, observe very closely at all points the professed chronological limits; its description of the incidents of slavery, in particular, applying in general to the whole period from 1830 to 1860. As he points out, however, plantation life changed but little in character during the generation which preceded the Civil War, and narrow limits of date are not material. The narrative of events, on the other hand, is kept well within the announced bounds.

The plan of the series necessitates the treatment in this volume of a few topics not closely connected with either slavery or abolition. Such are the accounts of American social characteristics from 1830 to 1860, the intellectual life of 1830-1840, the development of transportation, and the panic of 1837. The two subjects, however, on which Professor Hart has most to say, and around which centres the main interest of the volume, are the institution of slavery and the movement for abolition. The description of the theory and practice of slavery forms easily the best summary view of the "peculiar institution" to be found in the pages of any recent writer. In a series of chapters on slavery as an economic system, the relations between the slaveholder and his white neighbors, the free negro, plantation life, the control of slaves, the slave market, the argumentative defence of slavery, and the complicated interstate and international relations, we find the essential elements of the institution systematically set forth. At best it is a damning exhibit; for while Professor Hart writes with impartiality and restraint, the mere recital of facts, drawn as these are from unimpeachable sources, constitutes a convincing demonstration of the inhuman nature of the system.

Of the work of Garrison there will doubtless always be diverse interpretations and appraisals. Professor Hart's estimate is, we think, both sympathetic and just, though his pages do not give a very vivid impression of the "warmth and glow" which characterized much of the earlier abolition movement. On the whole, however, the figure of Garrison does not become the less imposing because its lines are more truthfully drawn and his place among contemporaries more accurately defined. The fundamental distinction, often overlooked, between abolition and anti-slavery is clearly brought out, as is the effect of the organized opposition to slavery on public opinion and conduct in different parts of the country. The final chapter, on the general influence and achievements of abolition, forms a thoughtful and judicious summary.

Of the maps, those showing the geograph-

ical distribution and progress of slavery and the slave trade from 1830 to 1850, and the routes of the "underground railroad," are especially noteworthy. The bibliography is unusually full: MacDonald's "Jeffersonian Democracy," however (p. 326), should, of course, read "Jacksonian Democracy." The text shows an unexpected number of typographical errors.

Cornish Saints and Sinners. By J. Henry Harris, with numerous drawings by L. Raven-Hill. New York: John Lane. \$1.50.

This book is of the familiar type—rather more common in the British Isles than in America—which describes the vacation rambles of a few friends. It is written, like most of them, in the first person; its plot, a simple itinerary, is slighter than usual; and the characterization of the author's fellow-travellers, Guy and the Bookworm, is of the most conventional sort. The customary American Phyllis, who is introduced to enliven the narrative, might have been omitted without loss to Mr. Harris's reputation, but no one will be disposed to take offence at the good-humored absurdity of the portrayal. It is more of a pity that the author tried for humor—and arrived at smartness—in narrating some of the traditional tales and legends of the Cornish people. It is a cheap and easy device to treat the story of Tristan and Iseult as a scandal "not wanting in interest for the upper crust," or to talk about the "whitewashing of Jenefer" (Guinevere); and travesty, to be worth while, should be more cleverly done. Yet, in spite of these mistaken efforts, most of the book is agreeable reading, and Mr. Harris shows real interest in Cornwall and sympathy, mixed with a certain condescension, for the people he describes. He has some good anecdotes of smugglers and wreckers, a few unspoiled folk-tales, and plenty of amusing sketches of persons and places. No one who has ever visited Cornwall, or who has known any of the similar fishing populations the world over, will fail to take pleasure in his description of the village people standing Sunday morning by their garden gates, looking "up-along" and "down-along" and "athwart" the streets; or in the account of Uncle Tom at his post:

Did he ever tire of looking at the sea? Not that he was aweer on. The vish was in the zay, an' th' wind was in the clouds, and what else was there in this world worth looking at? Man and boy, he had followed the sea till his hair was white, until he knew its coquetries and passions, and generation after generation before him were sailor-fishers, until "the salt was in his blood." The old man's eyes were wild-violet-blue, and a mystic light came into them when he said that at times the sea "called" to him, and "ef so be I had my way, I'd die at zay, and be buried in salt water, like Jan Tregose."

The illustrations, like the text, are partly characteristic local sketches and partly attempts at the comic.

From a Cornish Window. By A. T. Quiller-Couch. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50 net.

This collection of papers has other points of resemblance to Mr. Benson's recent book than that of title. Indeed, this Cor-

nish window of "Q.'s," though it opens upon a busy little harbor on the North Coast, obviously commands also, as if in mirage, the towers of Oxford. But the Cornishman has less to do directly with academic themes, and his speech is freer and more direct. He is neither don nor dilettante. He speaks as a university man rather than like one; as one who is content to have left the learned cloister for all-out-doors. While Mr. Benson is bowing his way across his quiet quadrangle, "Q." is, it may be, riding a gale along the Cornish shore. ". . . There was nothing to hurt, as yet: the boat was shaking off the water like a duck, and making capital weather of it; we told each other that once beyond the Rame, with the sea on our quarter, we should do handsomely." Not every honest man is a yachtsman, and some powerful writers have been without interest in sport of any kind. Mr. Benson, with a respectable athletic career behind him, admits his present indifference to sport and distrust of it. Mr. Quiller-Couch dates the fall of the year by that day on which his boat is hauled up for the winter; and is, moreover, an ardent follower of cricket.

There is much variety in this miscellany, or series of miscellanies, arranged by the calendar; but nothing therein is labored or affected. It is excellent talk, as flexible, suggestive, and responsive to suggestion, as good talk should be. Of its substance we need not here speak at length; incidentally it contains some interesting criticisms to which brief attention may be called. There is no uncertain note in what is to be said of the poetry of Imperialism:

Well, let us kick up what dust we will over "Imperial ideals," we must admit, at least, that these ideals are not yet "accepted of song"; they have not inspired poetry in any way adequate to the nobility claimed for them. Mr. Swinburne and Mr. Henley saluted the Boer war in verse of much truculence, but no quality; and when Mr. Swinburne and Mr. Henley lacked quality one began to inquire into causes. Mr. Kipling's *Absent-Minded Beggars*, *Muddled Oafs*, *Goths*, and *Huns* invited one to consider why he should so often be first-rate when giving the lie to his pet political doctrines, and invariably below form when enforcing them. For the rest, the Warden of Glenalmond bubbled and squeaked, and Mr. Alfred Austin, like the man at the piano, kept on doing his best. . . . I don't doubt they were, one and all, honest in their way. But as poetry their utterances were negligible. As writers of real poetry the Anti-Jingoes, and especially the Celts, held and still hold the field.

The critic goes on to show that the Imperial bards are lacking in sincerity, in a sense for justice, in "recognition of the human soul"; and so leads to the forcible conclusion that "man cannot support himself upon assurances that he is the strongest fellow in the world, and the richest, and owns the biggest house, and pays the biggest rates, and wins whatever game he plays at, and stands so high in his clothes that while the Southern Cross rises over his hat brim it is already broad day on the seat of his breeches." Mr. Quiller-Couch is no quietist; his plea is for that sense of justice as contrasted with might which has inspired all art of the first order. He gives honor where honor is due, gratefully commending such verse as Kipling's "Flag of England" and Henley's "England, My England." Poets should, he is confident, con-

cern themselves with the important events of contemporary life. The common opinion to the contrary, "is merely the complement of that 'Art for Art's sake' chatter which died a dishonored death a short while ago, and which it is still one of the joys of life to have outlived. You will remember how loftily we were assured that Art had nothing to do with morality; that the novelist, *e. g.*, who composed tales of human conduct, had no concern with ethics—that is to say, with the principles of human conduct: that 'Art's only business was to satisfy Art,' and so forth. Well, it is all over now, and packed away in the rag-bag of out-worn paradoxes; and we are left to enjoy the revived freshness of the simple truth that an artist exists to serve his art, and his art to serve men and women."

With this brief taste of quality, the book and the reader may be left to each other.

Edgar Allan Poe. The Man: the Master: the Martyr. By Oliver Leigh. Chicago: The Frank M. Morris Co.

Some day, so Mr. Leigh assures us, he intends to bring out a compendious work on Poe. Meanwhile, he is obliging enough to stay our stomach with this wafer-like volume by way of makeshift. As a self-constituted authority on the subject he is naturally very severe with every one else who has ever written about it. One of the papers or "notes," of several successive layers of which the book is composed, consists of a vigorous denunciation of recent editors, biographers, and critics. Only two have succeeded in satisfying him—Mr. Stedman and Mr. Mabie, who ought to be very thankful at securing by good luck what was probably unobtainable by any exercise of human foresight. A brief quotation will illustrate Mr. Leigh's critical manner—we can hardly say, manners:

That the author of these elegant extracts [from Mr. Woodberry's "Life of Poe"] has the advantage of poor Poe in that "he belongs to the men of originally perfect power" and not to mere gentlemen of culture is probably true. That Prof. Woodberry is—or was—a powerful poet was impressed on the public mind by his cordial reviewers in the select literary papers, about the time his "power" produced the biography. The title, if memory serves, of his poetry book was "The North Shore Clock and other Poems." It was pronounced a striking piece, but has not recently been heard in these Western parts, though Connecticut products as a rule are quite popular here.

To judge from this and other specimens of his criticism, Mr. Leigh's chief qualification for his contemplated *opus* is to be found in the circumstance that some years ago he discovered in the Astor Library a satire, signed Lavante, on Griswold's "Poets and Poetry of America." This poem he ascribed to Poe and reprinted with an argument to sustain his ascription, under the pseudonym of "Geoffrey Quarles." Apparently, however, the exhibit carried very little conviction to either editors or critics. And now in his second note he reasserts himself, epitomizes his argument, and illustrates the satire with a running and connective commentary. The argument, as so abbreviated, does not seem very cogent—and as for the poem, while it may be Poe's, it might just as well be any one's else who could versify and read Pope.

The most interesting thing in the book, however, is a portrait, or rather two por-

traits, of Poe, intended to emphasize the irregularities of his head and features. One is the lateral reverse of the other; and the upper is split down the middle in such a way as to show, when one or the other flap is raised, what the poet would have looked like, if the design of either side had been carried out symmetrically. The effect is very curious.

Drama and Music.

The new plays of the current week in New York do not require much critical comment. "The Dear Unfair Sex," a farcical comedy by Inglis Allen, a young Englishman who has written some bright sketches for *Punch* and the magazines, as well as one or two longer stories, is clever boy's work, but too imitative and improbable to merit serious attention. It does, however, contain a promise of more valuable work hereafter. A certain inventiveness, for instance, is exhibited in the new turn given to the now somewhat stale and discredited situation in which a reputable married woman is made to visit a bachelor's rooms, alone, at midnight. The motive of the visit is wholly improbable, not to say preposterous, even for farce, but the course of the bachelor, in promptly sending for the lady's husband, telling him the truth, and inviting him to help in the salvation of the woman and the suppression of an imminent scandal, is not only natural, but essentially dramatic. This novel expedient—which is, nevertheless, entirely reasonable—not only revived interest in a play which was on the verge of failure, but left the final outcome in uncertainty, thus offering an opportunity for a capital last act, which would have ensured the success of the piece if it could have come earlier. Unfortunately, the character of the heroine is so overdrawn in the first act as to be fully as unsympathetic as it is incredible, and neither the personal charm nor admirable art of Miss Ellis Jeffreys could make it plausible or tolerable. The play, therefore, may be dismissed with this brief notice, but the performance of it deserves a few lines of special commendation. It is gratifying to know that the English stage is still capable of supplying a travelling company of so high a general level of excellence. The piece, which might have easily degenerated into clumsy farce, was played throughout in the right spirit of light comedy, with ample vivacity, but no exaggeration. Miss Jeffreys once more proved herself a very adroit and delightfully humorous actress, and Mr. Cartwright displayed rare versatility in the character of the abused and afterward masterful husband. Mr. Gerald Lawrence played an ungrateful part with fine tact, and Mr. George Giddens furnished as hilarious a bit of broad comedy as has been seen here in years, and that, too, without exaggeration or offence of any sort. Nor were the minor characters of far inferior quality. It is to be hoped that the combination will be seen in some more valuable play.

Concerning the English version which Langdon Mitchell has made of Gordin's "Kreutzer Sonata" few words are needful. He has acquitted himself of his task well

enough, but it is not easy to discern why he or anybody else should have undertaken it. The piece is essentially disagreeable, in character and atmosphere, and neither the theatre nor the public has been benefited by its translation from the Yiddish. Undoubtedly it contains some notable theatrical opportunities for an actress of the calibre of Madame Kalich, who rises in it to a high pitch of emotional exaltation. She is an actress of distinction and power, whose advent upon the English stage is welcome, but it is to be hoped that hereafter she will seek to exhibit her talents in more wholesome, nobler, and more inspiring forms of drama.

A practical step has at last been taken to perpetuate the memory of the late Sir Henry Irving in England. At a meeting of the committee of the Actors' Association, in London, it was decided to call a public meeting for October 1, and Sir Squire Bancroft has promised to preside. No details have so far been arranged, but it is expected that the gathering will take place at His Majesty's Theatre.

Why should the State of Maine produce nearly all the great singers of this country? Annie Louise Cary, Lillian Nordica, and Emma Eames are three of them, and now it appears that the young American soprano, of whom all Europe is at present talking in terms of rapture—Geraldine Farrar—was also born in Maine, at South Paris. Miss Farrar took part the other day in the Mozart Festival at Salzburg; and what the eminent Viennese critic, Richard Wallaschek, wrote of her on this occasion is typical: "The brilliant Miss Farrar took the hearts of the festival public by storm. Two days after her first appearance it was impossible in all Salzburg to buy another picture of her. This fact indicates better than a long description the impression she has made here. It is not easy to describe her in a few words. Her voice sounds dark at one time, bright at another; her artistic personality affects one as being both serious and sparkling, fickle and faithful."

Pianists might do something toward rescuing their recitals from disfavor by reviving some of those marvellous operatic fantasias of Liszt with which he used to attract large audiences. In this connection it is of interest to recall what happened in Berlin a few winters ago. Busoni gave a series of concerts at which he revived a number of those fantasias. They aroused the enthusiasm even of Dr. Leopold Schmidt, critic of the *Tageblatt*, who is not a Lisztite, but who admitted that these "Don Juan," "Rigoletto," "Robert the Devil," "Lucrezia Borgia," etc., fantasias of Liszt were as entertaining as ever. "It seems to me," he added significantly, "that if we are to be called on to admire the art of playing the piano, such programmes are much more suitable for concerts than the customary sonata programmes with their serious educational physiognomy. The audience was evidently of the same opinion, for it was genuinely enthusiastic."

While these fantasias are for the most part for concert pianists only, it is well to bear in mind what that perspicacious and peppery pianist-teacher-critic, Hans von Bülow, once wrote: "Some day I shall make a list of all those Liszt pieces which the

majority of amateurs will find much easier to master and digest than the chaff of a Thalberg or the wheat of a Henselt or Chopin. But the edict has gone forth that the name 'Liszt' as composer for pianoforte means pieces of such gigantic difficulties as to be practically unplayable. 'Tis a harmless yet none the less foolish prepossession of the ignorant, like numberless others."

Whether Bilow ever carried out the plan referred to is not known to the writer of this paragraph. But there is an admirable collection of such pieces edited by Mr. August Spanuth and published by the Oliver Ditson Company. It comprises two of the "Dream of Love" nocturnes, the "Dance of Gnomes," "Murmuring Wood's," two "Consolations," "Ave Maria," "On Lake Wallenstadt," "Pastorale," "At the Spring," "Longing for Home," "Gondoliera," "Album Leaf," and eight other favorite pieces, besides a biographic and critical introduction. Another of Mr. Spanuth's volumes in the same edition includes ten of the Hungarian rhapsodies; a third, twenty of the Liszt transcriptions of pieces by Chopin, Franz, Gounod, Mendelssohn, Paganini, Rossini, Schubert, Schumann, Alabieff, Verdi, and Wagner. These three volumes cannot be too highly commended to all advanced students and pianists. Of the famous Liszt études the best edition, perhaps, is that published by Augener & Co., with an admirable introduction by Edward Dannreuther, who calls attention to Liszt's incessant striving for perfection as shown by his frequent revisions of his own works.

The late Sir George Grove's book on Beethoven's symphonies has appeared in a German translation—an honor he deserved and would have appreciated, though hardly expected, for he was modest, and when he wrote that book he was quite afraid of the professionals and anxious to emphasize the

fact that it was written only for amateurs. The English are appreciating more and more what Grove did in helping them to listen to good music understandingly. As one critic remarks: "Certainly, many a middle-aged amateur of to-day can trace his first real appreciation of the classics to Grove's stimulating and infectious enthusiasm." He was one of the first to write analytical programmes for use at concerts, at first on a slight scale, gradually more elaborately, but never pedantically.

In summing up, in the *Etude*, an article written by Mr. E. Markham Lee for the *Journal of the International Music Society* on the future of the cadence, Mr. Arthur Elson says: "According to his ideas, most of the present methods of closing a piece are becoming stale, flat, and unprofitable from over-use. He speculates on the adoption of new ones, and cites several instances, among them one by MacDowell, including the sixth note of the scale with the common chord." The theorists will find many other new things in MacDowell's music when they begin to study it. As for cadences, there are six European masters who especially abhorred the stereotyped closes and showed the way to endless variety: Schubert, Chopin, Franz, Wagner, Liszt, and Grieg.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Braudes, George. On Reading. Duffield & Co. 75 cents net.
 Brown, Charles Reynolds. The Social Message of the Modern Pulpit. Scribners. \$1.25 net.
 Collings, Jesse. Land Reform. Longmans. \$4.20 net.
 Duncan, Norman. The Adventures of Billy Topsail. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.50.
 Goodrich, Arthur. The Balance of Power. Ovington Publishing Co. \$1.50.
 Gordon, S. D. Quiet Talks About Jesus. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 75 cents net.
 Greek Lyric Poets. Edited by Henry M. Tyler. Boston: Ginn & Co.
 Greene, Sarah P. McLean. Power Lot. The Baker & Taylor Co.
 Haggard, H. Rider. The Spirit of Bambatse. Longmans.

- Henderson, Mary Foote. The Aristocracy of Health. Harpers. \$1.50.
 Henderson, W. J. The Art of the Singer. Scribners. \$1.25 net.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 20, 1906.

The Week.

Secretary Root's completion of his South American circuit is worthy of more than its indifferent reception by our press and public. He has had something like a triumphal progress. His bearing has been at once dignified and tactful, and his public utterances have been weighty and at the same time conciliatory. The happiest impression has been made throughout his tour, and this country has been placed in a newly advantageous position to strengthen friendly and profitable relations with the countries to the south of us. But what sign is there that anything will really be done? What evidence can any one point to that the Americans of the North are prepared to shake off their old contemptuous attitude towards the Americans of the South? The truth is that years of the protective tariff have made us a home-keeping nation, with homely wits. We are not keen enough to see, or to care, that the Germans and English are far outstripping us in the South American trade, and for obvious reasons. If we give any attention to the matter at all, it is in order to emit a stupid growl at the "unfriendly" way in which Brazilians and Argentinos buy more of our rivals than they do of us; and then to talk again of falling back on bounties and hostile tariffs to do for us what only energy and skill can achieve. Mr. Root's voyage has put us in the way to change all that, if we would; but we fear it will be long before our protectionists can bring themselves to think of wool and copper and hides as aught except inviting objects for thumping tariff duties.

The agreement at the Rio conference Monday in favor of uniformity in customs legislation, consular regulations, and the publication of statistics among the American republics, is one of those resolutions which every one agrees to at sight, but which encounter all manner of obstacles in their execution. The movement in this country toward uniform methods of municipal accounting has even greater practical advantages to recommend it, yet for all its creditable progress the result aimed at is still far off. Part of this is due to sheer inertia. As regards the classification of goods, methods of manifesting, and so forth, a fresh start would not present great difficulties, once it is agreed which features of the diverse existing systems are worth preserving. But on the point of international statistics another con-

sideration comes in. As tables of trade and the like are reformed so as to be comparable with those of other countries, they cease to be comparable with those of previous years at home. As they become more useful in a horizontal plane, so to speak, they become less useful vertically. The disadvantages are outweighed greatly by the advantages, but natural conservatism defeats a good many desirable reforms.

Signs of party break-up are visible all around the political horizon. Here in New York conditions are chaotic beyond recollection. The Hearst movement is a striking witness to the relaxing hold of party and to the vague desire of multitudes that new methods and new leaders be given a trial. And evidence comes from State after State of similar discontent and unrest. In Massachusetts insurrection is astir in both parties. New Jersey is baffling all prediction as to what will occur in her politics. Even in the boss-ridden Republicanism of Ohio, there are mutterings of revolution. With the State machine fully in their control, Senators Foraker and Dick had yet to suffer the mortification of having 47 out of 88 counties vote against their domination. There may come good or there may come evil from this breaking-up of the fountains of the political deep. In so far as it signifies a growing independence, a disposition to go behind party names to political realities, a reaching after a more sincere and vital leadership, with a determination to destroy the corrupt alliance between selfish politicians and unscrupulous corporations, we certainly can but welcome it. It will teach citizens to think freely and vote independently. It will warn bosses that they are but mortal. It will help the people to regard party in its true light—merely a political means to a political end, and always to be cast aside when it forgets or imperils the end. People in rebellion against existing political conditions must not, however, suppose that any political conditions whatever can usher in the millennium. In a little book just published by the hard-headed French economist and publicist, M. Yves Guyot, is a sane discussion of the causes and perils of French Socialism. A part of his analysis is applicable to this country in such a time of political unrest as the present. He points out the impossibility of doing away with governmental and economic realities by any form of political words or party professions. Socialism as a political force is, he contends, really a revival of the belief in miracles, though these latter-day ones are to be wrought by the Govern-

ment. To preserve while improving should be the steady rule of the statesman. Without revolution or even rash experiment, it should be possible to take advantage of the new spirit abroad in the land in order to arouse a new and effective desire for public justice, for the equal enforcement of the law, for the striking down of all forms of favoritism, and for the unchaining in every way of the spirit of individual enterprise.

Capt. John J. Pershing, Fifteenth Cavalry, whom President Roosevelt has just advanced to the rank of brigadier-general, obtains his great promotion at the expense of 257 captains, 364 majors, 131 lieutenant-colonels, and 110 colonels, all of whom he overslaughes. The special excuse for this extraordinary advancement is Capt. Pershing's work while commander of a small force in the Lake Lanao country of Mindanao, in 1902. In its extent and results this achievement would have ranked during our civil war as one of a thousand raids into the enemy's country to which no special attention was paid. There is very considerable difference of opinion in army circles as to the military value of the exploit; some officers maintain that it accomplished little or nothing permanent, and that, so far from being an expedition into country unknown to Americans, officers with small escorts had several times traversed this district without causing any bloodshed whatever, or even being threatened. Obviously, the worth of Capt. Pershing's exploit, and his own personal conduct, ought to have been clearly established, at least to the satisfaction of the service, before being so munificently rewarded. With the theory that Capt. Pershing's promotion was due to his being a son-in-law of Senator Warren, the chairman of the Senate Military Affairs Committee, we have no sympathy. That is merely a coincidence, for which Capt. Pershing deserves—from one point of view—commiseration. But the fact remains that Capt. Pershing's brother officers are not at all enthusiastic over his advancement. The resulting injury to the service is manifold: (1) It intensifies the bitterness and dissatisfaction growing out of the advancements or appointments of Grant, Wood, Funston, A. L. Mills, and others; (2) it puts a premium on slaughter in the Philippines, as an easy way to high rank, and (3) it does the gravest injustice to the present colonels of cavalry, some of whom, like Augur, Kerr, and Morton, have well earned promotion. Col. Morton was a private in July, 1861, when Capt. Pershing was exactly ten months old. It is

true that Mr. Roosevelt had to make Capt. Pershing a brigadier, or give him no particular reward; but this merely emphasizes the need of a general law affecting all cases of really distinguished service.

"It is almost certain," acknowledges Chairman Sherman, "that in the next House the immense Republican majority will be cut down somewhat." In fact, no Republican authority thus far has expressed the slightest hope of retaining the present unexampled majority in the House. The combined Congressional pluralities in Maine were reduced from 26,154 in 1904 to something between 7,700 and 8,600 in 1906; that is, a loss of between 4,300 and 4,600 to a district. The Republican majority could withstand that scaling down in Maine. It is natural to ask how many other Republican districts are strong enough to do so. The answer is found in the list of Republican Congressmen elected in 1904 by pluralities of less than 4,300. There are fifty-three Republican Congressmen whom a Democratic success within their districts equal to that in Maine would defeat outright. The House now contains 249 Republicans to 137 Democrats. Subtract 53 from the former, add it to the latter, and the complexion of the body would be Republicans 196, Democrats 190. Maine September elections are not, however, like those of Vermont, regarded as prophetic. It will not do to draw too positive inferences. But certain facts stand out clearly. The Republicans do not expect a repetition of 1904, but rather a restoration of the conditions that prevailed when a strongly Republican Congress was elected in 1902.

The insurgents who opposed the reduction of the Philippine tariff because their own districts produced tobacco or sugar attained a great deal of notoriety last winter. But the smaller body of men who placed national honor above parochial considerations are more worthy to be remembered. Those who had the courage to vote against the immediate wish of their tobacco and beet-growing constituents did so with full knowledge of the effect it might have on their political fortunes. Connecticut and Wisconsin are the chief Northern tobacco-growing States; of the five representatives from the former, only one member, Mr. Hill, voted for relief to the Filipinos, and of the eleven from Wisconsin only two, Messrs. Cooper and Esch. It is against these two that the issue of this vote has first been raised. Both men were vehemently attacked for their "blow to home industry," but it is to the credit of their Republican constituencies that both were renominated at the recent primaries, Cooper by a majority of more than two to one, Esch

without any opposition at all. The fact that, in spite of angry talk, they were not punished for their conscientiousness in voting should be an encouragement to other members in both branches of Congress. It is the community which gives its representatives a free hand that comes in time to be represented by men of statesmanlike size.

The growing interest in the primary—the struggle in this city on Tuesday is a case in point—is seized upon by some as an objection to the whole system of the official and law-protected primary. It really gives us two elections, it is said, thus unnecessarily doubling their labor, their cost, and their turmoil. To this complaint it may fairly be rejoined that the pains of the method may be but the inevitable pains of free government. As Jules Lemaitre has said, there are ways of freedom (*mœurs de liberté*) which are not always easy or agreeable, but which are necessary if self-government is to be worked. Arbitrary rule would spare us all such trouble, but it would spare us all our democratic rights, too. Of course, the freedom which primary reform has aimed at, is freedom from boss or machine dictation. Really to invite and empower the rank and file of a party to make their own nominations, instead of meekly or angrily taking them cut and dried from a boss, requires work and time and vexation of spirit. And if it takes the equivalent of two elections to work out this great deliverance, it is not for the heirs of our fathers to repine. The official primary, even when of imperfect form, affords a new ground for appeal to the party voter to attend to his political duties. There is every reason, however, why that weapon should be made as effective as possible. The official primary is a great improvement, but it falls short of the direct primary. In New York, as in New Jersey, we still elect delegates in the primaries; in Wisconsin, in Georgia, in Texas, actual nominations are made in the primaries. This certainly makes for a clear understanding, and for thorough work while the job is in hand.

A number of literary and magazine folk of prominence in various good-government movements have combined to form a "People's Lobby," and appeal to the public for support, asking merely dollar subscriptions. What is proposed is a vigilance committee adapted to twentieth-century conditions and the longitude of Washington. All legislation will be subjected to expert scrutiny, flaws careless or intentional will be reported to the appropriate Congressional committees, the personal responsibility for delaying or defeating good legislation will be fixed, and he who bedevils a good measure will be held up to universal

scorn. Towards so much zeal for the republic it is very difficult for us to take a skeptical attitude. But we are constrained to doubt if the matter of securing good Federal laws is as simple as having even the most authoritative committee tell Congress what to do and what to leave undone—on pain of being reported to the people. Furthermore, the vigilantes most in evidence, though we sincerely believe them to be "independent of concentrated capital and of organized labor," have not established a reputation for discretion. We believe that many of them have done good, and we are in no sympathy with the present practice of dismissing them all with the epithet of muckraker; but we cannot see that they have made good their pretensions to be regarded as tribunes of the people. But were we to accept their magazine articles at their own estimate, we should still remember that the task of getting good Congressional Government is not that of contriving a brilliant censorship in the name of the people, but the far greater enterprise of rousing the average voter to a sense of his responsibilities.

Food adulteration is an amiable and harmless practice beside drug adulteration and substitution. The disclosures made through the investigations of Dr. Darlington, Health Commissioner of New York city, are certainly startling enough, though they were foreshadowed by earlier inquiries of a less exhaustive sort. Out of 10,000 samples of standard drugs bought in the retail market of this city, only about 28 per cent. "can be considered good"; 16 per cent. called for warnings to the manufacturer, while no less than 56 per cent. were bad enough to justify prosecution under the laws of this State. It is a rather interesting circumstance that Dr. Darlington expects to be able to remedy these conditions through the agency of existing laws, and before the National Pure Food act goes into effect at all. The function of that measure is to protect the scrupulous and careful States from being victimized by those which provide no safeguards against dishonest products. It will be vastly easier to keep such goods out of any local market after this new law takes effect, but it does not do away with the need for vigilance on the part of others than the Federal officials.

Although the formation of a British General Staff is announced as a new departure, a *de facto* General Staff has existed for some time past. Warmly recommended by the Esher committee on army reorganization, its adoption was forced by the glaring weaknesses shown in the Boer war, precisely as the American General Staff was the result of the

breakdown of the War Department bureaus in 1898. For England, it is, as Mr. Haldane remarks, "a very important step in the reconstitution of the British military system." Yet, like independent commentators on the American General Staff, he does not guarantee that the new body will of itself give permanent satisfaction. A General Staff is a valuable piece of machinery, but upon the men who work it, and their spirit, depends its value to the nation. Mr. Haldane warns the English army that, if its new staff officers prove to be merely pedantic theorists, they will fail to benefit the service. With us the danger has been that the General Staff might become an advocate of a large army. Fortunately, its activity in the direction of new legislation has been limited to drawing measures asked for by the Secretary of War. As a whole, its influence has been excellent, and its beneficial effect on the army has been visible in many ways. The British General Staff should be able to forward even greater reforms than ours, and, if it has wisdom and popular support, eventually make of the English army a competent machine from both the military and the business points of view.

The strength and influence of the Labor party in Parliament attracted especial attention to this year's Trade-Union Congress, which was held in Liverpool and adjourned on the 8th of September. With the present Liberal Government the congress seemed on the whole well pleased. It was not, however, satisfied with the Trade Disputes bill, introduced by the Government to nullify the effect of the Taff-Vale decision, which made trade-union funds liable. The congress demanded the complete immunity of the trade-union treasury. The bill to which the congress objects makes it possible to attach these funds in certain cases. For many of its provisions there is general support; yet it is essentially a dangerous measure, since, as so distinguished a jurist as Lord Lindley has just pointed out in a public letter, it concedes to the trade unions the right to stand above the law and to be accorded special privileges and immunities which are not given to other classes of the community. Not satisfied with attacking the special privileges of others, the labor unionists desire a few for themselves. Moreover, the bill would give them the right to coerce the non-union man into joining their organizations, although it is the duty of the state to safeguard every man who desires to work in or out of a union. So far as its attitude on this bill goes, the Trade-Union Congress will do much to strengthen the fears of those who behold in the Labor party in politics a menace to British political institutions and traditions.

The recent illness of the Sultan calls attention to the attitude of the Turkish court toward modern medical science. Abdul Hamid II. was so fortunate as to be brought up under the care of a Greek physician, Mawrogeni Pasha, who taught him the rules of personal hygiene from his childhood. It was he who advised the Sultan, after his accession, to abandon the old palace and build a new one on the heights. It was he who was responsible for the numerous modern hospitals built in the provinces as well as in the capital. But the time came when he fell into disfavor. An Albanian, Beiram Effendi, became the head of the medical staff, and his view of medical science was almost as scornful as that of a Christian Scientist. He knew nothing whatever of surgery, and opposed it fanatically. Bernhard Stern relates in his recent volume on the Sultan, that during the last war with Greece, Beiram would not allow the wounded to be operated on; his argument was that if God willed it they would recover any way, and, if not, amputation would be a crime. A special hospital was built for him, where, somehow, it nearly always seemed God's will that the patients should die. He rejected antiseptics and iodoform, and spoke disrespectfully of the microbe theory. The Sultan's personal attitude at present is by no means hostile to medical science. As we have just seen, he occasionally sends to Germany or Austria for experts. The "court pharmacy" is never patronized by him, his drugs and medicines being specially prepared in an office near his private apartments.

During the last fifty-five years the private wealth of Switzerland has grown from two billions to three billions four hundred millions, a remarkable increase for so small and naturally poor a country. But the most striking fact is that no less than two-fifths of the total have been acquired by the hotel proprietors—a striking testimony not only to the cash value of Switzerland's mountain scenery, but to the efficiency and economy of the Swiss *hôtelier*. As the London *Spectator* points out, the secret of this success is an open one: the hotel-keeper makes his business the study and the science of a lifetime. More than that, the natural beauties of his land have been exploited in a steady, systematic, and conservative manner. Elsewhere it is not so easy to draw tourists, save in Italy. There the tide of travel rises steadily, receding but slightly even in the summer. In France and Germany the attractions are not so obvious; hence in both countries efforts are steadily made to notify the outer world of the special sights or the unusual features which should draw the foreigner with his well-filled purse. So systematic and far-reaching have been the efforts in

France to organize *le tourisme* that an account of the principal agencies has recently been deemed worthy of a place in the *Revue de Paris*. They are the Alpine Club, the Touring Club of France, and the so-called "*Syndicats d'Initiative*," groups of professional and business men whose localities are certain to profit by the influx of tourists. From all this there is much to be learned by Americans. The "See America First" movement is widely advertised, and local improvement associations are increasing. The League of American Wheelmen, once so powerful, had on its programme not only road improvement, but the securing for its members of special advantages at the rural hotels. But at present, the railroads are practically the only agencies engaged in exploiting our natural wonders. In these the country is exceedingly rich, and their systematic development must come some day, despite our vast distances. Meanwhile, there is a crying need for a strengthening of the good-roads campaign, for a propaganda for good hotels and inns, and for more scenic-preservation societies.

Prof. Brander Matthews has a long letter in the London *Times* explaining to the heavy-witted Briton the plans of American spelling reformers. Like President Roosevelt, he minimizes the changes proposed in the famous list of 300 words, but he frankly admits that "a second list" will be issued "sooner or later." Professor Matthews perceives that the argument about the saving of the children's time and nerves hardly counts if it is only a question of spelling a few words in a shorter form; and that the principle of "simplification by omission" must be applied rigorously up and down the language. He adds that the American reformers are seeking the aid of English scholars, and announces the adherence of Dr. Murray and Dr. Bradley of the Oxford Dictionary. But another correspondent of the *Times* feels that there must be some mistake about this. He refers to the "Rules for Compositors and Readers at the University Press, Oxford," which, it is explicitly stated, had the sanction of Messrs. Murray and Bradley. One of the rules is:

"In words ending in 'ment,' always print the 'e' when it occurs in the preceding syllable, as—abridgement, acknowledgement, judgement, lodgement, and, in a note, Dr. Murray says: "I protest against the unscholarly habit of omitting it from abridgement . . . which is against all analogy, etymology, and orthoëpy." "I think the University Press ought to set a scholarly example, instead of following the ignorant to do ill, for the sake of saving four e's."

The correspondent remarks: "This is strong language, and it includes among the ignorant who do ill President Roosevelt and his advisers, for 'abridgment' is the first word in the American list."

THE SITUATION IN CUBA.

President Roosevelt's letter on Cuban affairs and the dispatch of Messrs. Taft and Bacon to the island have already had a quieting effect. At last some realization of the imminence of a catastrophe has dawned not only upon the rebels, but upon the Government as well, and has led President Palma to stop fighting. If some sort of agreement can be concluded before the arrival of the American envoys, none, we are sure, will be more pleased than Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Taft. The latter would then be free to investigate the causes of the revolution and give such advice as might lead to a permanent peace. Whether that can be obtained now without President Palma's withdrawal from office would seem dubious.

It is the solemn truth which the President told the Cubans. Their civil strife, with its break-up of order and security, is really a war against Cuban independence. Such senseless fighting will, if continued, make American intervention certain. And if this country again has to set up a military rule in Cuba, it means the end of the Cuban republic. Perception of this fact is filling with grief those Cuban patriots who worked and suffered for forty years in the cause of independence, only to see their great hope dashed just as it apparently came to fruition. Nobody can doubt that the President speaks as a sincere friend and well-wisher of Cuba; and that it is a cause of genuine sorrow to him, as to Americans in general, to see the independent Government of Cuba fall in pitiful collapse.

Secretary Taft is an ideal envoy to Cuba. His valuable experience in the Philippines, his poise and sagacity and good humor, his entire freedom from race prejudice, fit him admirably for the conciliatory mission before him. Upon its success, all our desires must now hang. The situation is extraordinary. The Palma Government has shown amazing feebleness, and appears to have but small hold upon the affection or loyalty of the Cuban people. On the other hand, the insurgents are fighting for they scarcely know what. This is evidenced by their really comic eagerness to surrender to Commander Colwell of the Denver. Yet this very state of uncertainty and confusion suggests a way out. If Palma and his supporters can be persuaded by Mr. Taft to meet Zayas and Menocal and the aggrieved veteran generals to talk matters over and agree upon some fair measure for the restoration of peace, Cuba may remain independent. Short of some such plan, there seems to be no way of averting what the world will call the suicide of Cuba.

Annexation, the President must clearly see, would seriously hamper other cherished policies of his. Secretary Root

has steadily pointed to our relinquishment of Cuba as the great proof of American disinterestedness in our dealings with Spanish-American countries. "We want no more land; we absolutely do not dream of annexing territory." Obviously, anything like eagerness now to get our hands upon Cuba again would give too cynical an interpretation to these professions. And in the President's plans for interference in Santo Domingo, the Cuban precedent has been the sheet-anchor of his defenders. When it was argued that financial control of the Dominican Republic would soon mean political control, Cuba has always been pointed to as sufficient refutation. Mr. Roosevelt will not voluntarily be drawn into any course that might destroy that argument. Moreover, those who cry out so easily that the Cubans are not fit for self-government, and that we might as well, soon as late, take over the island, forget that, even if Cuba were an American possession, it would have to govern itself, at least locally. If the habit of submission to the majority and the craving for settled and orderly government cannot be established in Cuba the independent republic, the outlook for Cuba as an American Territory or State would be gloomy. Thus it is on all accounts to be hoped that some means may be found of permitting or helping the Cubans to run their own affairs.

JACQUERIE AND REVOLUTION.

The summer is nearly over, the long Russian winter is approaching, and the Russian peasants have not yet risen in revolution. When will they? In October, says Mackenzie Wallace, in an article in the *London Times*. For nearly two years, as insurrection and slaughter have followed each other in the cities of the Empire and left the monarchy intact, the friends of Russian liberty have attempted to make light of mere incidents, like the outbreaks at Moscow or Sveaborg. They bid us wait for the critical moment when Ivan awakes—Ivan who constitutes 85 per cent. of the Czar's subjects, and without whom revolution is impossible—as though the success of revolution is necessarily determined by majorities. But Ivan, if the sum total of his activity is to be justly appraised, has continued to sleep. Repeatedly he has stirred in his slumber, and after his own blundering fashion has struck out, burning a few estates and cutting down some square miles of forest. A recent traveller in Russia says of the peasant:

He burns crops which he needs to satisfy his hunger; devastates the land which he wishes to possess; and drinks the vodka which yields the tax which he has sworn not to pay. I have driven across long reaches of territory over which previously hordes of drunken peasants had passed,

pulling down houses and barns, burning forests and crops, and killing man and beast. They had no definite plan, no distinct object, no clear motive; and when I have asked them why they had done those things, they have scratched their heads, as peasants always do when they are perplexed, and replied: "How can I say?"

What is there to be hoped for from the Russian peasants? Venturing into the dangerous realm of historical comparison, we find in the story of peasant uprisings in the past a record of almost uniform failure, following upon an almost uniform sequence of events—an upflare of leaderless revolt marked by brutal excess, a brief and tumultuous career of triumph, while the erstwhile master is regaining breath from the surprise and mustering strength for the single blow that usually suffices, and then the crashing down of that blow upon an unorganized, pitiful mass, with the ensuing general massacre and battue of panic-stricken refugees. The process is true not only of Jack Cade and the peasants' war in Germany; it is working itself out now on a minor scale in Russia. The trouble with the methods of peasant warfare is that they are undramatic. Probably as many peasants have been whipped to death or shot down by the Cossacks during the last year and a half as fell on the barricades in Moscow last winter. But the affair at Moscow for a moment shook the throne of the autocracy, and the killing of the peasants has received a few scanty notices in the newspapers. The fighting at Sveaborg was momentous because it was a spark that might have set the Empire on fire; the knouting of peasants comes within the ordinary day's work of the Russian policeman. It is sad without being dramatic. The precise parallel obtains among us to whom the crushing to death of thousands on the railroads is but the matter of a paragraph quoted from an uninteresting Government publication at the end of the fiscal year. It requires a holocaust of a score of lives amid lurid horrors to rouse us to the necessity of change.

The Russian revolution, then, will seemingly have to win its victories in the cities, the nerve centres of the Empire, most probably in St. Petersburg itself. To put it crudely, if revolution is the taking of power from those who hold it by those who have it not, it would seem obvious that for the seizure to take place the two parties must come into close contact. Since monarchs are only human, a revolver close to the head will secure concessions that a more distant menace would fail to extort. Louis XVI. across the border, or even at Lyons or Compiègne, would not have yielded what Louis XVI. at the Tuileries was compelled to give up. And a quarter of a million of peasants pillaging in Saratoff and Samara are a negligible quantity as compared to a mob of

ten thousand men from the Putiloff iron works around the palace of Peterhof. There is no need to go to Berlin and Vienna in 1848-49, or to Paris repeatedly, for instances of what a city in arms may accomplish. The ancestor of Nicholas II., Michael Romanoff, owed his elevation to a national uprising under Minin and Pozharsky, which, by wresting Moscow from the Poles, shattered at one blow the foreign tyranny in Russia.

But though it would seem that the decisive battle between the people and the Government of Russia must be fought out in the cities, this does not at all mean that the peasants are a negligible factor in the present struggle. Said Nekrasoff: "Give the peasant a little more freedom to breathe, and he will show that Russia has men and a future." Revolutionary propaganda among the peasants pays because agrarian disorders, even if they are of secondary importance in themselves, are useful in drawing off an appreciable number of troops from the urban centres, and thus relieving the pressure at vital points. Rural propaganda also pays in that it infects with disloyalty those who in the course of time will carry the contamination with them into the ranks of the army. Thirdly (and this is due to the peculiar conditions of industry in Russia, where the peasant is so often an agriculturist in summer and a factory hand in winter), it is good tactics to preach the gospel of revolution in the open country uninterfered with by the police, and then to let the neophyte proceed to the cities to put revolutionary theory into practice. The peasant may bring about the fruition of Russian hopes, but he will be most likely to do it in the barracks or in the city streets.

THE IRISH DISTRESS.

No sooner had Parliament adjourned than the condition of Ireland once more began to figure largely in the English press. Early in August it became apparent that the potato crop in a number of counties was seriously menaced by the blight and by incessant rains. From Mayo on the west, Sligo, Roscommon, King's County, Queen's County, Kerry, Leitrim, and Tipperary in the south, was heard the same story of an apparently total failure of the crop, with starvation as the prospect. From all Connaught has come the official assertion that there will be no potatoes available after Christmas, and that the Government must be ready to provide work for thousands who will within a few months be destitute. In the East Kerry districts, grain crops and cereals of every kind have suffered; while from Carrick-on-Shannon and from Ulster come reports that the hay crops have been damaged by the flooding of hundreds of acres of low-lying lands.

To investigate for himself, the Chief

Secretary for Ireland, James Bryce, is now travelling through the country. His mission, however, is not merely to ascertain Ireland's temporary needs, but to study her permanent economical wants. At Bunrana on Lough Swilly, for instance, his attention was called to the lack of pier accommodations. Although the place is an important military and naval port, and the centre of the largest herring-fishing industry, on one day \$5,000 worth of herrings were thrown away for lack of piers. In such cases the appeal is always to London, just as at Portrush, where there is now a direct service to Glasgow, the local boards expect the British Government, through Mr. Bryce, to build a deep-water quay in order to develop the tourist traffic. Years of neglect and of maltreatment of Ireland are now bringing their punishment to England by forcing her to engage in all sorts of schemes, benevolent, paternalistic, even semi-socialistic, to rescue the remainder of the people from the fate of their immediate ancestors. But Mr. Bryce's movements have attracted no more attention than those of the party of eight Liberal members of Parliament, headed by Percy Alden, and a number of representatives of the Friends' Social Union, now investigating the long stretches of barren and waste lands on the west coast from Donegal to Galway. The object of these travellers is also to study economic conditions, and they have carefully avoided the greatly congested districts, since these are even now being studied by an able Royal Commission, of which Lord Dudley is chairman.

Out of all this investigating some good should surely come. Helpful as were the Wyndham Act of 1901 and the Irish Laborers' Act of the last session, much must be done before Ireland can really be regarded as prosperous. Almost the whole of Donegal, for instance, consists of "huge masses of granite, interspersed with peat bog, a wild, desolate region, where human life cannot be sustained from the land alone, even by unending labor and toil." Hence the Congested Districts Board has had to start up carpet factories and revive the lace industry and other home employments, such as the making of homespun tweeds. But as even in the factories a woman worker can earn only from \$1.25 to \$1.75 a week, the road to wealth is by no means easy. The fisheries are more promising, for Donegal County has 680 miles of coast and seas that fairly teem with fish. Thanks to Governmental guidance and aid, this trade is rapidly developing. In the twelve years from 1893 to 1905 the income of all the west coast fisheries has grown from \$5,000 to \$300,000 a year; of this the Donegal boats, supplied by the Congested Districts Board, earned \$90,000. The Board has lent or sold

seventy boats, with nets and gear, to crews of fishermen. The lack of adequate harbors and piers alone prevents the building up of a great industry, for the Donegal herrings are of the finest quality and are readily sold in New York, Russia, and Germany.

In Connemara, too, conditions are dark, although neither here nor in Donegal are they so bad as in the really congested districts. But Connemara, according to Mr. Alden, is also a "wilderness of granite and stone, the abomination of all desolations," where for miles and miles no family ever earns more than \$60 a year from every source. Mr. Alden found the inhabitants in despair, so he writes to the London *Tribune*, for their holdings are unprofitable, their fisheries a failure, and their potato crop totally lost. In order to get any cheer, he had to turn to the work of the Government in breaking up great estates. For instance, the Congested Districts Board has purchased Clare Island, 6,000 acres in extent, for \$25,000, and transformed the island from a "scene of lawlessness and discontent to one of peace and comparative prosperity." Where formerly periodical raids by the constabulary were necessary to obtain such rents as could be squeezed out of a reluctant and sullen people, the present collector reports that all of the Board's tenants pay regularly every penny asked of them.

Praiseworthy as all this relief work is, where does it eventually lead? Mr. Alden doubts whether Englishmen will be able to solve the Irish problem in a given time. The Dublin *Freeman's Journal*, which speaks for many high-minded Irishmen, rejoins to this:

Can they hope to solve it at all? Is it possible; is it in the least degree necessary? Let it be understood that the Irish people make no such demand on English time. They do not hope that England will ever be able to thoroughly understand Ireland, will ever be able to legislate satisfactorily for the country, or administer the laws. The Irish demand is not that England shall govern them in this fashion or in that; it is merely that they may be allowed to govern themselves. What to the English people is, and always will be, the Irish problem, to the Irish is no problem at all. They understand the question, and are prepared to deal with it. They do not ask a helping hand, but a free hand.

Similar views are freely expressed in such prominent Liberal newspapers as the London *Daily News* and *Tribune*. The former, in a recent leader, expressly asserted that Irish government alone can be successful in Ireland, which must "develop her civilization along her own ways." Hence Irishmen and the friends of Ireland are everywhere looking forward to the measure of Home Rule which Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman is to propose at the next session of Parliament.

NAPOLEON THE LITTLE ONCE
MORE.

There has recently been published in the *Monatshefte* and *Temps* a correspondence between Napoleon III., then a prisoner of war at Cassel, and the Countess Mercy-Argenteau, who undertook to intercede for the unfortunate monarch with the Kaiser. These letters reveal a curious detachment in the fallen Emperor, and a by no means strange incapacity to perceive the promise of the Provisional Government. The first letter of importance, dated February 4, 1871, is practically a personal appeal for clemency. He urges the Kaiser to show that "chivalric spirit" for which he is famous. Now that France is completely conquered, her interests combine with those of Germany. The mushroom National Assembly is incapable of carrying out the conditions of a peace. Naturally, the hero of the *coup d'état* is in favor of that tried expedient, a *plébiscite*. He writes to the countess:

If I were in the place of the Emperor-King and the National Assembly should accept the peace terms, I would require the people to be consulted in order to establish a government strong enough to fulfil the stipulations. If, on the contrary, the Assembly should reject the peace, I would enter Paris at the head of my army; I would drive out the demagogues [the Communists] who have usurped the power, I would treat only with the legitimate government, and would offer it a peace less onerous than that offered the Assembly, and an alliance based on an equitable consideration of the interests of the two countries.

What these conditions should be the prisoner of Cassel does not venture to suggest, but he adds:

Nothing is lacking to the glory of the Emperor-King except to make a truly great peace, and I mean by these words a peace which, instead of leaving ruin, despair, and anarchy as its sign, should cause the greatness of his character and the profundity of his political views to be recognized.

This admonition to the Kaiser through the granddaughter of Mme. Tallien was not quite so fatuous as it seems. Bismarck was nearly at his wits' end to find a Government to treat with. Only three months earlier, before Metz surrendered, he had been willing to recognize "not merely a Republic, but, if you will, a Gambetta dynasty, only that dynasty must give us a secure and advantageous peace"; this assured, any régime would do, "whether Bleichröder's or Rothschild's." At that time the great Chancellor had received Napoleon's emissary, Gen. Boyer, favorably, and had expressed a desire to negotiate with the Empress as Regent. Even later than this letter, Bismarck used the name of Napoleon to smother Thiers's appeals to Europe. "If you speak to me of Europe," said the Chancellor, "I will speak to you of Napoleon and of the 100,000 bayonets which, at a wink from us,

would reseat him on his throne." "That must have made an impression on Thiers," Bismarck observed, "for the next time he felt inclined to talk of Europe he suddenly checked himself and said, 'I beg your pardon.'"

Whatever plausible illusions Napoleon may have cherished as to his residual importance, his letter made no impression on the Kaiser. The next communication to the countess contains nothing of note except a characteristic remark on a point of international etiquette: "The eagerness of the neutral Powers to recognize the kingship of M. Thiers is a proof of the little dignity that inspires foreign courts." The Tuileries, even in exile, still asserts a pretension to be considered an arbiter of elegancies. On February 25, 1871, the day before the peace protocol was signed at Versailles, Napoleon III. had evil presentiments. Things, he says, are taking a bad turn. The Orleanists must be reckoned with. The people cannot pardon him for having been "so ill-served and unfortunate."

News of the hateful bargain of Versailles shook the Imperial prisoner out of his egoism. In a letter of March 2, he discusses the matter in passionate terms, very like those which Jules Favre and Thiers used vainly in the negotiations with the implacable Bismarck. "It is no peace that the German Emperor has made; he is trying to kill us, and instead of reestablishing peace, the treaty sows hatred and mistrust for the future." In words that have the weight of prophecy, Napoleon III. continues: "Is it well calculated, even for Germany? I do not think so. The present state of civilization in Europe brings nations together in such bonds of common interests that the ruin of one reacts upon all the others." He returns to his dogma that peace should have been made with a solid and legitimate Government—and this time probably he does not mean himself exclusively. To have drawn a peace accepted by all France would have been high politics. "Hatred of Germany would disappear as by enchantment, peace would be assured for many a year, confidence be restored, commerce would resume its expansion, and the German Emperor would gain much greater glory than he will acquire from the possession of Metz and Strasbourg."

In the subsequent correspondence from Napoleon's English retirement there is little but apathy and skepticism as to the fate of the Republic. The Countess abounds in suggestions, and receives merely thanks. He no longer writes to her, as in previous letters, "as if she were his Foreign Minister." He reminds her that they have to do with "pitiless characters." It is futile to work directly in France. "Everything must come about in its time," and one must look for some form of spontaneous

Bonaparteism, though it seems "an audacious hope to concern one's self with the destinies of a people so frivolous as the French." Gradually the correspondence becomes terse and merely personal; a little before his death the Emperor writes: "I will not speak to you of politics, for it's a sad thing to see what is going on; but there is a kind of devotion that makes one forget both ingratitude and malice." His last word to her is, "The future still seems uncertain to me, clouds cover the horizon, and no clear sky is seen."

These letters add nothing new to political history, they do reveal a certain simplicity in the disillusioned Emperor, and present him in a more amiable light than is usually accorded him. Somewhat numbed by his calamities, his old self-infatuation becomes less offensive. If he can hardly imagine a France apart from himself, he at least shares her agony. Finally, he credits the victor with the sort of active benevolence that was so deeply mingled with his own self-seeking. He is perhaps less Napoleon the Little in these letters than he was in his overblown prosperity. In any case, he is hardly the ignoble ironist whom Victor Hugo had lacerated. There is room for curious reflection in the fact that it was Mme. Tallien's granddaughter who became the ardent partisan of Napoleon the Little in adversity. Her more famous ancestress was obstinately denied access to the court of Napoleon the Great. The case is almost an allegory of the compelling influence of the Napoleonic legend in France.

LITERATURE AND THE DOCTOR'S DEGREE.

It is related of Darwin that after a spell of hard work in his study he was wont to come out into the drawing room and rest on the sofa while listening to a novel read aloud. This anecdote may serve as a symbol not only of the scientific attitude toward literature, but of the place that literature is coming to occupy in life. The modern man reserves his serious energy for science or sociology or finance. What he looks for when he turns to pure literature is a soothing and mildly narcotic effect. Many people, of course, do not seek in books even the solace of their idle moments, but leave art and literature to women. "Poetry," as Lofty says, speaking for the men of business, "is a pretty thing enough for our wives and daughters, but not for us." In the coeducational institutions, especially the large universities of the Middle West, the men flock into the courses on science, the women affect the courses on literature. The man who took literature too seriously would be suspected of effeminacy. The really virile thing is to be an electrical engineer. One already foresees a time when the typical teacher of literature will be some young dilettante, who will interpret Keats and Shelley to a class of girls. As it is, the more vigorous and pushing teachers of language feel that they must assert their manhood by philo-

logical research. At bottom, they agree with the scientist—and the dilettante—in seeing in literature, the source not of a law of life, but of more or less agreeable personal impressions.

This curious interplay of philology and impressionism runs through the whole of our language teaching, but is most visible perhaps in the teaching of English. At one extreme of the average English department is the philological mediævalist, who is grounded in Gothic and Old Norse and Anglo-Saxon; at the other extreme is the dilettante, who gives courses in "daily themes," and, like the sophists of old, instructs ingenuous youth in the art of expressing itself before it has anything to express.

Perhaps a majority of the more important chairs of ancient and modern literature in this country is already held by men whose whole preparation and achievement have been scientific rather than literary. This situation is on the face of it absurd, in some respects even scandalous. Yet the philological syndicate can scarcely be blamed for pushing forward men of its own kind; and the problem is in itself so difficult that one should sympathize with the perplexities of college presidents. The young doctor of philosophy has at least submitted to the discipline of facts and given evidence of some capacity for hard work. The dilettante has usually given evidence of nothing except perhaps a gentle epicureanism. Temperamental indolence and an aversion to accuracy have been known to disguise themselves as a love of literature; so that the college president is most often justified in his preference.

Yet it is this acceptance of the Ph.D. as proof of fitness for a chair of literature that is doing more than any one thing to dehumanize literary study, and fix on our colleges a philological despotism. The degree as now administered puts a premium, not on the man who has read widely and thought maturely, but on the man who has shown proficiency in research. It thus encourages the student to devote the time he still needs for general reading and reflection to straining after a premature "originality." Any plan for rehabilitating the humanities would therefore seem to turn on finding a substitute for the existing doctorate. What is wanted is a training that shall be literary, and at the same time free from suspicion of softness or relaxation, a degree that shall stand for a discipline in ideas, and not merely for a discipline in facts. Our language instruction needs to emphasize more than it is now doing the relationship between literature and thought if it is to be saved from Alexandrianism. Alexandria had scholars who were marvels of æsthetic refinement, and others who were wonders of philological industry. Yet Alexandrian scholarship deserves its doubtful repute because of its inability to vitalize either its æstheticism or its philology, because of its failure, on the whole, to make any vigorous and virile application of ideas to life. The final test of the scholar must be his power to penetrate his facts and dominate his impressions, and fuse them with the fire of a central purpose (*ergo vivida vis animi pervicit*). What is disquieting about our teachers of language is not any

want of scientific method or æsthetic appreciativeness, but a certain incapacity for ideas. Some of our classical scholars have done distinguished work of a purely linguistic kind. A number of our scholars in the modern field have achieved eminence not only in linguistic work, but also in that investigation of literary history, which passes with many for literature itself. But we do not get from our teachers of the classics any equivalent of such writing as that of Professor Butcher in England or of M. Boissier in France—writing that should be almost the normal product of a humanistic scholarship; nor do our teachers of modern languages often attain to that union of finished form and mature generalization which is a common occurrence in the French doctor's thesis.

Our inferiority in this respect would seem due in some measure to the fact that with us a mature literary scholarship is not led up to and encouraged, as is the case in France and England, by an appropriate degree. Such distinctions as a First Class in an Oxford Honor School or the French *agrégation* would not in themselves be suited to our needs; but they at least illustrate how a degree that stands primarily for reading and assimilation may be made as severe and searching as a degree that stands primarily for research. If the general principle of such a degree were once accepted, its details could easily be adapted to our special requirements. Perhaps the desired end could best be accomplished by a comprehensive plan for graduate and undergraduate honors in literature. Graduate honors could be used to give the degree of A.M. the meaning it has hitherto lacked, and undergraduate honors to help restore to the degree of A. B. the meaning it is so rapidly losing. Graduate honors should not take more than two years and should hardly attempt to cover more than a single literature; but in that case they ought ordinarily to presuppose undergraduate honors which, like the new honors in literature at Harvard, correlate the ancient and modern fields. By being thus interrelated, the ancient languages will gain immensely in interest, and the modern languages in dignity. Aristotle and Plato should be used, as at Oxford and Cambridge, to give backbone to classical honors and make them a true discipline of ideas, but with greater attention to the modern foreground than is usually bestowed in England. A classical background, again, should, far more than a mediæval one, help the modern languages to develop standards and avoid a cheap contemporaneity. From the lists of books read in schools and colleges and from publishers' catalogues one might infer that what is now taking the place of the masterpieces of Greece and Rome is a hodgepodge of second-rate French and German novels. Even the best judges are impressionists in dealing with contemporaries; so that from the teacher's point of view one is tempted to lay down the rule that the only good authors are dead authors.

Who can doubt that a French teacher who was thus widely read in the ancient and modern classics would be of more use to the average college than the man who had demonstrated his "originality" by collect-

ing examples of the preposition in Old French from Godefroy's Dictionary? Or that the classical scholar who knew his Plato and Aristotle both in themselves and in their relation to the humane tradition of the world, would do more to advance his subject than the man who had devoted painful vigils to writing a thesis on the Uses of *dum, donec, and quoad*? The successful honor candidate would, like the French *agrégé* and unlike the American doctor, have been prepared directly for the work he would normally be expected to do; and then if he had a gift for research, he could, like the *agrégé*, cultivate this gift at leisure and at last publish something that might compare in maturity with the French doctoral dissertation.

For these and other reasons, a new degree would seem to be required as an alternative, if not as a substitute, for the present Ph.D.; a degree that would lay due stress on æsthetic appreciativeness and linguistic accuracy, but would insist above all on wide reading and the power to relate this reading so as to form the foundation for a disciplined judgment. There would then be some hope of our having humanists as well as philologists and dilettantes, and our literary instruction would be safeguarded from the dry rot of Alexandrianism.

IRVING BABBITT.

Harvard University.

FACSIMILES AND ORIGINALS.

Many facsimiles of rare books have been produced, and occasionally one of them is offered for sale as an original. Some two years ago a copy of Thomas J. Wise's type reprint, 1886, of the first edition of Robert Browning's "Pauline," 1833, was thus put on the market. The covers had been pulled off, and Mr. Wise's title and prefatory matter removed, as well as the last leaf at the end, which contains the imprint and date. The price was, if we remember rightly, \$600; cheap enough for an original, but too large a sum for the most inexpert collector to risk on the smallest chance of the book's not being genuine. The reprint was not done by photography, but the types are almost identical with those of the original, and the reprint is very accurate, even to the spacing of words and lines. The headlines and signature marks are in a type noticeably larger than in the original; and there is a slight difference in the position of the signature mark "B" on page 25. In the original this letter is below the last two letters of the word "those" in the line above; in the reprint the signature mark is nearer the outer margin, entirely to the right of the last letter of "those."

The first edition of Richard Hakluyt's great collection of Voyages was published in 1589, in one volume folio. In 1598 appeared the first volume of the revised and enlarged edition, the other two volumes of which appeared in 1599 and 1600. As first issued, the title-page of vol. i is dated 1598, and the volume ends with page 619. Most copies are, however, dated 1599, and contain 606 pages only. The 1598 title contains an additional sentence "and the famous victorie achieved at the citie of Cadiz, 1596, are described," which was omitted from the reprinted title. The omitted pages, 607 to 619, tell of the capture of

Cadiz by the expedition under the Earl of Essex. In 1599, when Essex had fallen into disfavor with Queen Elizabeth, this account of the Cadiz expedition, which was largely laudation of Essex, was ordered suppressed. Probably shortly after 1800 a reprint was made of this suppressed voyage, and this reprint is found in many copies, and is frequently offered and sold as the original suppressed leaves. The reprint, however, is not accurate, and is easily distinguished. The original ends on page 619, with a wood cut, page 620 being blank. The reprint goes over to page 620, and has no cut at the end. The fact that the reprint has seven paragraphs on page 607, while the original has eight, is another distinguishing point.

An anonymous play, "The Tragedie of Solimon and Perseda," 1599, the authorship of which has been attributed to Thomas Kyd and to Robert Greene, was reprinted by Smeeton about 1810. The reprint is very accurate, and the book, found as it is likely to be now in old binding, might deceive any one not familiar with the fact that such a reprint was issued. Indeed, a copy of the reprint brought \$180 in the third McKee sale, in 1901. It was returned by the purchaser, and when resold last season the identical volume brought only a dollar or two. The British Museum has four varieties of the original, distinguished by minute peculiarities.

Correspondence.

SYMPATHY FOR ANIMALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot understand how people who have the luck of living in the twentieth century still confuse the Bible as it was written with the Bible as it is preached about. There is not a word of sympathy for animals, either in the Old or in the New Testament, and Pio Nono was perfectly right, from his point of view, when he withheld from becoming a member of a society for prevention of cruelty to animals. All the passages from the Bible quoted by your recent correspondents refer to *superstitious fears*, in particular to the *taboos* about evil days, mixtures and the like. If your oxen are not to work on the Sabbath, it is because that day is a *dangerous* one (just as the 13th in modern superstition); they might get wounded or ill. Don't yoke an ass with an ox, because certain mixtures are *dangerous*, for instance the mixture of different seeds in the same field (Leviticus, xix, 19). Allow your ox to eat the corn which he is threshing, because in doing so the beast *takes the danger off* from the new corn (cf. Leviticus xix, 23, about uncircumcised fruit).

The Greek philosophy of the sixth century, like Pythagoras, had no more sympathy for animals than the Jews, but they were *afraid* of them, fearing to injure a man whose soul might have transmigrated in the body of a dog. *Primus . . . fecit timor.*

Only prejudice, ignorance or *mala fides* can pretend to discover morality under the veil of superstition; as well say, you see the chicken in the egg. Morality, cleanliness, hygiene and many other good things

evolved from raw and stupid superstition, by the simple process of selection, by the falling off of the purely superstitious and the retaining or remodelling of what chanced to be in conformity with the higher interests or moral tendencies of mankind.

SALOMON REINACH.

Musée de Saint-Germain, Paris, September 1.

TEACHING LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I venture to comment on your editorial of September 13, "Literary Teaching vs. Teaching Literature." I imagine most college teachers of English will heartily agree with you that literature is "a subject that possibly cannot, in the ordinary sense, be taught." "Teaching literature," "teaching Shakspeare"—do not the phrases themselves have a sound of absurdity? I met a man who declared he was "teaching Dante," and set him down as a charlatan. Facts and principles, English grammar and English composition, can be taught directly; the appreciation and enjoyment of literature can be induced only by indirection.

However it may be at Oxford, there is doubtless room for missionary work, not only in our schools, but in our American colleges. And fortunately our colleges have their evangelists. One well-known professor has for years spread the gospel mainly by reading aloud to large classes, the reading constituting an interpretation and an inspiration. But it is doubtful if the teaching of English, in the sense of inducing appreciation, has in strictness any place in collegiate instruction. A college may well teach the history of the English drama without trying to arouse dramatic appreciation by producing Shakspeare's plays or giving credit for attendance at the theatre; just as it may teach political economy, the science of wealth, without having anything to do with the actual appreciation and enjoyment of money. The appreciation and enjoyment of literature are matters extra-academic and belonging to the home; the teacher of English (except as he is a missionary) will presuppose them; he has theoretically no more to do with them than the teacher of political economy has to do with goods in the concrete.

What, then, is the business of the teacher of English literature? In the first place there is the history of literature. College students study political history and the history of philosophy. Why not also the history of literature? Who will say that the literary history—for instance of the period of Queen Anne—is less valuable, or less interesting, or has less "disciplinary basis," than the political history of the same time? Again, there is the theory or (in the broad sense) science of literature, viz., criticism. Who will say that while all other matters, above and under the earth, are made the subject of scientific study, literature should be neglected? Literature for the colleges is one of these two things—literary history or literary criticism. With these two fields properly open to it, why should the collegiate teaching of English have "a supererogatory look"?

And from these studies, as well as from the study of foreign languages—perhaps for many students better than from the study

of foreign languages—literary appreciation may come as a by-product. It will come inevitably in proportion to the culture and the enthusiasm of the teacher. Let the teacher go ahead with his proper subjects and the problem of inducing appreciation will, as far as may be, take care of itself. Thus already, I believe, do many college teachers of English by indirection find direction out.

F. C. PRESCOTT.

Ithaca, N. Y., September 15.

WHY CLERKS WILL NOT EXPOSE EMPLOYERS

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The resolution of the Institute of Bank Clerks, noted on page 214 of your issue of September 13, is eminently proper as an academic maxim, and as Bacon says, "for reformation's sake fit"; but every member must have voted for it with his moral tongue in his cheek. I mean no cheap cynicism or pessimism, but a serious and regretful acceptance of obvious fact, in saying that the laws of business evolution tend steadily to make it impossible for subordinates to interfere effectively with their superiors' management, for good or evil, without drawing heavy monetary punishment on themselves, while effecting no provable good to the business.

As to the latter clause, the exposure must be made either before the mismanagement or corruption has become ruinous, or after it. If the former, the chief, who *ex hypothesi* has a large business repute and connection, and whose word will be believed by the whole mass of the business world against the unrepented clerk, will simply deny that there was any danger. At most, he may have made some mistakes in judgment, perhaps broken some technical rules for the sake of profiting his company, but without wrongful intent, but he will thereafter conform to the regulations, etc., etc. The business world will hold the "exposure" to be at best great cry and little wool, and most likely inspired by malice, disappointment, intrigue, or folly; and the clerk may as well resign himself to a new career outside that trade. The very ones benefited by the clean-up will dislike him for disturbing business; the most honest heads or directors will think a business rebel not a desirable subordinate. For one reason or another, there is no new place within the branch which the clerk has learned, the only one he is trained for, and in perhaps middle age the only one he can well acquire. This is the reward of honest courage; and it is no fancy sketch, as any one conversant with business must know, and would be much oftener reminded of did not the mass of subordinates appreciate it before action.

On the other hand, if the exposé waits till the impending ruin is certain, and he cannot be accused of discovering mares' nests, the case is far worse. The only good he accomplishes is to prevent a few more innocents being deluded before the crash comes; and he will gain no credit even for that. A chorus of denunciation and contempt will arise—many and many a time has arisen: "If you knew the danger, why didn't you make it known earlier? Why did you leave so many honest people to

be drawn in and ruined? It is perfectly evident that what ails you is not conscience, but funk. You waited as long as there was anything for you to get out of it, and only peeped when you saw that your position was as good as gone, and you could earn a little cheap credit for exposing what was bound to expose itself very shortly." Equally he is hated and dropped.

I know the very small handful of exceptions to this, where clerks or department heads of unusual strength and opportunity have managed to obtain newspaper or official support. I also know others where that support has ranged itself unanimously on the side of the ill-conducted head; one where the State's appointed guardian went straight to the accused head and told him every word of the clerk's confidential information, and took the magnate's word that it was all false, without examining the documents or consulting parties in adverse interest. In a word, the reason why few subordinates will ever check their official heads, even out of loyalty to the interests the employer is betraying, is because in its own possible interest the business clan-family will always ban and punish such a course. CREDE EXPERTO.

Hartford, Conn., September 15.

Notes.

From the large and interesting list of books announced by the Macmillan Company for this autumn we select the following: "The Earth's Bounty," by Kate V. Saint Maur; "Salmon Fishing," by W. Earl Hodgson; "Baseball and Football," by John Ward and Ralph D. Paine; "Skating, Ice-Yachting, and Skate-Sailing," by Archibald Rogers and Daniel C. Beard; "Highways and Byways of the Mississippi Valley," by Clifton Johnson; "Tarry at Home Travels," by Edward Everett Hale; "Persia Past and Present," by A. V. Williams Jackson; "The Fair Hills of Ireland," by Stephen Gwynn; "A Wanderer in London," by E. V. Lucas; "Charleston," by Mrs. St. Julien Ravenel; "History of Modern Painting," revised edition, by Richard Muther; "Reminiscences of Henry Irving," by Bram Stoker; "Life, Letters, and Art of Lord Leighton," by Mrs. Russell Barrington; "Eugénie, Empress of the French," by Clara Tschudi; "Mrs. Gaskell," by Clement Shorter; "Charles Kingsley," by G. K. Chesterton, and "Shakespeare," by Walter Raleigh, in the English Men of Letters Series; "A History of the United States," vols. vi. and vii., by James Ford Rhodes; "A History of the United States," vol. ii., by Edward Channing; "A History of Rome in the Middle Ages," vol. i., by F. Marion Crawford and Giuseppe Tomassetti; "A History of Modern England," vol. v., by Herbert Paul; "A History of the Inquisition of Spain," vol. ii., by Henry Charles Lea; "Letters of William Pitt, Lord Chatham," "The Cambridge Modern History," vol. iv., "The Thirty Years' War"; "An Introduction to the English Historians," by Charles A. Beard; "The German Empire," by Burt Estes Howard; "Poems," by Alfred Noyes; "Poems and Plays," complete, by W. B. Yeats; "Jeanne d'Arc" and "Sapho and Phaon," by Percy Mackaye; "The Toast

of the Town" and "Her Own Way," by Clyde Fitch; "A Sailor's Garland," collected by John Masefield; "English Literature, from the Norman Conquest to Chaucer," by William Henry Schofield; "The Development of Shakespeare as a Dramatist," by George P. Baker; "The International Law and Diplomacy of the Russo-Japanese War," by A. S. Hershey; "The Nature of Capital and Income," by Irving Fisher; "Readings in Descriptive and Historical Sociology," by Franklin H. Giddings; "Text-Book of Economics," by John Bates Clark; "Newer Ideals of Peace," by Jane Addams; "Life in the Homeric Age," by Thomas Day Seymour; "The Art of the Greeks," by H. B. Walters; "Life in Ancient Athens," by T. G. Tucker; "An Introduction to Philosophy," by George Stuart Fullerton; "The Modern Pulpit," by Lewis O. Brastow; "The Christian Doctrine of Atonement," by R. J. Campbell; "The Seeming Unreality of the Spiritual Life," by Henry Churchill King; "Concepts of Philosophy," by Alexander Thomas Ormond.

James Pott & Co. announce the following illustrated books as ready for publication: "The Pageant of London," by Richard Davey; "Algiers," by M. Elizabeth Crouse; "The Cathedrals of England and Wales," and "The Cathedrals and Churches of the Rhine and North Germany," by T. Francis Bumpus; "India," by Pierre Loti; "Some Literary Eccentrics," by John Fyvie; "By the Waters of Carthage," by Norma Lorimer; "Fire and Sword in the Caucasus," by Luigi Villari, and "Cheer Up," by Charles Battell Loomis.

Funk & Wagnalls will soon have the following books ready: "The Incubator Baby," by Ellis Parker Butler; "Under Pontius Pilate," by William Schuyler; "In London Town," by F. Berkeley Smith, and "Misère," by Mabel Wagnalls.

To their Thin Paper Classics Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. are adding Boswell's "Johnson," Carlyle's "French Revolution," and "Don Quixote." Complete editions of Burns, Keats, Scott, and Shelley are also to be included.

Little, Brown & Co. will publish next month "The Dragon Painter," a story of Japan by Mary McNeil Fenollosa, who is also announced as "Sidney McCall," the author of "Truth Dexter" and "The Breath of the Gods."

Next week Doubleday, Page & Co. will bring out "Inventors at Work," by George Iles. An elaborate work in the press of the same firm is "Fighting the Polar Ice," which gives the story of Anthony Fiala's Arctic expedition.

Prof. James H. Hyslop is adding to his other works on "the scientific investigation of the supernatural" a third volume to be called "Borderland of Psychical Research." It will be published this autumn by Herbert B. Turner & Co.

H. Ripley Cromarsh, who is none other than the sister of A. Conan Doyle, has written a detective story to be published by Small, Maynard & Co., under the title of "The Secret of the Moor Cottage."

Duffield & Co. have made George Brandes's essay "On Reading" into a neatly printed little volume.

Mitchell Kennerley is publishing a re-

print of Alexander Smith's "Dreamthorp," with memoir and portrait. He is also preparing "Anactoria and other Lyrical Poems," chosen from Swinburne's works.

Three volumes of "The Cambridge History of English Literature" are promised for publication next year. They will cover these periods: "From the Origins to Chaucer," "From Chaucer to the Renaissance," and "Elizabethan Poetry and Prose."

The Hertfordshire County Council is engaged in calendaring the documents in its possession illustrating the history (social, ecclesiastical and political), the topography, and the genealogy of the county. The calendar is now issued in two parts with preface and full index of the "Session Rolls, 1561 to 1850." This work (price 15s. the volume) has been compiled and edited by W. J. Hardy, Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, and can be obtained from any of the London booksellers.

"A Child's Recollections of Tennyson" (E. P. Dutton & Co.), by Edith Nicholl Ellison, turns out to be more concerned with Tennyson's children, Hallam and Lionel, than with the poet himself. Mrs. Ellison and her sister were playmates of the boys at Farringford, and saw much of them in later years, especially at Marlborough, where the girls' father was master of the school to which the boys were sent. Tennyson himself was a frequent and honored guest at the master's house. Certain rooms were reserved for his use, and his special coffee cup and saucer were kept under a glass case so that no one else might drink out of them. He would read his poems to the older class, but to the writer of these reminiscences, at least, the lecture was far from edifying. "A great deal of praise," she says, "has been bestowed upon these readings, but I have to speak of them as we young ones found them, and I am sorry to say they seemed to us rather uncomfortable performances. We were accustomed to the musical cadences of our father's voice, whose reading, not only of poetry, but of the Bible's grand prose, was unique, and when the poet read I really must confess that we thought he was shy, as we heard little but mutterings and grumblings into his straggly beard."

"Picturesque Brittany," by Mrs. Arthur Bell, illustrated by Arthur G. Bell, is a favorable specimen of its type, the book of travel illustrated with water-color drawings reproduced in color. The text is agreeably written, and the pictures, which are the real *raison d'être* of the volume, are sober, truthful, and sufficiently able, and are without any of those extravagances of color that have grown, of late, somewhat too familiar. It is published by Dent in London and by Dutton in New York.

A new volume in the American State Series (Century Co.) is entitled "Local Government in Counties, Towns, and Villages," and comes fairly up to the title. The author, John A. Fairlie, deals with such matters as county officers, police, and justices; the town in New England, in the South and in the West; public education, charities, public health, and local finance, in a manner suited to the large mass of readers who approach such a subject neither as lawyers nor as philosophers. In other words, he gives a careful and businesslike presentation for the general

reader or the young person who wants to get the subject up for a college course. But he does not give us, nor does he pretend to give, on the one hand, a manual that would assist the practising lawyer, or, on the other, any of those informed and deeply reasoned summings up of the tendencies of an age and people that attach permanent value to a book. When on such pregnant topics as the tendency to centralization, to State supervision, etc., the author obviously feels out of his depth, and hastens on to safer, that is, to more statistical, ground.

Two recent additions to the literature of cotton are the result of observations in North Carolina, the State which, above all the others, presents the most striking changes wrought by bringing the mill to the scene of production. Holland Thompson's "From the Cotton Field to the Cotton Mill" (Macmillan) is a frank picture of the mill towns and their people. In that scarcely perceptible immigration, in which nearly 200,000 persons were transferred from the farm to the towns and villages, many new problems naturally were involved: old prejudices were weakened, ideals of success were transformed, and the negro was directly affected. With the ugly problem of child labor, the author deals at some length, taking issue with the accounts of "investigators" as overdrawn and unreasonable. Certain sweeping indictments against the atmosphere of the mills and the morality of the operatives Mr. Thompson finds altogether unfounded. A carefully prepared appendix gives an interesting comparison of the cost of living in the representative mill towns of Massachusetts and North Carolina, in which there appears to be a decided difference in favor of the Southern communities. "Cotton," by Charles W. Burkett (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is primarily a text book of cotton culture, though it deals with the marketing and manufacture of the staple. Much valuable information is conveyed in an interesting way, and if it be true, as is often claimed, that the methods of American cotton growing are the loosest and least practical in all agriculture, this book will doubtless fill an important place in the "Farm Library" of which it is a part.

Two volumes have now been published of the new edition of C. P. Lucas's "Historical Geography of the British Colonies" (Oxford: The Clarendon Press). The first of these has been edited and brought up to date by R. E. Stubbs, B.A., and the second by C. Atchley. A colonial geography, which is the joint work of these three men, must at once command attention and win confidence; for no men could be better placed for the work. C. P. Lucas has been under-secretary of state in the Colonial Office at Whitehall, in which R. E. Stubbs also holds a position, while C. Atchley is librarian to the Colonial Office, and has consequently unusual facilities in regard to all literature bearing on England's Colonial Empire. Mr. Lucas's Colonial Geography has already had some fifteen years of usefulness; and if it was to remain the authority on British Imperial possessions a thorough revision was necessary. So far as regards the two volumes that have now appeared, the work of revision has been satisfactorily accomplished, and the historical sketches

of the colonies included have been brought down to 1905. None of the great self-governing colonies is included in either of these volumes; nor is the greatest of the British Crown colonies—India. The first volume begins with Gibraltar, and travels through the Mediterranean by way of Malta and Cyprus to the Asiatic Islands of the Far East. Except for the three European possessions and Somaliland in Africa, the book deals exclusively with the islands in the Indian Ocean and the minor Asiatic possessions. The second volume deals with the West Indies, the Bermudas in the North Atlantic, and the Falkland Islands and South Georgia, at the extreme end of South America. Both volumes are well indexed, and at the end of each section is given a full bibliography of the books bearing on each island or colony. When the remaining volumes appear in their revised condition, the "Historical Geography of the British Colonies" will form, at any rate for a few years to come, the standard encyclopedia of the British Empire.

The senior bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, the Rev. Dr. D. S. Tuttle of the diocese of Missouri, in a candid and often naïve way has disclosed those attributes of his personality and conceptions of the functions of his office which have made him effective as bishop since 1866, in extending the bounds of his church and in helping commonwealths to ethical ideals in Utah, Montana and Idaho. Never in the popular mind a hero, as was Bishop Whipple by his service for the Red Men, and practically indifferent, as this book ("Reminiscences of a Missionary Bishop," Thomas Whittaker) shows, to all problems of polity, ritual, or theology within the Episcopal fold—Anglican or Roman—Bishop Tuttle consecrated twenty years of his life to patient, unheralded, pioneer service among Mormons, miners, stage drivers, business men and the heterogeneous population of early Western communities. There his physical prowess as an athlete and his ability to discriminate between sin and the sinner made him astonishingly skilful in dealing with situations and with elements of population which would have driven the ordinary parson back East. This partial autobiography is a record of episcopal activity and human intercourse, such as only a Western American bishop could have written. Mingled with its rambling record of thrilling physical adventure, ecclesiastical financiering, and human rescue-work, there are homilies on aspects of the pastoral and episcopal life which will have their lesson for the younger clergy. As he has seen much of Mormonism. Bishop Tuttle's chapter on that religion and system of plural marriage has distinct value. He is less severe as to the past and more hopeful as to the future than many non-Mormon ecclesiastics have been.

Research in English manuscript collections has enabled Champlin Burrage, a fellow of Newton Theological Seminary, to find several hitherto unknown or lost writings of Robert Browne, on whom British and American Congregationalists rightly look as the first Englishman to define and suffer for the principles of the Independent or Congregational church polity. The pamphlet ("The True Story of Robert Browne," Henry Frowde), giving the young Baptist scholar's interpretation of Browne's

reversion to the Church of England; and correcting some major and minor errors into which earlier writers—notably Dexter—on Browne were led, for lack of documents and because of partisanship, has the merit of modesty in tone and of brevity and clearness in method. There is sufficient quotation from new MSS. to reveal Browne's argument against both Presbyterians and Anglicans as well as his bluntness and intensity in controversy. That Browne was either mentally unbalanced or full of duplicity when he returned to the Episcopal fold, Mr. Burrage doubts, though there is adequate recognition of the pathos of his last days and the difficulty which confronts the believer in Congregationalism, who would make him out altogether a hero. The principles Browne laid down for his followers have not lost worth during the subsequent development of church polity, as the growing rights of laymen and congregations even under Episcopacy prove.

In the third volume of his "Biographic Clinics" (P. Blackiston's Son & Co.) Dr. George M. Gould has brought together several more of his essays bearing on the influence of even slight errors of refraction upon the general health. Among them are studies of the visual defects of Symonds and Taine. The conclusions in the case of Symonds will hardly seem convincing to those who are familiar with the details of his life. There are also essays on the relation of posture in writing to vision, which are most interesting reading. The author's attitude toward his critics, his resentment of the very general doubt of the conclusions of his earlier volumes on these subjects, and a certain harshness in presenting his material will much delay the conversion of those professional brethren, and there are very many of them, who find his theories rather too finely drawn to be acceptable.

Lord Amherst is selling, through Bernard Quaritch, the rarer books in his collection. Among other treasures there are seventeen Caxtons and De Wordes, including what is believed to be the only genuine and perfect copy in existence of the Lefevre, the first book printed in the English language. Those volumes marked P in the list are perfect:

Lefevre, "Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye," 1474? P.
 Cessolis, "Game of Chess," 1475? P.
 Christine de Pisan, "Morale Proverbes," 1478.
 Boecius, "De Consolatione Philosophiae," 1478-9? P.
 "Mirrour of the World," 1481. P.
 "Tulle of Old Age," 1481. P.
 "Godfrey of Boloyne," 1481. P.
 Higden, "Polycricon," 1482.
 Voraigue, "Golden Legend," 1st edition, 1484.
 Voraigue, "Golden Legend," 2nd edition, 1487?
 Christian de Pisan, "Fayites of Armes," 1489. P.
 Virgil, "Eneydos," 1490. P.
 "Four Sermons," 2nd edition, 1491.
 "Chastysing of Goddes Chylidren," 1491. P.
 "Treatyse of Love," 1493. P.
 Voraigue, "Golden Legend," 3rd edition, 1493.

Through the death of Otto Mühlbrecht, the head of the well-known house of Puttkammer & Mühlbrecht in Berlin, the German book trade has lost one of its most conspicuous members. Born in Braunschweig, he entered a book store in that city in 1853; in 1858 he started out on his *Wanderjahre* and spent some years in Göttingen, Kiel, and Elberfeld, until in 1862 he obtained a place in an importing house in Amsterdam. Later he returned

to Germany, worked a couple of years with T. O. Weigel, in Leipzig, and in 1868 he and Albert Puttkammer founded the "Buchhandlung für Staats und Rechtswissenschaft," which bears their name. Mühlbrecht had early tried his hand on bibliographical work, and in 1866 published a bio-bibliographical sketch of Beethoven. As bibliographer he should be well known both in and outside the trade, through his *Uebersicht der gesammten Staats- und Rechtswissenschaftlichen Litteratur*, which he has edited and published in annual volumes since 1867, and through the "Wegweiser durch die neuere Litteratur der Staats- und Rechtswissenschaften," first published in 1885, and followed by a second volume in 1901. Mühlbrecht was a diligent contributor to the *Börsenblatt für den deutschen Buchhandel* as well as to a number of literary journals. In 1898 he published a short autobiographical sketch.

An interesting and instructive year-book, "Biographisches Jahrbuch und Deutscher Nekrolog," is edited by Dr. Anton Bettelheim of Vienna. The ninth volume, just published by Reimer in Berlin, contains biographies of distinguished Germans, who died in 1904. One of the fullest and most important of these contributions is the life of the historian, Theodor Mommsen, by L. M. Hartmann, an attractive and thoroughly authentic work, based on hitherto inaccessible material furnished by the family. Worthy of mention also are accounts of the life and achievements of the scientist, Friedrich Ratzel, by Viktor Hantzsch, of Herbert Bismarck and General Waldersee, by Hugo Jacobi, and especially of the Munich painter, Lenbach, by Hyazinth Holland. Unfortunately, the necrology for 1904 was not completed in time for publication in this volume, but will be printed together with that of 1905 in volume x., which will be issued during the present year.

Anatole France's new book, "Vers les Temps Meilleurs" (The Good Time Coming), is a collection of various papers already published. It marks his final conversion on many points, due to the *Affaire Dreyfus*, in which he took so passionate an interest. He is quite won over to Socialism in its most collectivist sense; and his eulogy of Zola's "J'accuse" is as extreme on one side as his criticism of twenty years ago was severe, on the other, in declaring that better Zola had not been born than be a purveyor of naturalist filth. Much of the charm of style remains, but the vengeful sharpness of the controversy will not hold those who were hitherto drawn by the author's mere literature, very perfect and very Renanian in its Olympian indifference. Another Academician who has become more reasoning with age is Paul Bourget. His studies in Sociology and Literature are also reprints of these later years, which have worked in their author just the contrary conversion of that of Anatole France. The sociology is that of Le Play, with a vigorous political tang from Bonald and Joseph de Maistre. For Paul Bourget, past fifty, is firm monarchist in behalf of the much discussed French *bourgeois*, just as Anatole France, past sixty, is collectivist in hatred and derision of him. The literature is good and heavy.

To the numerous authentic contributions

to the history of the fall of Napoleon the Third's empire, started up by the recent visit of Empress Eugénie to Emperor Francis Joseph, should by all means be added "La Défense Nationale," by Henri Genevois. The author is a friend of Ranc and Gambetta; and it is undoubtedly their views which he presents in a matter where they have been accused of sacrificing the interests of France to those of their own republic. His general conclusion is that "our defeat did not have its origin in irremediable organic decay, but it was the result of external circumstances which were contingent and reparable."

The death at Tangiers of M. Salmon, head of the French Scientific Mission in Morocco, draws attention to the prodigious amount of work accomplished by him within three years. He was barely twenty-eight years old, and was one of the students of Arabic at the Cairo Institute. The mission under his direction, has already published seven volumes of translations and memoirs, mostly due to M. Salmon's own work. He had just made an investigating trip to Fez, where he managed to secure some eighty "lithographed" Arabic works—practically all that date from that city. Most of them were unknown until now. He also discovered an encyclopedia of Moroccan Law in twenty volumes, comprising the jurisprudence of the *Cadis*, municipal customaries, and corporation regulations. When it is remembered that the civilization of Morocco has waned but slowly from that of the Moors in Spain, the possible importance of all this literature of Islam may easily be surmised. The Scientific Mission will take charge of the complete publication.

Any addition is welcome to the small store of books in English dealing with Muhammadan law. It is doubly welcome when it deals with the work of so significant, and yet so little known a jurist as Ibn Abi Zaid, the Malikite, and when it prints a careful Arabic text with translation and commentary. In giving a text in his "First Steps in Muslim Jurisprudence" (Luzac & Co.: London), A. D. Russell, who is chief magistrate of the Colony of the Gambia, has probably had no predecessor among English scholars until Sir William Jones is reached, who published in copper-plate a treatise on inheritance in the late eighteenth century in India. His book will certainly be very useful, for Muslim, like Roman law, can really be learned only in its original tongue. It is curious, however, to notice that in the Colony of the Gambia and extreme West Africa generally, the sections dealing with slavery are no longer of any importance, and are not given here. It is different farther east in Nigeria. There, to the personal knowledge of the present reviewer, the student and the administrator must still take account of the law of manumission. Mr. Russell has done his legal work very carefully, but his introduction on the early history and sources of Muslim law is hardly adequate. He should notice, too, that a *bid'a*, "innovation," is not necessarily heretical; a theologian may even speak of a praiseworthy *bid'a*. Some mention might also have been in place of the use made of this same text by Vincent, in his "Études sur la loi musulmane."

The blind and deaf special report of the

Census Bureau, prepared under the direction of Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, is a remarkable production. Not only does it give the customary statistics, but it adds much well-considered information in regard to the facts collected. It also has this peculiar merit, which adds greatly to its value and accuracy, that the material has been collected mainly by direct correspondence with the individuals. In sixty-four tables are given among other things the number in each State, the age at which they became blind or deaf, the cause, disease or inheritance, the school attendance, in the deaf the ability to speak, and the present occupations. It is interesting to note that a large number of the blind are musicians or music teachers, while agricultural pursuits are the principal employment of the deaf. Apparently deafness is decreasing in the country, while the number of deaf and dumb per million of the population has fallen since 1890 from 648 to 321. Infant schools for the deaf, receiving pupils as young as three or even two years of age, have been established recently for the purpose of teaching the children to talk.

A remarkable career was closed by the death of the Rev. George Matheson on August 28, at the age of sixty-four. The son of a Glasgow merchant, he became blind when a youth, but nevertheless pursued his studies and graduated from Glasgow University with honors in classics, logic, and philosophy, and with a prize for an essay on Socratic dialogue. Then he entered the ministry and soon was recognized as the greatest preacher in the Scottish Church since Dr. Caird. He declined a call to succeed the celebrated Dr. Cumming in London, and settled over an Edinburgh church, whose pastorate he resigned in 1899. He was distinguished as a hymn writer and contributor to leading English and American periodicals. His published works number at least twenty-two, of which the first, "Aid to the Study of German Theology," appeared in 1874, and the last, "The Representative Men of the New Testament," in 1905. His "Spiritual Development of St. Paul," which has reached several editions, has been translated into the Chinese.

The celebration by the ninety-three-year-old Prof. Eduard Zeller of the seventieth anniversary of his promotion to the doctors' degree, simultaneously with the retirement of the eighty-two-year-old Prof. Kuno Fischer from Heidelberg University, and the completion of his seventieth year by Prof. Johannes Ranke, once more suggests the probability that brain work is conducive to longevity. The youngest of the three, Professor Ranke, is best known to the general public by his book, "Der Mensch," of which Virchow said that Germany ought to pride herself on having produced it. He established his fame first as physiologist, then as anthropologist, and it was due to him that anthropology was represented by a special chair at the University of Munich, and placed on a level with other branches of science. Kuno Fischer has been for over three decades the most popular professor at Heidelberg. His knowledge, imagination, and eloquence enabled him to make a lecture on a dry metaphysical problem so interesting that the students would applaud as at a play or a political address. As for Zeller, all the

honors that can come to a scholar have been bestowed on him. He has been made honorary doctor of all four faculties in succession by the Universities of Heidelberg, Tübingen, Edinburgh, and Marburg. Among the friends of his youth were Ludwig Uhland, Fredrich Vischer, and David Friedrich Strauss. He began his career as a theologian, and stands at the head of historians of Greek philosophy, as Kuno Fischer does of historians of German philosophy.

The school editions of Cæsar's Commentaries had, perhaps still have, hypothetical designs of the engineering works at the siege of Alesia; and there is a model in wood and plaster at the French National Museum of Saint-Germain. The site had been identified etymologically with the modern Alise, against the will of a few crabbed scholars. Important excavations have been begun at the place, on Mount Auxois, under the direction of Major Espérandieu of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, following out a plan of State Engineer Fornerot. Considerable discoveries have already been made, the most surprising of which is the number of public monuments built there by the Romans, after the conquest. This is quite the contrary of their forcing the conquered Gauls to evacuate the *oppida* of Bibracte and Gergovia. It is thought that Alesia, from prehistoric times, must have been a religious centre with a market, so that the Romans chose to multiply in it buildings sacred and profane for the better control of the natives of the whole country. What seems to have been a Forum is a square, fifty yards to a side, with apses on three of the sides, dating apparently from the time of Augustus. A bas-relief of a Dioscurus was found in the ruins. The wholesale destruction of Alesia seems due to the troubles preceding the advent of Vespasian.

A DISPERSER OF MEDIÆVAL GLAMOUR.

From St. Francis to Dante. A Translation of all that is of Primary Interest in the Chronicle of the Franciscan Salimbene (1221-1288); together with Notes and Illustrations from Other Mediæval Sources. By G. G. Coulton, M.A. London: David Nutt.

Mr. Coulton has produced an important book. To put Fra Salimbene's Chronicle in intelligible form before English readers, is well; because it belongs with the "Fioretti" of St. Francis and Joinville's "Life of St. Louis" among the most intimate human documents of the thirteenth century. But Mr. Coulton has done more than this; he has made Salimbene the touchstone by which to test the manners, morals, and ideals of that time. His work serves as a most wholesome corrective to the prevalent unhistorical glorification of the age of St. Francis. We have heard much of the "Ages of Faith," of the "spirit that built cathedrals." The early Romanticists painted the martial and feudal pageantry of the mediæval world. Then as the modern scientific spirit began to act as a solvent for old religions and superstitions, the religious conservatives turned back with pathetic anxiety to find in the Middle Age conditions amid which they themselves might feel at home. England had its crop

of Tractarians and Pre-Raphaelites, and its revival of ritualism and brotherhoods. Even Ruskin gave great aid, though indirectly, to the movement. The Roman Church under Pius IX. could account for the unbridgeable chasm which had opened between its dogmas and the proved knowledge of the modern world only by condemning—in the Syllabus of 1864—modern knowledge and progress. Twenty years later Leo XIII. urged Christendom, if it would be saved, to return to the simplicity and faith of the thirteenth century. Latterly, there has been a renewed interest in St. Francis—an interest which M. Sabatier did not create, but to which he gave form and volume—with the result that there are many good persons, shocked or depressed or exasperated by life to-day, who yearn for the conditions amid which St. Francis flourished. Historians have long known, of course, that this glorification of the "Ages of Faith" is wholly unwarranted. Mr. Coulton's demonstration, clear and entertaining, may come as a novelty and may convince some readers who never search the truth in formal histories.

He has chosen an excellent method. He selects from Salimbene's chronicle all the important passages which refer to Salimbene's own career. Thus we follow him from his infancy—he was the son of a noble of Parma, born in 1221. We learn something about his childhood and education, and about his conversion in 1238, the year after the Great Alleluia. Thenceforward for fifty years we keep pace with him on his journeys; we share his likes and dislikes; we listen to his stories and jokes; we see the sort of life he led in many parts of Italy and France: in a word, we become intimate with a thoroughly individualized personality.

Mr. Coulton next proceeds to use Salimbene as an historical witness, quoting his account of the political events of that half-century, and his opinions or descriptions of famous contemporaries. Through Salimbene's eyes we look on Frederick II., "the Wonder of the World," on Gregory IX. and other Popes, on great prelates and noted princes. And we get an initiate's view of life in the cloister and outside; of the rapid degeneration which set in almost before the death of St. Francis in the order he founded; of the worldliness of many of the religious; of the obscenity darkening into bestiality that was almost a commonplace in monastic life. Brother Salimbene is the best of witnesses, because he writes not to maintain any thesis, but simply to record facts that interest him, quite unconscious that posterity would see anything strange in these facts. No fair-minded reader can doubt that here is an actual piece of mediæval civilization; not a mere slice or segment, but a large, representative specimen. Salimbene is as careful to report that at Ravenna a duck could be bought for fourpence and twelve eggs for a penny, as to chronicle wars and sieges, the decrees of pontiffs and the fate of kings.

Finally, Mr. Coulton appeals to him for testimony as to the beliefs and practices of churchmen, high and low, and as to the relations of the clergy and the people. Superstitions and miracles abound. So do innumerable sects; for Mr. Coulton reminds his readers that in the thirteenth century

the Catholic Church had not reached that uniformity which it has maintained at all costs since the Reformation. The organizing of the Dominicans as the persecuting order shortly before Salimbene's birth was to be a great aid to the hierarchy in its struggle for orthodoxy. The cynic who declared that in the United States there are seventy religious denominations and no religion, would have no difficulty in discovering among thirteenth-century fanatics the counterparts of the Eddyists, Dowrites, and Holy Ghosters of to-day.

The upshot of the evidence can give little comfort to those backward-gazing persons who sigh for the "Ages of Faith." They forget that for one St. Francis there was a host of dirty, ignorant, worldly religious; that the genuinely devout, always in a minority, were as sodden as the rest in satanology; that tyrants, of whom Ezzelino da Romano set the example, made carnage and torture everyday experiences; that slavery, serfdom, and concubinage were established institutions; that learning still busied itself with mechanical conceptions of man and the universe; that justice was rarer than oases in the Sahara; that the position of wife was still precarious. If it be asked why, in spite of these incontrovertible defects, a glamour has risen over the thirteenth century, we find much truth in the following paragraph from Mr. Coulton:

Much of the generous modern overestimate of mediæval society is due to the admiration for mediæval art. The men who built and adorned our [English] churches (it is argued), must have been better men than we. Yet this indirect argument from art to morals is utterly fallacious. Raphael painted his Madonnas in the midst of a society rotten to the core; and the peculiarly modern art of landscape may teach us the same lesson. Six hundred years hence, the enthusiastic student of Turner will be tempted to imagine that Englishmen of the nineteenth century loved their country scenery better than any race in any age. Yet never has man done more to ruin the landscape; never has he crowded more blindly from the fresh fields into the smoky town.

The true artistic greatness of the Middle Ages begins with the eleventh century. The greatest works of those days were carried out not by celibate monks or clerics, but only for monks and clerics. The real artists were the most Bohemian of craftsmen—wandering masons, who loved wine, women, and song, but whose too riotous fancies were chastened by the spirit of asceticism among the clerical patrons that directed the general lines of the work. . . . Art was not the product of mediæval religion, but of worldliness under some restraint of religion. Many details of church carving are too licentious to be photographed or modelled, and some at least of our most beautiful English cathedrals were built in part from the fines collected from unchaste priests, in part from more questionable sources still.

This passage may stand as a fair example of Mr. Coulton's quality. He has read widely in the sources of his period, and is able at every turn to illustrate Salimbene's statements. Wherever it is desirable, as in the case of Joachim de Flora's theory of development, he does not restrict himself to a paragraph of explanation. As a result, his book, within the lines he has laid down, may be said to do for the thirteenth century what Burckhardt did for the Renaissance. It should be read by everyone who desires an accurate report on life as it was really lived in that interesting age. It may also be commended to the

Dante scholar, as presenting the very elements out of which the "Divine Comedy" sprang; only when we realize that it was such a world as this by which Dante found himself encompassed can we understand much of his poem or measure his genius. Finally, it should not be overlooked by the student of civilization, whose business it is to appraise human progress at different epochs.

MATHIESON'S HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

Scotland and the Union. A History of Scotland from 1695 to 1747. By William Law Mathieson. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$3.25.

Mr. Mathieson's "Politics and Religion in Scotland" was a book of such vigor, originality, and learning that all who welcomed its appearance four years ago will be glad to read the continuation. "Scotland and the Union" carries forward the thread of narrative from the period of the Revolution to the year after Culloden, and has for its central motive a theme of hardly less importance than the breach with Rome, which Mr. Mathieson discussed in his former work. It seems to be pretty generally agreed that the Scotch became a nation in the age of Knox. Mr. Mathieson's present task is to consider the state of national feeling at a time when Whig and Jacobite, Unionist and Patriot were striving to give the destinies of Scotland their final direction. There is less room for religious controversy than before, but the ecclesiastical element does not wholly disappear. Indeed the very quality which gave Mr. Mathieson's first work its distinctive excellence is once more apparent in his account of Scottish life during the era of the Union.

We refer here to the note of moderation—and of moderation exercised under rather trying circumstances. For centuries the Scotch made so serious a matter of religious partisanship that it was almost impossible for their historians to approach the Reformation and the Covenant without a vitiating warp of mind. Owing to their excess of admiration for Knox, Melville, and Henderson, the men whom these leaders of the Presbyterian cause opposed were habitually disparaged on the ground of lukewarmness, moral cowardice, or Anglomania. In writing a history of the Scottish Reformation Mr. Mathieson sought to trace the progress of a saner, less intemperate mood than that of Knox, and to define the ideal of Christian charity as it emerged at intervals amid the disputes of Calvinist and Episcopalian. For the first time, in a book of adequate scope, he examined the aims of the Scottish bishops and showed that they were not mere placehunters, but in many cases the representatives of a policy more humane and tolerant than that of their Presbyterian contemporaries. This was to adopt a novel point of view, and to incur in some quarters a charge of special pleading. But Mr. Mathieson did not come forward as a champion of any ecclesiastical type.

Relatively speaking, the ecclesiastical interest slackens at the period of the Revolution. Prior to the Restoration it holds an unchallenged priority. Under Charles II. and James VII. the misguided attempts of the Government to force the national

conscience prolonged a strife which otherwise would have rapidly subsided in Scotland. "After a hundred and thirty years of strife," says Mr. Mathieson, "the great majority of the nation were disposed to regard the question as settled, and to devote themselves to more profitable pursuits."

When the Union was under debate a pamphleteer who opposed it took the ground that if the two countries became one, religious toleration would be sure to follow. However narrowminded the writer's views, his forecast was quite correct, since immediately the Episcopallians set up a demand for the same status in Scotland as that enjoyed in England by the Presbyterians. The Toleration bill of 1712, as passed by the House of Commons, with the overwhelming majority of 152 to 17, was a relief measure conceived in a generous spirit and quite acceptable to the Scottish Episcopallians. It gave them liberty of worship, with the right to use the liturgy, and promised them the protection of the State. The heresy trial, so familiar to our own age, had a part in the liberalizing of Scottish theology long before the days of Robertson Smith. For the thirty years between 1717 and 1747, the University of Glasgow was a storm centre of great activity in the theological world. Professor Simson, who held the Chair of Divinity from 1708, was the most prominent leader of liberal thought among the Scottish clergy until his suspension by vote of Assembly in 1729. On the theological side this book, like its predecessor, makes all episodes converge towards one motive—the contest between intolerance and the spirit of free inquiry.

In turning to the politics of the Union settlement, one must keep chiefly in view the state of national sentiment as it affected the diplomacy of the northern kingdom. A first glance at the situation might suggest the belief that Scotland was dragged into the Union by her great peers, whose interests in England ranged them on the side of the Court. As Mr. Mathieson points out: "Of 46 peers—to 21 against—who voted for the first article, at least 29 were privy councillors, pensioners, officers or officials, and six more, in addition to nine of the placemen, or 15 in all, had been enrolled or promoted in the peerage since the Revolution." There may also have been a little direct bribery, but the amount spent in cash to secure votes for the Union could not have been large.

All things considered, it is clear enough that the Lords as a body were strongly in favor of the Union. But Mr. Mathieson does not credit them with having had sufficient influence to carry through the measure unaided. A change in the constitution was proposed, and constitutional changes cannot well be put through by a bare majority. On the one side stood the great Whig peers who were committed by interest to the Union; on the other side were ranged the Country Party under such leaders as Hamilton, Athol, and Fletcher, with the pronounced Jacobites supporting them. In this juncture the casting vote belonged to the so-called *Squadron Volante*, which took form through a schism in the Country Party. The name is misleading, for the members of the Squadron, so far from constituting a small minority engaged in a guerilla war of politics, were at the decisive moment a major-

ity of the Country Party who acted under a strong and sober conviction.

Mr. Mathieson shows marked skill in blending a portrayal of character with the discussion of purely political issues. His chapter entitled "The Union from Within" is quite the best study we have seen of the statesmen whose talents light up the sessions of the Scottish Parliaments during its last days. Having had a somewhat inglorious career until the eve of its disappearance from history, this body did not vanish without leaving on record a series of vigorous and eloquent debates, in which the honors were evenly divided among a large number of speakers. "The crisis of the Union," says Mr. Mathieson, "could produce no Knox, and, fruitful as it might have been in political genius, it produced no Maitland and no Montrose; but when we consider the personality of those who pass and re-pass most prominently before us in that closing scene—the graceful adroitness of Queensberry and Seafeld, the massive intellect of Stair, the magnanimity of Roxburgh, the charm and impetuosity of Argyll, the intensity of Fletcher, the fiery invective of Hamilton and Belhaven—we cannot but conclude that at no previous crisis had great ability been so plentiful, and the level of public talent so high." One may be permitted to add that the standard of political honesty was quite as high at the time of the Union as it had been in the days of the Reformation.

Mr. Mathieson credits the Church with having discouraged the anti-Unionist extremists with no less enlightenment than was shown by the leaders of the Squadron. This is not to say that it disclosed any great enthusiasm for the Union. Some of the clergy objected that the Covenant exacted a promise from its subscribers to labor for the reformation of the English Church. How could such a promise be fulfilled if Scotland went into partnership with a country in which Episcopacy was established by law? But if the Church was unfriendly to several of the changes which the Union involved, it did not preach a crusade. "The majority in parliament," says Mr. Mathieson, "would certainly have been paralyzed if the clergy had consented to encourage a popular revolt . . . and, when we consider how little the Union was in harmony with their ecclesiastical traditions, and how strong was the current of popular feeling which threatened at times to sweep them off their feet, it is no small compliment to their own prudence, and to the vigilance and capacity of their leaders, that they adhered on the whole to the path of neutrality—unsympathetic and even menacing neutrality as it was."

The two Jacobite risings come within the range of Mr. Mathieson's survey, and he gives an adequate account of both. But Jacobite literature is a thing by itself and we do not infer that Mr. Mathieson aspires to do more in the present work than indicate the general relations of the '15 and the '45 to the Union. The last chapter closes with a well deserved panegyric of Duncan Forbes, but for our own part we prefer to take leave of this excellent book by quoting a sentence which occurs at a much earlier stage of the narrative:

Happy it was for the future of Great

Britain that Scottish nationality went down, suppressed indeed in outward form, but defiant and unbroken to the last; for this spirit, persisting as it did, not only ensured to Scotland its just recognition in the terms of union, but in after years, when bitter memories had passed away, asserting its vitality in literature and arms, and promoting a solid partnership founded on mutual esteem, was to mingle with English traditions and to become the common heritage of the British race.

RECENT FICTION.

The House of Cobwebs and Other Stories.

By George Gissing. With an introductory essay on the author by Thomas Secombe. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The fifteen brief sketches that make up this posthumous work by George Gissing have a very uniform quality which readers unused to the finer literary discriminations will perhaps find monotonous. In fact the effect of the book is cumulative, and one must have read far before he realizes how remarkable a survey it is of the narrow world in which Gissing lived most of his life—the grey limbo of shabby gentility, with its meticulous scruples maintained in the face of penury, its obscure tragedies and comedies, its furtive generousities, its lonely intransigencies. And Gissing has invested this chronicle of those who fail with a curious dignity. His heroes may have failed, but at least they have not consciously surrendered. Rebuffs are their daily bread, which they eat with patient stoicism. They one and all retain the respect due to those who, perforce, live alone or in alien companionship, yet indulge no bitterness toward the prosperous world. Indeed, this group of reduced gentlemen, impoverished bibliophiles, penniless authors, and the like stands in tacit, but damning contrast with the children of worldly success who occasionally intervene—the money lenders, the prosperous friends who lightly promise but as quickly forget, the whole lucky rabble that has no time to indulge delicate feelings.

Nobody has traced the hidden lives that rim and permeate London with quite the tact and knowledge of Gissing. He has written better books than this perhaps, but here is the quintessence of his art. It would be interesting to trace the double strand that runs through these stories and all his works—the eager humanitarian curiosity that he learned from Dickens, and the austere restraint of phrase and feeling imposed by his life-long classical studies. One may note a somewhat analogous case in that other Dickens disciple, Alphonse Daudet. But these considerations lie aside from a brief notice, and it is enough to say that the observation in these sketches is originally fine, and then highly selective; the English of great purity and incisiveness; and that a certain thinness of tone and lack of humor are necessary results of gruelling personal experience with the matter in hand. It is a book for those who love impeccable workmanship. In a period where slapdash and overemphasis are in favor, it may not win the general ear, but it will, we are confident, find the kind of audience that conveys a volume to posterity.

Space fails to do more than mention Mr.

Secombe's sympathetic study of Gissing which raises issues of life and letters beyond the scope of a mere book review.

The Master-Man. New York: John Lane Co.

"The Master-Man" would be what the ladies used to call "a sweet, pretty, little story" if it had rightly fulfilled its being. The central figure is a Southern country "doctor of the old school," with the celebrated virtues of his kind. He is an old bachelor, who has had an early disappointment in love. The void in his home, if not in his heart, is filled by a niece who both adores him and makes him comfortable. To her come wooers. Thus far all is familiar and intelligible; it is Dr. Thorne over again. The course of true love will not, of course, run perfectly smooth, but it will not run awry. In this our expectations are answered. The less desired suitor is not slow in withdrawing from the field, and the favored one (who is the son of the doctor's old love, and the doctor's own understudy) is displayed in those fair romantic proportions to which the hero of an idyl is natural heir. It seems that we have only to watch the happy pair, as they pace hand in hand under the benignant eye of the Master-Man along the primrose way. Judge, therefore, our confusion and dismay when we find our gentle idyl attempting to transform itself into a problem story of a sort, with a tragic ending! Lynch-law is the burning question. The facts of the case are stated plainly enough. A young girl, a protégée of the doctor and his niece, is criminally assaulted by a negro. The doctor, after months of search, finds his man and has him jailed. A lynching mob assembles, and the Master-Man, almost single-handed, defends the prisoner till the arrival of the police. Wounded and exhausted, he hastens to the bedside of the dying girl. Meanwhile a heavy storm arises; and when, at dawn, the doctor tries to make his way home through the great drifts, his strength fails him, and his life ends.

Now, the unfortunate thing about all this, to us, is the casualness of it. The lynching business seems to be introduced as mere local color; or, perhaps, rather as a fulcrum by which the man's mastery may get its full hold upon us. Surely, rape is not an incident to be made ornamental use of. It has been and may be the theme of sombre tragedy; but a most difficult and dreadful theme it must always be—*res nefas* unless upon the mightiest tongues. Is it not a sign of the lawlessness of our fiction that such a jarring of motives should nowadays be so common? In what stable forms of art are such things conceivable? In the Forest of Arden one does not come upon a casually mutilated Lavinia; and nobody has thought of making of Lucrece a Roman holiday.

The Leader. By Mary Dillon. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

The American political novel continues to be of thin texture: is it because American refinement is still somewhat gingerly in its approaches to the public arena? The Leader is a popular orator of inconvenient principles. In his contact with the

bosses he plays, as would be expected, a losing game, but remains (a fact plainly due rather to his silver tongue than to his principles, though these also count) an idol of the people. His name is brought forward for nomination at a St. Louis convention as "The Lion of the Party," "The man who alone in American politics stood for a great principle," "The faithful friend of the masses," "The idolized leader of the people." He makes the best speeches and gets the most applause; but he is not nominated, though a final chance offers itself through the repudiation by his successful adversary of a plank in the platform. The veil of fiction cast over these incidents is of the thinnest; the writer's art gives them no fresh meaning. For the rest, we are not cheated of our "heart interest." The course of true love runs smoothly enough for all practical purposes. And there is always hope that our Voice of the People may make itself more profitably heard during the next campaign.

The Fighting Chance. By Robert W. Chambers. D. Appleton & Co.

Since this book gives a pretty detailed description of American high life, it will have a certain value for shop-girls and dry-goods clerks solicitous to know what to wear, what to say, and what to do in unwonted social emergencies. It is hard to see why any other class of readers should take it at all seriously. The story displays a cheap dandyism of phrase, a cheap exuberance of amorous incident of a harmless enough kind, a cheap social satire, not to mention the cheap expedient of hinting at real personages in New York society and finance. Yet, with all its palpable defects upon it, this novel was framed for popularity; it is just the sort of mess of love-making, phrase-making, abundant gush, and facile cynicism of which the public palate apparently cannot have too much. But it is emphatically not for the literary epicure.

Christus nicht Jesus. By F. W. van Oestéren. Berlin: Egon Fleischel & Co.

Fogazarro's "Il Santo" bids fair to have a rival in Germany. Although the Jesuit problem has of late been superseded by other more vital ones in fiction and drama, recent events in France have brought it to the foreground. The election of a German for the important office of Jesuit-general, too, may divert some of the attention which the book of the Italian receives.

Friedrich Werner van Oestéren came to sudden prominence six years ago, with the publication of his "Merlin," which some critics ranked with the best epic poems written since the passing of the classic period. It elucidates the character of Merlin by flashes of a philosophical insight which reflect the spirit of our time. This same philosophy dominated his historical epic "Domitian," which was published soon after. A volume of animal fables followed, "Wir," in which the author satirizes his own time; and then a symbolical poem, "Schatten im Walde." This closed his poetical production for the present, and with "Die Wallfahrt," a story of a pilgrimage in Galicia, he made his début, three years ago, as a novelist. It is not difficult to trace the train of

thought which led from that picture of superstition and license to the finely spun web of intrigue which forms the plot of the new book. There a vulgar rural clergy deluded the lower classes by appeals to their senses; here the sharpest and best-trained minds of the Order of Jesus approach the higher classes with all the cunning and diplomacy at their command. The *Tendenz* is much more apparent in the later book; but its artistic value does not suffer. For the author's gift of characterization has created a number of figures interesting from a psychological point of view, regardless of their significance.

The story is told with directness, but without repulsive details. It revolves about the illegitimate son of a liberal prince, influential at the court of the reigning monarch. This son of an actress, who was married to an officer of the army, is taken by his foster-father to a famous Jesuit school patronized by the aristocracy. To gain the mother's favor, who is still the friend of the prince, and, through her, indirectly to influence him and counteract his hostility towards the order, is the plan cherished by the fathers. The tool chosen for that purpose is Brother Victor, a high-minded young idealist, who has occasion to become the boy's friend and protector when his schoolmates begin to taunt him with his descent. Although the young priest appeals to the imagination of the woman, who has become a widow, her friendship for her former lover is too deep to admit of relations which the fathers hope to see established between the priest and the mother of his pupil. Victor becomes conscious of the mission which he was unknowingly to perform, renounces his vows, and frustrates the well-laid scheme.

This plot is supplemented by others of minor importance, and one, the love of Maja Karmetter for the legitimate son of the prince, his treatment of her, and her death, is not without grave significance. But the strength of the book lies in the picture the author presents of the inner workings of the order, especially of its educational institutions. For his vision is undeniably objective; he sees the disciples of Ignatius Loyola as products of centuries of training. He does not sit in judgment, but shows us the working of the machinery, without adding his comment. The characters are admirably drawn. The pedagogue prelates, especially the rector of the school, with his inscrutable diplomatic smile; the far less diplomatic Huellmann, the stern fanatic, pressing upon the others measures of an almost rash severity; and Father Hofelder, never denying his rustic origin by a certain simple spontaneity and inherent sincerity, yet quite subservient to the holy mission—all these are strongly outlined types. Hofelder is a figure almost impossible outside of German fiction; he is of the type Grützner liked to paint.

American Public Problems. The Election of Senators. By George H. Haynes. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50 net.

This book is an arsenal of arguments on both sides of the question, Shall the election of senators by direct vote of the people in the several States be substituted for

the present method of election by the State legislatures? The author believes the subject to be very important, because the Senate has power, for the time at least. It is the dominant body in Congress, the body now mainly relied on both to put into effective and rational form the crude and erratic legislation of the lower House, and also to act as a check on the attacks of Socialism, on the one side, and the encroachments of the executive on the other. Moreover, thirty-one States—two-thirds are required by the Constitution—have made formal application to Congress for the submission of an amendment authorizing the changes. "The present volume," he adds in his preface, "aims to make clear the considerations which led the framers of the Constitution to place the election of State senators in the hands of the State legislatures; the form and spirit of elections thus made, and the causes which have led to the recent and pressing demand for popular control over the choice of senators. It attempts also to forecast in some degree the probable effectiveness of such popular control, whether exercised under a loose construction of the present law, or in accordance with a Constitutional amendment making possible the election of senators by direct popular vote."

What is meant by "a loose construction of the present law" is, we take it, explained by many instances given of States which even now attempt to ascertain in advance the popular desire as to the senatorship, and to bring this to bear upon the legislature (p. 140). There is nothing, so far as we know, to prevent a State legislature from making a habit of selecting as senator the candidate who shall have received in advance a majority vote of the people of the State; in this way the function of the legislature in electing senators would become gradually atrophied (p. 138), as has happened to the same function in the case of the electoral college. The author produces a good deal of evidence to show that this process is now going on; the end of it would be that the legislature in every State would merely record the popular choice previously declared; a roundabout way of securing popular selection.

The book is so complete and so fair that, but for one circumstance, we should not feel called upon to do more than to refer the reader to it as a lucid and exhaustive compendium of all that can be urged on either side of the question discussed. This circumstance is that it is, in a measure, inconclusive. The argument assumes, of course, that the Senate, as it exists, is in need of improvement. Chapter iv. discusses and analyzes "the personnel" of the Senate, with the result that in the opinion of "close observers" one senator out of every three owes his election to his personal wealth, to his being satisfactory to the "system," or to his "expertness in political manipulation." This part of the book is more labored than is necessary. It is enough to take the author's list of the seventeen best men in the Senate (p. 93) and compare it with a list of the seventeen best men in the Senate fifty years ago, to see what a falling off there has been in character, learning, independence, and ability. The only real question is how far this falling off can be remedied by changing the method of election. We understand the author's

conclusion to be that the change would produce some improvement; whether a great deal or very little is not clear. This obscurity, however, we are inclined to think is inherent in the nature of the subject, and of the argument. There are so many causes at work which influence the selection of the members of a body like the Senate, besides that of the mere method of election, that to determine in advance how far a change in that would improve its character is an impossibility. The tendency of the change might be towards improvement, yet this tendency might be counteracted by others, so as to leave matters very much as they are now. The array of arguments pro and con, marshalled by the author, has slightly the effect of leaving us in a quandary as to whether we may not after all be wrong in thinking there is any substantial preponderance.

The true preponderance may possibly be brought out by a statement of the argument in a form slightly different from the author's. The complete enumeration of every conceivable argument is sometimes a pitfall, because arguments of little or no consequence tend to obscure the important ones.

In the present case, the controlling circumstances are the following: First, there is a direct connection between the decline in the character of the Senate and the method of nomination. The legislatures elect now those whose names are chosen for them by a boss or committee; this boss or committee, as we know by experience in New York, controls the legislature, and selects the senator from considerations of party subserviency (we leave out cases like those of Mr. Lodge, and others, who select themselves), which exclude, so far as possible, independence and character as qualifications. Now, in this process, the fact that the legislature is a small body, the members of which are themselves dependent for their seats on the pleasure of the boss or committee, gives the latter an enormous advantage. Make the election popular, and the nomination, instead of being in the hands of the boss or committee, goes back to a convention, such as now nominates the governor. While it is true that the boss or committee always has a "slate" for this convention, which would (under the new system) include the names of candidates for the senatorship; it is by no means true that the boss always controls the convention as he does the legislature. On the contrary, instances are continually occurring of distinguished and capable men being selected as nominees for governor, who would not stand a ghost of a chance for consideration by the boss for the senatorship. Mr. Hughes and Mr. Jerome are both conceivable as governors of New York, and their chances are to-day being canvassed; while neither one of them is likely in any event to be made senator. Thereason for the difference is obvious. The general convention of a party chosen from a whole State cannot be owned and controlled as a legislative majority can. It is consequently a body in which nominations are more likely to be influenced by these very considerations of general repute, which it is the object of any good system of nomination to make effective. In the fact, there-

fore, that popular election would change the system of nominations, would destroy the present pocket legislative nomination, and substitute a system more open to the influence of popular opinion, lies, we think, the answer to the question propounded by the author. It remains true that no system of nomination or election will produce good senators, unless the public desires them earnestly, and detests had senators sincerely. The change in question will merely give those in any State who desire a good senator an opportunity better than they now have, for urging his claims.

The Development of Freedom of the Press in Massachusetts. By Clyde Augustus Duniway, Associate Professor of History in Leland Stanford Junior University. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

Dr. Duniway's volume was originally a thesis for the degree of doctor of philosophy in political science at Harvard. In its final form, it is a work of permanent value; for in the intervening nine years (1897-1906), Dr. Duniway has continued his research and greatly extended his monograph. His first idea was to write a history of the right of freedom of discussion in the United States; to do for America, that is, what Henry Jephson did so well for England in 1892, when he published "The Platform." As a preliminary step to a work which would have been larger in its scope than Mr. Jephson's history—for Mr. Jephson is concerned exclusively with the development of the public meeting in England—Dr. Duniway began an investigation into the restrictions upon the freedom of the press in the British-American colonies; and when the magnitude of even this one phase of the right of free discussion was realized, he determined to narrow his investigation to Massachusetts.

British American colonies might or might not have included Canada—and had Dr. Duniway pushed his investigations into the older provinces he would have discovered that New Brunswick and Nova Scotia from their earliest settlement benefited much from the progress towards a free press which had been made in Massachusetts up to the time of the Revolution. In New Brunswick, the Legislature assumed that it had powers to punish offending newspaper publishers, much as the General Court of Massachusetts in 1722 punished James Franklin of the *New England Courant*, when it ordered the high sheriff of the County of Suffolk to detain Franklin in the stone prison during the pleasure of the court. The New Brunswick Assembly at Fredericton, about 1830, committed the publisher of the *Merimachi Gleaner* to jail. In 1844 it similarly committed Hill and Doak, the publishers of the *Loyalist*; but in this case there was an appeal to the courts, as there was in the case of Daniel Fowle, who, in 1755, was committed to jail by the General Court of Massachusetts for printing a satirical account of the debates of the House on an unpopular excise bill. In Fowle's case a judicial decision harried the action and assessed the costs against the plaintiff. In the Hill and Doak case in New Brunswick, however, to the dismay of the Legislature, the attempt to bar the action on the same plea that was successfully advanced in Massa-

chusetts in 1756, failed. The printers of the *Loyalist* recovered damages from the Speaker and the sergeant-at-arms; and it was discovered that the Canadian Legislatures had never possessed the power which they had used in committing printers for contempt. They did not possess this power "because," in the words of a judgment of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in London in 1843—a judgment which governed the New Brunswick case—"the ordinary tribunals of the colony were sufficient to investigate and punish past misconduct."

This may seem a digression on the part of the reviewer; but it is not an impertinent digression, for a glance at the history of the free press in Canada shows that Dr. Duniway has good ground for his claim that in confining himself to Massachusetts it was possible to treat "every aspect of the subject with sufficient fulness to give a true picture of historic development." Another reason for regarding Dr. Duniway's work as of more than local value is to be found in the copious footnotes which record parallel developments in other of the thirteen colonies. In a word, it is much more than the history of the development of a free press in Massachusetts. Either in the text or in the footnotes there is to be found the history of a free press in the United States; and as most of the early newspapers in the Provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were begun by United Empire Loyalists who had emigrated from Boston, and who were familiar with the status of the press in Massachusetts in the years immediately preceding the Revolution, Dr. Duniway's work will have to be taken into account by the historian of the constitutional development of the press in the Dominion of Canada.

Still another value attaches to Dr. Duniway's monograph. It was necessary for his purpose that he should make clear the changing position of the press in England from the settlement of Massachusetts to the Revolution in 1776; and he has done this so thoroughly that it is scarcely conceivable that any American student of the development of a free press in England will have occasion to consult any other authority. Dr. Duniway carries his study of English conditions beyond the Revolution. He brings it down as far as the Act of 1792—Fox's Act to remove doubts respecting the functions of juries in cases of libel. There was much legislation concerning the press by the British Parliament after the act which resulted from the exertions of Fox and Erskine; but most of it had to do with registration, imprints, excise duties on paper and advertisements, and with stamps on newspapers. Fiscal burdens the English newspapers had to carry for sixty or seventy years after the enactment of 1792. Save for these, however, the English newspaper press was free by 1792; so that Dr. Duniway comes within measurable distance of being the historian of the free press in England as well as in Massachusetts. In fact, he comes nearer than any other writer to being the historian of the free press in the Anglo-Saxon world; for Fox Bourne bestows only a couple of pages on American journalism before the Revolution in his "English Newspapers." Andrews does little more; while Hunt and Grant ignore overseas British newspapers altogether. More than this, it can be asserted for Dr. Duni-

way's monograph that it embodies the first scholarly work that has been put into this phase of the history of the press as an Anglo-Saxon institution; and it is perhaps noteworthy that unlike all preceding histories of the newspaper press its author is not of the newspaper craft.

The Frog Book. North American Toads and Frogs, with a Study of the Habits and Life Histories of those of the Northeastern States. Mary C. Dickerson. 16 colored plates, 96 half-tone plates, and 35 line drawings in the text; the illustrations based largely upon over 300 photographs by the author. "The Nature Library." New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. \$4 net.

Any remnants of popular prejudice against frogs, toads, and tree-toads are likely to be dispelled by this attractive and instructive volume. The fifty-eight living North American species are described and (with one exception) finely illustrated, often in colors, from the author's photographs. The regrettable exception is *Ascaphus*, the sole North American representative of the discoglossoid toads, a single example of which was found in 1897 in the State of Washington. Naturally and appropriately, greater space is devoted to the forms that are more familiar, more interesting, or economically more important, e. g., the bull-frog, leopard-frog, garden toad and common tree-toad, *hyla versicolor*. The thoroughness of treatment is evidenced by the fact that to the last named, picturesquely styled "this entertaining little acrobat of the frog world," are given six pages of text, two line cuts, two half-tone plates exhibiting nine attitudes, and two colored plates (one of them the frontispiece) showing ten color-phases of this versicolored creature. Among the uncolored plates special praise is due those which represent the stages of development and the parts employed in the "Keys"; Figs. 8 and 9 clearly show the two kinds of vocal pouches.

Notwithstanding some examples of the prevailing nature-study gush or cant, the style is generally simple and direct. Among particularly graphic phrases or descriptions are the following: "The frog's moist skin is like a great gill stretched over the whole body"; "if a sparrow comes for its daily bath beside what seems to be a moss-covered stone, its brown tail feathers are seen a moment later protruding from the frog's mouth, while the frog is sitting sedately in just the same spot." Most persons are aware, directly or indirectly, of the eminent edibility of frogs' legs, yet probably few realize that "frog-hunting yields \$50,000 annually to the hunters, but threatens practical extinction to certain native species," or that so many thousand young frogs are sacrificed for fish-bait that some regions are overrun with grasshoppers, and vegetation suffers materially. The economic value of the "heavy-gaited toad" is well set forth in the following paragraph:

It is found that 88 per cent. of a toad's food consists of insects and other small creatures that are considered pests in the garden, grain-field, or pasture. It is estimated that in three months a toad will eat 9,936 injurious insects, and that of this number 1,988 (16 per cent. of all its food)

are cutworms. Counting the cutworms only, the estimated value of a single toad is \$19.88 per year, if the injury done by a single cutworm be put at the low figure of one cent per year.

Yet unmixed commendation cannot be accorded either the author or the publishers. The fifty-page Introduction deals, for the most part, clearly, concisely, and correctly with such general topics as structure, development, distribution, and phylogeny; but its technicality might well discourage the lay reader at the very outset, and certain portions would have been better relegated to the end of the volume. On the other hand, under particular species are discussed at considerable length topics of equally general application, voice, segmentation, metamorphosis, moulting, and respiration, that would come properly within the Introduction, wherever placed. Cilia are not "minute hairs" (p. 180) in any proper sense. Only the linguist or the professional naturalist could be expected to interpret "metachrosis (p. 150)"; nor should it be necessary to consult the Index for information that "Batrachia" and "Salientia" are synonyms of *Amphibia* and *Anura*.

More than one-half of the line cuts might have been omitted without detriment to the proper subject of the work. The list of color plates does not name the forms represented, and the page is ostentatious. Several of the full-page half-tone plates display merely forest and stream; the frogs and toads are no more in evidence than was the prophet in the picture of Jonah and the Whale. The list of half-tones is verbose. The Index comprises less than three pages of too small print, and is inadequate for a volume of such size intended for the laity. The following specific omissions have been noted incidentally: *Anura* (pp. 245, 248); behavior (27); metachrosis (150); pollywog (68) purring (173); squirting water (172); fatal effects of salt and lime (36); and "spring-frog" as a synonym of *rana pipiens* (171). The Bibliography covers nine pages, and includes the titles (mostly sufficient) of 165 publications by 113 writers. A later edition of "Wiedersheim" should have been cited. Typographic errors are surprisingly few. In Stejneger the *j* is commonly replaced by *i*; in the Index and on pp. 13 and 12, respectively, Dipnoan has a superfluous *i* before the *a*, and the *y* is omitted from *Crossopterygii*.

The Becquerel Rays and the Properties of Radium. By the Hon. R. J. Strutt, F.R.S. Second edition. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$2.40 net.

The fact that the books on radio-activity by Strutt and by Rutherford have both gone into second editions in two years shows that the subject is of great general interest, and that our knowledge of it is changing rapidly. Radio-activity and the speculations aroused by it have ceased to be a nine days' wonder, and an earnest desire has arisen among physicists to fit this new material into the scientific mansion which is building so laboriously.

While the new theory of ions, electrons, or corpuscles, as they are somewhat indiscriminately called, does not professedly contravene the atomic theory, yet the

additions are so revolutionary as to amount really to a new conception of the structure of matter. The metaphysical idea underlying the supposed divisibility of the atom is little dwelt on by the expounders of the new belief. Yet the very fact that, as our knowledge increases, we find it more and more difficult to retain simplicity of structure and are compelled to divide and subdivide the ultimate particles of matter in order to explain newly discovered properties, raises the question whether, after all, we are on the right track. Who can say that in a few years Thomson's corpuscle will not be further divided, and so on until a *divisio ad absurdum* is reached? That this new theory is already beyond the limits of physical science is even more apparent when the properties of the electron are considered. Some of the corpuscular school even now maintain that the electron is an immaterial substance, composed wholly of negative electricity. It is difficult enough to hold to a conception of the essentials of matter, but a substance, electricity, possessing inertia and no matter, is at present at least incomprehensible. Our ideas of inertia and matter are firmly anchored to a space representation, and no necessity for such a space relationship has been found for electricity. In the development of this theory there has been a too ready submission to the glamour of the corpuscle and a lack of variety and conclusiveness in the proofs. But after all is said, the theory of electrons has two powerful supports: it appeals to the imagination, and it has been the means of coordinating a mass of discordant phenomena, and of giving a working hypothesis for their explanation. And that is a great service.

Mr. Strutt in the new edition of his book has given an adequate and clear outline of the facts and theories of radio-activity, and has made his treatment quite elementary. Necessarily, a subject changing so rapidly will require in a short while a revised account, but Mr. Strutt has grown up in the subject, and is quite competent for the task. We note a few typographical errors which should have been corrected, and at least one misstatement. When he says that "Radium gives off enough heat to *boil* its own weight of water in an hour," he should have said "to bring to the boiling temperature."

Brief Literary Criticisms. By Richard Holt Hutton. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.50.

This is the second volume of selections from the essays contributed to the *Spectator* by the late R. H. Hutton, a genial and suggestive critic of Ainger's type, but with more power and less humor. No man in England was more just or better balanced, and when a great writer died, such as George Eliot, Carlyle, Longfellow, or Browning, one could count on finding in the *Spectator* an accurate and well-written estimate of the man's genius and his work. Several of these papers have been reprinted here.

A useful but not a great critic was Hutton, one who served his generation well, and can still be read with profit, though some of the subjects that he discusses, such

as the comparison of Browning and Tennyson, the question whether Clough was a true poet, the "poetic place" of Matthew Arnold, have lost their freshness for the present, until, in fact, other generations call for a reevaluation of the late Victorian writers. Most critics have a weakness for some obscure poet to whose merits they try to convert an unwilling world. Hutton's protégé is William Caldwell Roscoe, whose *Malgodin*, in the poem "Violenzia," is, he tells us, a tempter more sardonic and resourceful than Mephistopheles. Writing on "Decadence in Poetry," he brings together interesting evidence from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries to show that morbid taint is to be looked for, not in the age itself or in any particular society, but in the individual decadent, who has not "the judgment or the breadth of sympathy to find out the healthier instincts of his age." Hutton had a profound admiration for Matthew Arnold, whom he called "the greatest elegiac poet in the English language." Arnold's descriptive poetry he considered peculiarly refreshing and restful to the soul—more so even than Gray's, and his self-questioning strains were, he thought, bound to become more and more popular as they are recognized to be the voice of this self-questioning age.

Miss Roscoe has prefixed to this selection an excellent reproduction of Hutton's photograph of Hutton.

The Poetry and Philosophy of George Meredith. By George Macaulay Trevelyan. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50 net.

Mr. Trevelyan's title is, perhaps, a trifle misleading. What he deals with is the "style" and the "content" of Meredith's poetry. Under the former head, to which he devotes the first two chapters, he remarks upon the following points, which he takes to be characteristic in this respect of his author: "The richness of his imagination; his use of metaphor as an appeal directed more to the mind than to the eyes and ears; the rapid succession of his metaphors; his compression; . . . the sleepless activity of his intellect; and, lastly, the haunting quality of his phrases." The discussion of these matters is not particularly rich or suggestive—it is rather what the rhetoricians would call "expansion"—with the exception of an excellent comparison of the Meredithian metaphor with the Elizabethan. The main interest of this part of the volume consists in copious quotations from "Modern Love" and "Love in the Valley"; for, however he contrives it, these poems, and particularly the former, do seem to gain something from the manner in which he sets them out. Perhaps his judicious abridgment has something to do with it. At the same time, in the case of Meredith, as of Browning, it is a great advantage to be told what a piece is about, before you read it.

From these same characteristics just referred to, Mr. Trevelyan derives the poet's chief failings too, his ruggedness and his obscurity. "My principal contentions have been that these faults are mostly due to the style, but occasionally to the subject matter." They are "the necessary price paid for those literary mer-

its which distinguish his work." Happy the critic nowadays who can make shortcomings appear as the defects of his author's qualities! His mission is accomplished. If a writer is crude or rough, it is due to his strength; if he is formless and chaotic, to his breadth of vision; obscure, to his profundity. "The army of human thought," says Mr. Trevelyan, "is advancing in two bands: one marches along the high road under the bright hard light of science; but the other is straggling into the dimmer shades of intricate psychology, into 'haunted woods,' the birthplace of new aspirations, prophecies, and religions, which can find no expression in dogmatic statements, but only in the inspired language of beauty, suggesting the undefined, and making the unseen felt. Mr. Meredith has long been a leader in this direction."

As for the exposition of Mr. Meredith's philosophy, it seems in some way much more tenuous and impalpable than what precedes—partly, no doubt, on account of the difficulty of reducing a poetry of adumbration to "dogmatic statements." "Mr. Meredith," his critic repeats, "is the inspired prophet of sanity." Perhaps so; but was ever sanity led so mad a dance? At all events, as Mr. Meredith is represented—whether rightly or not, it would take too long to decide—what is most conspicuous to the spectator is the grapple between the poet and the humanitarian. It may be that Mr. Trevelyan lays too much stress upon his author's socialism, what may be defined as his disposition to substitute the sense of society for his personal conscience. But in such a case the poet's only hope is in resistance; for either he or the humanitarian must go to the wall:

George Meredith is the most modern, although he is the oldest, of our living poets. Whenever he is not in touch with the common ideas of our age, it is more often because he is still in front, than because he has been left behind. In his spirit we find a synthesis of many crude elements of latter-day thought.

At least, such a text, if adequately expounded, would go far toward explaining the poet's unmistakable confusion and inconsequence.

Highways and Byways in Oxford and the Cotswolds. By Herbert A. Evans. With Illustrations by Frederick L. Griggs. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2.

There is no district in England better suited to the aims of the Highways and Byways Series than the Cotswolds of the shires of Oxford, Gloucester, and Worcester. They are almost unspoiled by the railway, and have remained pastoral; are, in fact, more pastoral now than in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when their cloth-mills were celebrated. The yellow or gray stone of which the Cotswold houses are built exactly suits that hilly country, and no counties in England are richer in Jacobean mullioned manor-houses, granges, priories, and abbeys. Too many of these have been converted into farmhouses or allowed to fall to ruin, but here and there they have come, of late years, into the hands of intelligent owners who, like William Morris and Kelmscott, have known how to restore and to pre-

serve all their charm. The Cotswold churches are often like small cathedrals, built in the days when the wool merchants, who made their fortunes there and built many of the great houses, counted it a pious duty to spend on the church what they had earned from the soil. Nearly all of these churches have been "restored" by overzealous parsons in the nineteenth century, and Mr. Evans has to lament, on almost every page, some act of vandalism which has filled the windows with vulgar "cathedral" glass of modern workmanship, or scraped the old mellow plaster from the walls. It was after seeing, in 1876, the alterations under the name of restoration going on in the beautiful Norman church of Burford, that William Morris founded the "Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings," better known as the "Anti-Scrape Society." Cotswold wheat and barley, like Cotswold wool, are famous, and H. Rider Haggard has admitted that the farmers in the Gloucestershire Cotswolds are better off than elsewhere in England, so that the Agricultural College of Cirencester, the Cotswold capital, with its four hundred acres for scientific farming, is happily placed. The wool merchants in the palmy days of the industry, before foreign growths had driven them almost out of the field, used to send the wool on long strings of pack-horses by the ancient trackways across the Berkshire, Hampshire, and Surrey downs—those deep and narrow tracks now half-grown over that to the casual visitor to the downs are so mysterious—to the Medway ports and thence to Calais, where the English staplers had their warehouses. Lately a Gloucestershire sheep farmer has invented a method of softening the native wool, and a cloth can now be produced from it as fine as from a Yorkshire loom, so that Cotswold cloth may again rank with the best.

Mr. Evans pursued the ways of the Cotswolds on a bicycle, with Oxford, which he describes in the first chapter, for starting point. The roads are good, but hilly, and are not likely to encourage motoring. Perhaps the chapter most interesting to American readers is that which covers the charming villages of the Worcestershire Cotswolds, Broadway (which in spite of its distance from the railway has become a favorite American resort in summer, since Mr. Abbey and Madame Navarro established themselves there); Willersey, its near neighbor; Weston, and Aston Subedge, and the rest, whose cottagers now depend mainly on fashionable summer visitors. In these books the illustrations play an equal part with the descriptive writing, and much of the antiquarian information supplied by Mr. Evans would be thrown away on the reader without the admirable sketches by Mr. Griggs. The volume is fully up to the rest of this charming series.

Music and Drama.

English Diction for Singers and Speakers.
By Louis Arthur Russell. Oliver Ditson Co.

Rousseau maintained that the French language was unsuited for music; but Gluck's way of using it made him change his mind. The English language is still

awaiting its Gluck, and pending his arrival singers continue to look down on it as quite unfit for their purpose. They will be surprised to hear the opinions of Mr. Russell on this point. The English language, he maintains, is proper enough. It is the vocalists who are at fault; they have not learned their lesson. As he recollects the great German, Italian, and French singers in attempts at English song and oratorio, made in this country and in England, he can only say that the effect of their vocalizing in English has been, almost without exception, ridiculous, even though these artists have had a good conversational English vocabulary, and a fair idea of English grammar. "From such exhibitions as these has come the theory that English is unsingable." But English is not unsingable. Artists like Charles Santley, Sims Reeves, Nellie Melba, Lillian Nordica, Lillian Blauvelt, are able to sing not only in several of what are considered the "music languages," using a pure diction; they can use the English language also musically. Why? Because they have taken pains to learn it. The French, German, and Italian artists have not done so; they are poor linguists; the various vowel sounds are not clear to them. Undoubtedly, the English language is more difficult to master, but it is worth the trouble, being better adapted to the requirements of expression, especially in the finer and more sensitive lines, than the other languages. "The singer who has mastered English may well laugh at him who can sing only in a simpler language, like Italian."

This doctrine will not please the proud Continental singers from abroad, but there is much truth in it. Successful vocalists are, and have to be, hard workers; yet the majority are indolent, and disinclined to learn more than is necessary. Heretofore their maltreatment of the English language—and the songs and oratorios written in it—has been commonly condoned on the ground that the language itself was more to blame than they; but they will have to turn over a new leaf and go to work again, if Mr. Russell establishes his point, which we think he does. He makes it clear that the difficulty of English is not due to the sounds in themselves, but to the *many sounds*, the closely allied vowel-colors, the finer shades, with which our language abounds. But all these can be taught without much difficulty, and Mr. Russell's attempt to teach them ought to attract the attention of singers and speakers. His book contains sections on pronunciation, vowels, diphthongs and diphthongal vowels, and consonants, while the last chapter is concerned with practical work. A few sentences may be added to illustrate the author's lucid way of driving home truths:

We put all possible voice in all consonants, *singing* them, as nearly as possible, taking all noise out of them that we can, yet never forgetting that they are consonants. We put as much vowel-character in them as we can, yet heeding the articulations.—When we have found the *place* of all the vowels and the consonants, their individual character and color; when the ear is well tuned in phonetics, and the mouth in quick responsiveness, we will find great delight in language, we will find our speech improving with our singing, and, if we properly continue in the work, we will sing well in spite of

voice limitations, for a good enunciation and smooth, precise articulation are the largest of the true singer's accomplishments.

Georges Jacobi, composer of the opera "The Black Crook," which had a run of more than 300 nights, and of "La Mariée depuis midi," written for Mme. Judic, and sung by her all over Europe, and of innumerable ballets, died last Thursday, at the age of sixty-six. He was born in Berlin on February 13, 1840, and at the age of six began the study of the violin under Edward and Leopold Ganz. In 1849 he went to Brussels as a pupil of De Bériot. He also studied at the Paris Conservatoire, where he gained a first prize for violin playing. He was in the orchestra of the Opéra Comique, the Grand Opéra, and the Bouffes Opéra. For more than twenty-five years he was conductor at the Alhambra in London. As a teacher he won a high reputation, and in 1896 he was made a professor at the Royal College of Music in London. He was twice elected president of the Association of Conductors in England, was an officer of the French Academy, and a Knight Commander of the Spanish Order of Isabel.

Otto Neitzel, the eminent Cologne critic, who is to give a series of lecture recitals in this country the coming season, is the author of the best book on France's greatest composer, Saint-Saëns, whom we shall also hear. It is published by the Harmonie Company in Berlin. Adolf Jullien's "Musiciens d'aujourd'hui" contains good articles on some of the works of Saint-Saëns, and Georges Servières has a charming study of the same composer in his "La musique française moderne." Saint-Saëns's own books are admirable specimens of musical criticism; especially his "Portraits et Souvenirs," which contains sympathetic articles on Berlioz, Gounod, Liszt, Massé, Rubinstein, Bizet, Wagnerism, "Don Giovanni," "The Musical Movement," and "Lyric Drama and Music Drama." In our own language the best essay on Saint-Saëns is that of Arthur Hervey in his "Masters of French Music" (pp. 107-172), published by the Scribners.

Nothing succeeds like sensationalism. Richard Strauss's "Salome" is to be produced this season even in Italy—at the Scala in Milan, under the direction of Toscanini. The manager of the Scala, Giulio Gatti-Casazza, heard the work at Cologne and promptly secured the performing rights.

The first critically revised edition of Beethoven's letters complete is announced by the publishers of *Die Musik*, Schuster & Loeffler, in Berlin. It will be issued in about 25 *Lieferungen* of 50 to 60 pages each.

There was probably more desire for advertisement than anxiety about British dramatic art at the bottom of the conduct of the London manager who tried to exclude three or four of the ablest dramatic critics from his first-night performances, on the ground that they took themselves too seriously, and failed to appreciate English acting at its real value. The notion that the worth of the modern actor is underestimated by the contemporary press is absurd. This fact was brought home to the manager in question by some

pointed comment, and he, thereupon, shifted his ground, falling back upon the old plea that it is practically impossible for a critic of a first-night performance to write a competent review for the next morning's paper, and that it is unfair, anyhow, to judge a piece by its first public performance. Undoubtedly, reviews could often be made more complete if the author had more time for reflection, but, on the other hand, a trained writer, having once formed his opinion, does not require a very long time to put it upon paper, with intelligibility at least, if not with elegance. If the critic's opinion is worthless, it will not be any the more precious when uttered in polished literary phrase. Regarding the artistic quality of a first public performance, as compared with that of a later representation, all depends upon circumstances. If the piece is produced prematurely, without adequate supervision or rehearsal, the interpretation of it certainly is likely to improve for some time to come. But a producing manager who is both able and conscientious would not raise his curtain for a public exhibition until he was satisfied that the performance was as perfect as rehearsal could make it. Assured of that fact, he would invite all the critics at the earliest possible moment, knowing that their presence would act like a tonic upon his actors. This is one of the commonplaces of theatrical experience. Moreover, the general public expects to get its report of a new play the morning after. Herein, of course, is the main reason why some managers reserve any seats at all for the critics. In no other way can they get so much of the cheap publicity which is the very breath of their commercial and "artistic" existence. That much of the so-called criticism which is printed is grossly incapable and unjust, as the London manager asserts, may be true, but the greater part of it is of that adulatory sort, of which no manager ever yet complained and of which the unsophisticated public is the chief victim.

Richard Mansfield will soon begin rehearsals for the production of Ibsen's "Peer Gyn" upon a scenic scale of great magnitude. There are fifty-one speaking persons in the cast, eleven scenes, a choir, two ballets, and a large number of supernumeraries. The music of Grieg will be one of the attractions of the performance.

E. S. Willard, one of the leaders of the English-speaking stage, will open his American season in Montreal on October 1 with Michael Morton's "Col. Newcome," the adaptation from Thackeray's masterpiece, which Beerbohm Tree presented with considerable success in London. Mr. Willard, in many of his impersonations, has demonstrated his ability to depict with exquisite veracity certain attributes—such as natural tenderness, fine simplicity, unconscious dignity, and a sweet old formal courtesy—which are essential to any recognizable portrait of Thackeray's hero. Therefore, whatever the quality of the play may be, his enactment of the Colonel cannot fail to excite the liveliest interest and sympathy.

The London critics are not particularly enthusiastic over the production of "The Winter's Tale" at His Majesty's Theatre in London, although it is plain that, as usual under Beerbohm Tree's management, every-

thing possible has been done for the play by the stage manager. Some of the scenes are described as very beautiful. It is plain that the performance was not brilliant enough to disguise the infirmities of the play. Miss Terry, never a good first-night actress, was more than commonly uncertain of her words as Hermione, though she did not fail to exercise her invariable charm and make her power felt.

Art.

This season's excavations by the French School of Athens at Delos have already resulted in discoveries of artistic importance. Six large archaic lions in marble, ornamenting an esplanade by the Sacred Lake, are a unique find in Greece. Several well-preserved houses have been brought to light in the quarter of the Theatre, and in one of them an inscription in perfect condition gives a precise date. There is a statue of the Muse Polyhymnia, with elaborately executed drapery, superior to the well-known Polyhymnia in the Berlin Museum, and like it probably a replica of the famous work of Philiskos of Rhodes. Quite as interesting is the superb head, larger than life, of Dionysios (Dionysos?) found in a newly excavated temple. This is announced as the finest figure found at Delos for fifteen years, and one of the finest known in Greece. A "treasure" of forty coins (tetradrachma, drachma, and subdivisions), found hidden beneath the base of a monument, is of interest to numismatists.

Alfred Stevens, once a painter of renown, old and paralytic for several years, has surprised the world by dying after it had forgotten that he was alive. The marine paintings, of which he was so proud, excellent and ancestral of recent art as they are, may not be remembered; but his fine ladies will be looked for as long as the Second French Empire interests mankind. The satin gowns, the crinoline, the cashmere shawls from India, drape his figures, whose postures and visible emotions live in his canvas as they do in the pages of Octave Feuillet. Between them and the present-day Parisiennes of Helleu there is a great gulf fixed; and it does not make those of us feel younger who had glimpses of that vanished society led by Empress Eugénie, still living. Was ever an epoch more abruptly ended, and now more remote, than the days of Marie Antoinette and Josephine? When the Second Empire Renaissance arrives, as it is sure to do with all its inartistic sumptuousness, then inspiration and copy will be sought from Alfred Stevens. By birth he was a Belgian, but a son of one of the great Napoleon's officers; and in 1870, when all his ideals were crumbling, he turned sharpshooter against the German destroyers of his Paris.

A large portion of the Asiatic collection of Lord Curzon of Kedleston, made by him in the course of his travels through the East during the last twenty years, and especially during the seven years from 1898 to 1905, when he was viceroy and governor-general of India, is now on view at the Bethnal Green Museum. The collection illustrates chiefly the art of India, Burma, Nepal, and Tibet, but specimens are also

included of the art productions of Turkey, Persia, Afghanistan, Siam, and China. It thus embraces in a single survey the majority of the countries on the mainland of Asia and presents a comprehensive picture of some at least of the principal artistic manufactures of the East. A number of exhibits in bronze, lacquer, cloisonné and porcelain were secured at the relief of Pekin in 1900.

The examples of the faience of Moustiers gathered together at the Colonial Exposition of Marseilles make a unique collection. According to Garnier, in his "Histoire de la Céramique," Moustiers, after Rouen and Nevers, was the most important centre for the manufacture of French faience. The period of the town's finest artistic output extends from the end of the seventeenth century to within a few years of the French Revolution, and the collection at Marseilles contains many excellent specimens by the greatest artists in this ware, the two Clérissys, Joseph Olerys, De Fouqué and Pol and Hyacinthe Roux.

A collection of works by the French sculptor, Puget, most of which had been either unknown or considered lost, has been offered to the museum of Marseilles by Emile Ricard, brother of the portrait painter, Gustave Ricard. This large collection includes sculptures, paintings, engravings, and sketches. The gift is timely, as a statue to Puget is about to be erected in Marseilles.

The house of Rubens in Antwerp is to be reconstructed just as it was three centuries ago. A museum will be installed in it, which will contain everything connected with the life of the great master that can be collected.

The special spring number of the *International Studio* is devoted to the Royal Institute of Painters in Water Colors, long known as "The New Society." The text includes a "History of the Institute," some account of its members, and a chronological list of the latter; while the illustrations consist of forty reproductions in color of the works of living and dead members. These one would judge to be faithful, and perhaps as many of them as could be expected are of really interesting and meritorious works of art. "Southwold from the Beach," by Tom Collier; "On the Downs, near Harting," by J. Aumonier; and "The Hayfield," by Claude Hayes, may be es-

pecially mentioned as vigorous and effective landscapes, while "April," by the late G. H. Boughton, is quite the best of the figure-pieces. It is noticeable that none of these bears the kind of aggressively poetical title which is as frequent here as in most collections of British art.

"The Ambones (pulpits) of Ravello and Salerno" is perhaps the most interesting article in the September *Burlington Magazine*. The author, J. Travenor-Perry, arrives at the conclusion that these gorgeous structures are "in all probability the production of Lombard artists, educated in the Greco-Roman school of Monte Cassino, and influenced largely in their designs by Saracenic workmen." This controverts a prevailing theory that the early classical revival in Italian sculpture derives from southern Italy. Sir Richard Holmes continues his series on English miniature painters with an article on that sterling artist of the Commonwealth and Restoration, Samuel Cooper. Prof. C. J. Holmes concludes his valuable survey of Rembrandt's etchings, dwelling this time upon such important pieces as "The Three Crosses," "Abraham's Sacrifice," and "Christ before the People." The American section is chiefly occupied by R. T. H. Halsey's account of the exhibition of Colonial American silver at Boston. It should open the eyes of Americans to the merit of a native art hitherto unduly neglected.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amadon, Alfred Mason. Atlas of Physiology. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$3.50 net.
 Anderson, Sir Robert. Sidelights on the Home Rule Movement. Dutton. \$3 net.
 Andreas and the Fates of the Apostles. Edited by George P. Krapp. Boston: Ginn & Co.
 Arnold's Sobrah and Rustum. Edited by W. P. Trent and W. T. Brewster. Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
 Aspinwall, Alicia. The Story of Marie de Rozel, Huguenot. Dutton. 75 cents net.
 Asser's Life of King Alfred. Translated by Albert S. Cook. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
 Baldwin, James Mark. Thought and Things, or Genetic Logic. Vol. I.: Functional Logic. Macmillan Co. \$2.75.
 Barine, Arvède. The Life of Alfred De Musset. Edwin C. Hill Co.
 Bashore, Harvey B. Outlines of Practical Sanitation. John Wiley & Sons. \$1.25 net.
 Beutenmüller, William. Manual of Butterflies and Moths.—Manual of American and European Insects. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 25 cents each.
 Brooks's Readers. Five Volumes. American Book Co.
 Browning. Selections by Robert M. Lovett. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
 Burrell, Joseph Dunn. A New Appraisal of Christian Science. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 60 cents net.
 Canfield, Dorothea F., and George R. Carpenter. Elementary Composition. Macmillan Co.
 Crocker, Francis B., and Schuyler S. Wheeler. The

Management of Electrical Machinery. D. Van Nostrand Co. \$1 net.
 De La Pasture, Mrs. Henry. A Toy Tragedy. Dutton. \$1.50.
 De Morgan, William. Joseph Vance. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50.
 Dickens's Tale of Two Cities. Edited by James W. Linn. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
 Dutton, Maude Barrows. Little Stories of France. American Book Co. 40 cents.
 Ellison, Edith Nicoll. A Child's Recollections of Tennyson. Dutton. \$1 net.
 Ewald, Carl. Two-Legs. Translated by Alexander T. De Mattos. Scribners. \$1.
 Franklin, Benjamin. His Life. Edited by D. H. Montgomery. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
 Garland, James S. New England Town Law. Boston: The Boston Book Co.
 Gaskell's Cranford. Edited by William E. Simonds. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
 Gould, S. Baring. A Book of the Rhine. Macmillan Co. \$2.
 Greenough, John James. The Origin of Supernatural Conceptions. Published by the author. \$1.25.
 Harben, Will N. Ann Boyd. Harpers. \$1.50.
 Hering, Henry A. The Burglar's Club. B. W. Dodge Co. \$1.25.
 Historical Greek Coins. Described by G. F. Hill. Macmillan Co. \$2.50.
 Holder, Charles F. Half Hours with Fishes, Reptiles, and Birds. American Book Co. 60 cents.
 Horne, Herman Harrell. The Psychological Principles of Education. Macmillan Co. \$1.75.
 Houghton, Louise Seymour. The Russian Grandmother's Wonder Tales. Scribners. \$1.50.
 Jones, J. William. Life and Letters of Robert Edward Lee. Neale Publishing Co. \$2.
 Kern, O. J. Among Country Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.25.
 Le Braz, Anatole. The Land of Pardons. Translated by Frances M. Gostling. Macmillan Co. \$2.
 Lockwood, Mary S. and Emily L. Sberwood. Story of the Records D. A. I. Washington, D. C.
 London, Jack. Moon-face. Macmillan. \$1.50.
 Lord, Elliot and others. The Italian in America. B. F. Buck & Co.
 Maine, Henry Sumner. Ancient Law. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.75 net.
 Martin, Percy F. Through Five Republics of South America. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$5 net.
 Mathews, Robert Valentine. The Song of the Pines. Edwin C. Hill Co.
 McCutcheon, George Barr. Jane Cable. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
 Milne, William J. Progressive Arithmetics. 3 vols. American Book Co.
 Newmarch, Rosa. Songs to a Singer. John Lane Co.
 Oher, Frederick A. De Soto. Harpers. \$1 net.
 Paine, Ralph D. The Story of Martin Coe. The Outing Publishing Co. \$1.50.
 Patton, John S. Jefferson Cabell and the University of Virginia. Neale Publishing Co. \$2.
 Pineyro, Enrique. Biografias Americanas. Paris: Garnier.
 Redesdale, Lord. The Greater Mission to Japan. Macmillan Co. \$1.75.
 Richards, William R. The Apostles' Creed in Modern Worship. Scribners. \$1 net.
 Sheedy, Morgan M. Briefs for Our Times. Thomas Whittaker. \$1 net.
 Stevenson, Robert Louis. Essays. Edited by William L. Phelps. Scribners.
 Still, Alfred. Polypbase Currents. Macmillan Co. \$2.50.
 Stylee, Edward Sydney. Trumpet and Flag. Putnam's. \$1.25 net.
 Swinburne's Selected Lyrical Poems. Harpers.
 Treves, Frederick. Highways and Byways in Dorset. Macmillan Co. \$2.
 Two-Hundredth Anniversary of the Birth of Benjamin Franklin. Printed by order of the Massachusetts General Court.
 Vachell, Horace A. The Face of Olay. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
 Venturi, A. Storia dell' Arte Italiana. Vols. III and IV. Milan: Hoepli.
 Vernon, William Warren. Readings on the Inferno of Dante. Second edition. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. \$4.
 Warwickshire. Painted by Frederick Whitehead. Described by Clive Holland. Macmillan Co. \$6.
 Whimsey Anthology, A. Collected by Carolyn Wells. Scribners.
 Wieland, G. R. American Fossil Cycads. Carnegie Institution.
 Woods, James Haughton. Practice and Science of Religion. Longmans. 80 cents net.

CABOT'S EVERYDAY ETHICS

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THE HEART THAT KNOWS

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 27, 1906.

The Week.

When Secretary Taft, the good-natured, the patient, throws up his hands and calls the behavior of the Palma Government "utterly disgusting," Americans will not go far wrong in echoing the phrase. If ever there was a case of political suicide, it is that of President Palma. And the worst of it is that, in his own self-destruction, he is dragging the Cuban republic to death along with him. And all for a strained punctilio that outdoes the most fantastic *pundonor* ever proudly but fatally insisted upon by a Spaniard, whether in fact or fiction. It is with a magnificent flourish that Palma declares he will surrender to the Americans, if need be, but that he will never consent to abdicate in order that a peaceful adjustment may be made by the Cuban people, and a government set up able to command their respect and obedience. One would think he was the heroic ruler of an adoring country. But what are the facts? Palma himself has admitted that his government had reached the extreme of inanition. He did so when he invited American sailors to land in his own capital. The insurgents were only twelve miles away, in ever increasing numbers, and it is evident that, but for the truce declared on President Roosevelt's initiative, they would have captured Havana before this, and chased Palma away. In view of Palma's attitude there is no evading the dispatch of an American military force adequate for the protection of life and property. This country has undertaken to guarantee that in Cuba, and if Cubans themselves have let the work fall to the earth, we must take it up. The one comfort in the "disgusting" situation is that the Administration has moved most reluctantly; has shown no desire except to aid the Cubans to restore their own shattered Government; and that the intervention, which we must now regard as an accomplished fact, was compelled, not by American greed, but by Cuban blindness and incapacity.

No one need be surprised at the recent outbreak in Atlanta. For six months politicians in all Georgia have been vying with each other in denouncing the negro. They have been conducting their primary campaign as if trying to free the State from a negro "reconstruction" government. During the same period, an apostle of lynching, John Temple Graves, has been making almost daily appeals for a mob murder.

For the killing of every negro accused of assault on a white woman his rival in base journalism, the *Atlanta News*, has offered \$1,000 reward. With all this has come a series of atrocious assaults by negroes on white women. That gave the excuse for an outburst as savage as any slaughter of Jews in Russia. When a murderous mob can take possession of one of the richest and largest cities of the South, it means the loosening of the fundamental bonds of civilization, the breakdown of government in city and State. Why talk of pacifying Cuba? Nothing that has happened there in the remotest degree approaches the Atlanta horror in its danger to the United States. Unfortunately, the world will condemn Atlanta without considering that it has honorable white residents who feel keenly the humiliation and dishonor. Three hundred of them met Sunday to consider how to stop the lawlessness and redeem the city. The business men know that all this retards the city's growth and injures its prosperity. Quite aside from the sickening horror they must feel at the outrages of the mob, they realize that lynching is a cure for nothing. There is but one remedy: the rigid enforcement of law and order.

Winston Churchill's New Hampshire canvass is one of the most remarkable events in the history of American politics. A young man with but the slightest political experience, he went into a boss-ridden and railroad-owned State, announced his candidacy for Governor, and conducted a campaign which at first amused but rapidly terrified the Republican managers; he compelled them to put his ideas into their platform, and failed to get the nomination by only a few votes. This is an extraordinary achievement. It shows the power of bold and honest leadership. Mr. Churchill may well say to the regular Republicans whom he came so near defeating: "You are in office, but I am in power." During the next year, he will be in a position to compel the party to keep the pledges which it made under duress. He will be a sort of "People's Lobby" of his own, to let New Hampshire know whether the pass-system is abolished, the railroad lobby shorn of its power, taxation reformed, and the direct primary granted. Failing to secure these reforms, Mr. Churchill will be able to press his candidacy again and irresistibly. Even as it is, the flashing of his Carvel sword has put the enemy to flight, infused a new spirit into New Hampshire politics, and cheered on those who are fighting the same battle elsewhere. The brilliant exploit of this amateur in politics gives the lie to those

who assert that in the political world all is flat, stale, weary, and unprofitable.

"The advances in forest work have been so great in particular lines and so general throughout the country," writes Quincy R. Craft in the new Year-Book of the Department of Agriculture, "that forestry has obviously passed out of the stage of preparation and propaganda into that of actual work." It is, indeed, a remarkable record of accomplishment which has been made in the first year since the national forest reserves were transferred to the control of the Department of Agriculture. The maintenance of these reserves being the chief feature of our forest policy, their surprisingly rapid growth of late should rightly be set down as the most important single development. The total acreage of land reserved, actually increased by more than one-half in a single year. From 63,045,797 acres on January 1, 1905, the reserve area rose to 97,773,617 acres on December 31. This is a larger area than that of any State in the Union except Texas and California. But even this is not all, for the several States have begun to cooperate in the work of creating reserves. Fourteen now maintain officials specifically and solely charged with their forest interests; six employ trained foresters. In those for which figures are given in the bulletin already quoted, some 2,549,500 acres are already set aside for forest purposes. Large as they are, the existing reserves, so greatly increased through President Roosevelt's interest in forest questions, are inadequate for the needs of the future. "Reforestation," said the president of the American Forestry Association last year, "is the coming work of the American forester. We are now planting thousands of acres of trees every year, but it isn't enough." Along lines of educational and experimental work valuable results have already been obtained. Uses have been discovered for new woods formerly considered of small value, like loblolly pine, red-gum, and lodgepole pine. By the employment of preservatives lumber from inexpensive and quick-growing trees is being adapted to needs for which slow-growing hard woods were demanded a few years ago. Thus there is scarcely an element of the forest problem affecting which substantial and encouraging results are not already secured.

The launching of three great ships in England last week calls attention afresh to that country's supremacy in shipbuilding. Not only in originality and in thoroughness of construction, but in speed, the English lead the world. But

Americans cannot go over to England and buy ships unless they are prepared to sail them under foreign flags; there is not even a high duty, payment of which would enable an American to register his ship under his own flag. The sole exception to this rule is the millionaire yacht-owner, who can buy the latest product of the English shipyards and get an American registry for it without question, while the man who needs a perhaps less expensive craft for trade purposes is barred out in the hope that, rather than have no ship at all, he will pay the American builder 30 or 40 per cent. more. The result is in most cases that the American shipping man turns his attention to other matters, or sails his craft under the English or Norwegian flag. The Atlantic Transport Line was long and still is a case in point, for its English steamers are largely owned by American capitalists. In the case of the new *Mauretania*, the British Government has aided the Cunard Company by a large subsidy in order to have the use of the steamer in war-time. In the main, however, England's great merchant fleet has been created without Government aid, and the same is also true of the German merchant marine. Yet the proud, independent American will again be told next winter that we cannot have a fleet unless Uncle Sam subsidizes the ship-owners. Even the report of the subsidy committee, however, admitted that if we could "standardize" the building of ocean steamers, as we have that of lake craft, we could compete with the English.

The report that the elaborate Japanese "tea ceremonies" are being introduced at American country-places comes almost simultaneously with the announcement that tea culture in this country has passed its experimental stage. In the current number of the *Review of Reviews*, Dr. Rodney H. True summarizes the history and present status of tea-culture in America as developed by private enterprise in coöperation with the Department of Agriculture. What has been demonstrated is that from the soil of the Southern States can be produced an excellent grade of tea with "a characteristic quality in the flavor." On the commercial side, the problem is more doubtful. Tea-picking has to be done by hand, and it is here that the question of labor becomes important. "It has been demonstrated that the South Carolina trained negro boy or girl can more than equal the performance of the average picker in the Orient. . . . His wages may be higher than those of the Oriental laborer, who receives perhaps only ten cents a day, but his ability to accomplish results, when properly supervised, is correspondingly high." Last year, out of

some 60,000 tons of tea consumed in this country, less than six were American grown. The infant industry has not yet reached the stage of lobbying for a protective tariff; but it seems to be in a state of exceptional promise.

The first burning issue to arise under the Pure Food law, as is fitting, does not relate to food at all, but to drink. It is, in a word, whether whiskey made by mixing together plain alcohol, water, flavoring and coloring matter, "beading oil," and a decoction which makes it taste ten years old or more, is to be labelled "imitation" or "blended." The contention of the attorney who represents the manufacturers of this class of product before the Federal Commissioners was foreshadowed months ago. No sooner did it appear likely that the Hepburn bill would pass than this office began to receive arguments in pamphlet form from makers of whiskey "blended" or "imitated," as the case may be. The arguments were in effect that most commercial whiskey is made in the way described; that even old-style pot-still whiskey is artificially flavored and colored by being set away in charred oak barrels, and that, on grounds of honesty and common sense alike, any beverage which looks like whiskey, tastes like whiskey, has the same chemical and physiological properties as whiskey is whiskey, whether it takes ten years or ten minutes to produce it. It seems to be accepted by all that the label is somehow to differentiate the concocted product from the old kind. But whether the polite "blend" or the contemptuous "imitation" is to be the distinguishing term remains to be decided. If, as some prophets assert, the food of future generations is to be made by synthetic chemistry, this may be the beginning of a series of really epoch-making rulings.

The popular vote which has forbidden the sale of absinthe in the Swiss canton of Vaud is in the line of well-conducted temperance reform. It is believed that the other cantons will follow this example. Absinthe, it need hardly be recalled, ministers both to the ordinary alcoholic craving and to a drug habit peculiarly disastrous to the brain. Thousands of people, to be sure, drink it in great moderation, at the traditional "green hour" only; for the unfortunates who drink it freely, insanity of some sort is in store. The Swiss are showing themselves canny folk when they manufacture the stuff for those who don't know better than to use it, but forbid their own mountain people to touch it. This legislation, as we have said, is of the modern sort, recognizing the different degrees of harmfulness in the various liquors. It makes our whole-hearted Yankee way of proscribing as "rum"

everything from a light wine to absinthe itself, look amazingly crude.

Without formally approving the assassination of Gen. Minn, Prince Kropotkin spreads the slain man's record in the *London Times*. His suppression of the Moscow rioting appears as of so brutal a sort that his removal seems less an act of vengeance than of human instinct. The orders given to his regiment ended with these "general indications: not to have prisoners, and to act pitilessly"—directions which were followed to the letter. When the soldiers reached Golutvino station they arrested all the bystanders, twenty-two in number. At dusk these innocent prisoners were marched off to a remote part of the station, shot from behind as they chatted unsuspectingly, their bodies loaded into a car, and buried in a common grave next morning. At Pérovo station, Gen. Minn's regiment, without a word of warning, shot into a crowd of hungry peasants who had begun to loot the grain cars. Over fifty were killed. Among the individual prisoners at other points, many were "marched to the left" according to a secret list and bayoneted summarily. This was done without the court-martial required in Russia, even when military law suspends the code. Of these victims several had orders of release in regular form. The pitiful instance is recorded of a mother who after some anxious days "received the student uniform of her son pierced by fourteen bullet holes and one bayonet thrust—and his order of release." Repression is rough business at best, but such a story, told tranquilly and supported by indubitable evidence, at least explains the mental attitude of the terrorists, and interprets the dispatch of Tuesday which says that many high Russian officials are breaking down under the strain of the duties they have to perform and the nemesis they hourly expect.

The French bishops have submitted to the authority of the Pope and voted against compliance with the Separation law. For this action they offer the technically correct explanation that the Concordat—a contract between France and the Vatican—was abrogated without consultation with the Pope. Thus the head of the Church has been wounded in his dignity and is not bound to recognize any reorganization of the Gallican Church made without his consent. While in full sympathy with this view, we feel also that the terms of the Separation act are more vexatious than oppressive, and that the part of good sense would be to conform to it. It need hardly be recalled that this was the opinion of the French bishops in May. They have taken the other attitude in obedi-

ence to the Papal authority, not out of personal conviction. It appears, then, that early in December the French Catholics will gradually be dispossessed of their churches. Nothing like an actual persecution of the cult is possible, for under the ordinary law the faithful may meet for purposes of worship on simply notifying the local authorities of each meeting. It does not make matters any more comfortable for the Government that the Free Masons are publicly planning to make the churches over into "temples." In fact, the obduracy of the Church, being totally unprovided for, will be a source of considerable embarrassment, and it is possible that some slight modification of the Separation act may yet save the *amour propre* of the Vatican. Going to Canossa is, after all, not so dire a pilgrimage, Vicomte de Mun recently pointed out, when it only means chatting with a Papal legate, say, at Fontainebleau.

A comparison of the final weights of the Harvard and Cambridge crews discloses a fact which may have much significance. When the crews began practice, the American oarsmen were considerably heavier than their opponents, as much as six or seven pounds per man; and their superiority in this respect was thought by many to give them a decided advantage, other things being equal. On the morning of the contest, however, this disparity in weight had almost entirely disappeared. During the last days of training, both crews grew slightly heavier, but the Englishmen gained most, for when the starting gun was fired their collective weight was only six pounds less than that of their antagonists. Plainly, then, the Americans were trained more "finely" than their rivals, and the question at once suggests itself whether a fatal mistake may not have been made in this particular. There were critics, including Vivian Nickals and other prominent English oarsmen, who asserted, with much repetition, that the Cambridge crew had not been exercised sufficiently, that they had never been "rowed out" in practice, and that they would not last the course. The event put an end to all such complaints, but does not preclude the suspicion that the American professional coach, Wray, may have fallen into the error which the English amateur, Muttelbury, skilfully avoided. If the Harvard men were a trifle stale, it would not be necessary to seek any other reason for their defeat. English oarsmen have always thought that Americans were likely to be over-zealous in their training.

The miniature scale of the recently erected Dürer monument at Nuremberg provokes a French journalist to reflec-

tion on the abuse of monumental sculpture. The statues, he feels, become embarrassing both from their number and their inhuman isolation. They stand blankly, cut off our view, and, as it were, look down upon us. With small statuary in public places the case is different; it meets us on our own level, and we establish a certain intimacy with it. Our critic likes to recall, for example, the small Dürer in bronze as a kind of patron and playfellow of the children who frequent the fountain at its base. The practice of nations who have had great sculpture, the Greeks, the Italians of the Renaissance, the masters of Gothic France, bear out this criticism. At the high periods of sculpture there has always been a good deal of what may be called a sub-monumental kind. The habit of cluttering the streets with heroic sculpture savors of Rome and the decadence of the antique. In any case, much of our public statuary sins in scale, and much of it would actually be more effective if of smaller dimensions. Let any art-lover ask himself how often and how intently he looks at the sculptures on the front of St. Bartholomew's Church in this city, and how often at any one of the gesticulating gentlemen in bronze before which the cars whisk him daily. The query may suggest that, while neither bigness nor littleness is in itself an admirable quality, our city, like the rest, has in evidence far too much nugatory bigness.

The late Hermann Zumpe, who came near being Anton Seidl's successor at our Metropolitan Opera House, once wrote from Madrid, where he repeatedly conducted series of concerts and operatic performances, that he believed the best way to wean the men of Spain from the love of bull-fights was to make musical enthusiasts of them. Thus he would tempt them to spend their time and money in concert-halls and opera houses instead of in the Plaza de Toros. The enthusiasm he aroused with his Wagnerian performances naturally suggested to his mind this solution of a serious national problem. Doubtless, he was too sanguine; yet his plan prompts the general question, Is not such a source of keen and lasting pleasure worth cultivating by all men as well as by women? Men of letters, like Dr. Johnson or Mr. Burroughs, may speak of music condescendingly as a "purely sensuous" art; but its devotees know that it is infinitely more—that it involves the feelings and the intellect as much as any other art does, or any phase of mental activity. Think of Remenyi being forbidden by the Austrian Government to play Magyar patriotic airs in the villages of Hungary in 1848; think of the heads of the Catholic Church attributing the success of the Lutheran movement chief-

ly to the innovation of allowing the congregation to take part in the singing of hymns; think of the indispensable rôle music plays at all social functions, at all sad or cheerful gatherings, from funerals to weddings, and it will be conceded that the habit most men have of looking on this art as a mere accomplishment, like dancing, is extremely foolish. Every professional or business man who has tried it long enough will concede that, next to sleep, nothing is so potent as music to lift the weary mind out of its ruts and bring it rest. A musical air may be as balmy as sea or mountain air, bracing the nerves for renewed efforts. Other arts rest the mind also, yet perhaps not so completely, for they are concerned with the world as we constantly see it, whereas music is a world of its own.

A correspondent of the *London Times* calls attention to the many neglected trout streams in Great Britain, meaning the smaller tributaries of well-known fishing rivers. These brooks are overlooked by the angler chiefly because the fish are small, a condition which can be easily remedied by building occasional small dams. In the ponds thus made the fish may lie in hot weather, and every such expanse of water is a catch-all for and actual producer of food for the trout. Such a policy, with proper stocking, would vastly increase the amount of fishing water available for the modest angler. These observations apply with considerable force on this side the Atlantic—not so much in the way of improving the smaller streams, which the American small boy—more enterprising than his British contemporary—annually fishes to death, but rather by way of suggesting the introduction of trout into waters now given over to coarser fish. Rather few waters are adapted to that fastidious aristocrat, our speckled trout, but the brown trout will thrive in almost any Northern stream not hopelessly polluted. He will even maintain himself against the perch and pike kind, but not for long against the omnivorous black bass. There are many streams which now afford only a negligible kind of mixed fishing that would provide tolerable trout fishing. Gradually, the riparian owners will realize, first, that they are neglecting a valuable utility; next, that, since the day of our splendid wilderness trout is passing, it is time to consider the claims of the trout of civilization, the river trout of Europe. It is not given to all of us to fish the lakes and streams of Canada, but a little thrift would provide plenty of fly-fishing within a hundred miles of New York. And with the brown trout will presumably come also such engaging sophistications as the dry-fly, which go far to compensate for a light basket at nightfall.

VOTING FOR PARTY.

"I advise young men to vote for parties, and not men," said Secretary Shaw at St. Louis the other day, "for parties stand for principles, and men do not always do so." This is a doctrine which we expect to hear preached by some one at pretty regular intervals, and certainly no one, at the present time, expounds it with quite so straight a face as Mr. Shaw. It has a stranger sound now, however, than of old, and affects the hearer like an echo of "The King can do no wrong," or "The sun do move."

The notion that the man simply revolves around the party may fairly be called the Ptolemaic hypothesis of politics, obstinately adhered to by its devotees in the face of a myriad of facts which go to overthrow it. The Secretary utters his solemn advice to the young men at a time when party regularity for its own sake is less esteemed than ever before in our history. Mr. Shaw himself sits at the Cabinet table once a week with a President for whose election millions of voters disregarded party loyalty altogether; and a fellow-secretary, Mr. Taft, was one of the chief factors in overthrowing Boss Cox of his own party in Cincinnati, and, incidentally, in electing a Democratic Governor of Ohio.

All over the country, the party break-ups of last year are in a fair way to be repeated. Never, it is safe to say, have there been so many independent candidacies for office in States and cities; never so many elections uncontested, or so many endorsements of independents by the party organizations. So manifest is the weakening of party discipline, with the old style of party loyalty, that some sage observers have predicted the actual dissolution of both the existing parties.

It is not necessary to accept that conclusion in order to point out that Mr. Shaw's advice is an anachronism. The typical figures in politics to-day are the group of reformers whose names are so often linked as almost to make the every-day citizen tired of hearing them called "the Just." But these men—Folk, Jerome, Weaver, La Follette, Colby, Churchill, et al.—without exception owe their present position to the flat disregard by both themselves and their constituents of the advice of partisans of the Shaw school.

While the preference for the man above the party has thus given the country its present leaders, what has the theory of thick-and-thin adherence the party to show for itself? Mainly, unfit men in office and a set of election laws calculated to fetter the voter who wants good men. The early nineties were the years of the ballot-reform movement. The best citizenship took up

this fundamental reform and forced the passage of ballot reform laws in most of the States. The greater number of these conformed to the principles of the Australian ballot. They placed all candidates for a given office on an equality. But the believers in "voting for the party" would not allow this condition to exist very long. The straight-ticket circle was invented, which made it easy to vote without looking at the names of candidates at all. The pictorial emblem was brought in to reduce mental effort still further. In John Fiske's "Civil Government," to illustrate, was pictured in 1892 the newly adopted Kansas ballot, without emblem or party circle, only a shade inferior to the Massachusetts style. But within a few years the politicians had added the emblem and party circle, coupled with rules to make independent voting very difficult. What happened in Kansas happened in about a third of the States which, at the instance of partisans of the Shaw school, deliberately abandoned good ballots for bad. Rhode Island in 1905 was the last to make the change. The early ballot reformers apparently did not see clearly enough the vital difference between forms externally similar and did not resist the distortion as they should have done. The ballot designed virtually to coerce the voter into becoming a strict partisan is thus the chief memorial of the school of political thinking to which Mr. Shaw clings.

It is in spite of this obstacle that political independence has made its wonderful advances in recent years. The American electorate has from the first shown great readiness to shift from one side to the other between elections. If "independence" be measured on this basis, there was as much or more displayed between the elections of Buchanan and Lincoln as between those of Garfield and Cleveland, or Cleveland and McKinley. But the habit of discriminating between candidates for different offices at the same election has been of slow growth. The general tendency to hold municipal elections in off-years or odd months was due largely to the extreme difficulty of making voters settle these contests without reference to State and national issues. State questions came up times without number on which the minority party had the popular side. Yet after a fight thus complicated, the vote for Governor and vote for Presidential electors were apt to correspond pretty closely. The choice of electors of one party and a Governor of the other, as in the case of Russell of Massachusetts, was more than a seven-years' wonder.

The breaking of the slavish habit of voting has been one of the finest achievements of the twentieth century. It has been computed that in the election of 1896 only .38 of 1 per cent. of the voters went to one party for a Governor

and to the other for a President, 1.22 per cent. in 1900, but 7.57 per cent. in 1904. This means, roughly, that the discriminating vote rose from 50,000 in 1896 and 150,000 in 1900 to more than 1,000,000 at the last national election. It is not an encouraging time that Mr. Shaw chooses for his appeal to young men to make of themselves hide-bound partisans.

THE LIFE-INSURANCE NOMINATIONS.

With the filing of the independent nominations for trustees of the Mutual and New York Life Insurance Companies, the experiment in control by the policyholders has fairly begun. There has been an impression, since misunderstanding or disagreement in the policyholders' committee became public, that the plan of opposition nominations was somehow coming to grief. This is a mistaken inference. Bishop C. C. McCabe and Cardinal Gibbons withdrew from the committee for purely personal reasons. Cardinal Gibbons did, to be sure, make it plain that he was unwilling to be placed in an attitude of hostility towards certain of the administration nominees whom he happened to know and respect. This objection was not at all unnatural, especially in a dignity of the Church; but it has only the slightest bearing on the policyholders' cause.

No one denies that, on the administration tickets of both companies, men of the highest character and efficiency are named. This was, indeed, to be expected when the existing boards made special efforts to fill vacancies with precisely such men as should appeal to the confidence of policyholders. Among even the old trustees renominated on the administration ticket, there are names which warrant Cardinal Gibbons's dislike of personal warfare. Messrs. Orr, Fowler, and Claffin on the New York Life's official ticket, and Messrs. Clarke, Dickey, and Vanderbilt on the Mutual's, are examples of candidates who on personal grounds are unobjectionable.

But the real question now at issue goes far beyond such considerations. The policyholders' vote of December 18 will serve two purposes. It will, first, test the usefulness of the elaborate machinery, constructed by the Armstrong committee to ensure a bona-fide vote by the real owners of insurance companies. Second, it will show the true feeling of the policyholders towards managements under which abuses and scandals were possible. Doubtless, the present managements of both companies are chastened and reformed. The practices of the McCall and McCurdy days have been definitely abandoned. Under the *ad interim* presidency of Mr. Orr, no

one would dream of the sleight-of-hand tricks with the New York Life's funds to which Mr. Perkins owned up; and while Mr. Peabody has made a feeble and tactless president for the Mutual, with Wall Street affiliations which are highly undesirable for one in his office, still there is no more of the "syndicating" on joint account with trustees, or malversation of funds in the political department.

All this is true; yet it is impossible, even for friends of the existing managements, to deny that the "administration" tickets will be taken as representing the former official control under which abuses had their rankest growth. The question remains whether the gentlemen who sat in the directorates with notorious offenders, and who must have been aware of what was the common talk of Wall Street, can now be freed from all responsibility, because of the reforms which they have made under duress. This is not the way of everyday business. We know of two trustees of these companies, both of them well-known men of affairs, who stated frankly to their own fellow-directors, in official meetings, that the entire board owed it to themselves and to the public to resign.

The plan of independent nominations can succeed only if the policyholders choose satisfactory candidates, and then shake off apathy and support them heartily. The first of these two steps has been well taken. Man for man, the policyholders' tickets filed for the New York Life and the Mutual are fully a match, in efficiency and personal standing, for the administration nominees. What most impresses the reader of these lists is the success of the nominators in securing men whose names and connections guarantee effective service; yet whose affiliations arouse none of those misgivings, always surrounding the old boards, as to what favors this director or that would demand for his private business. When one recalls the skepticism, commonly voiced a few months ago, as to whether competent candidates would ever be selected by opposition committees, this is a real achievement.

The final choice is now in the hands of the policyholders. They may sustain the administration, elect the opposition nominees, or select, if they prefer, such names as suit them from each ticket. Whatever the outcome, a contest and a genuine canvass will be the most wholesome of all the innovations resulting from the insurance troubles. The one result which would warrant discouragement would be a return of the policyholders to the indifference and apathy which made possible the repeated plundering of mutual life insurance companies.

THE DISAPPEARING EASTERN RUG.

Just as true Oriental rugs are disappearing from the market, numerous books and articles celebrate their requiem. Blessings, as usual, brighten as they take their flight. These authorities generally agree that there are more good antique rugs in America than in the entire Orient. Probably this is true, but a little inspection of the auction places where "priceless antiques" are glibly knocked down to imaginary bidders or of the great stores where Eastern rugs are sold without hugger-mugger, would show pretty clearly that the old ones are no longer in the market. They are on floors, unrecognized and unprized, and our boot heels are gradually grinding out the last vestiges of a beautiful art. Museums will tell of its richness to the future, but even they will fail to represent its infinite variety.

The art is perishing, like an immemorial oak, from the centre. A generation ago one might still pick up the marvellously fine weaves of Persia—old Sehna and Kirman. These splendid fabrics gave way to the cruder weavings, until they were replaced by the technically admirable but lifeless copies of today. Next, the true Turkish rugs disappeared. To-day one may occasionally buy an old Bergama or a sturdy Anatolian made by the back-country nomads; but these are absolutely the last of a great stock. Trans-Caucasia, Western Turkistan, Afghanistan, and Beluchistan long seemed inexhaustible sources of supply. But the Russian advance, or its influence, has everywhere introduced aniline dyes and hasty commercial methods of manufacture. For a matter of ten years it has paid to test every Caucasian rug with a wet finger; perhaps five years ago inferior examples began to displace the velvety weavings of Bokhara, and within a year or two even the Beluchistan rugs, the last resort of the poor but discerning amateur, have begun to go the way of the rest. About the only regions that produce rugs in any quantity up to the old standard are Mesopotamia—the Mosul rugs of excellent materials and workmanship, but without distinction in design; Kurdistan, and the Trans-Caspian wastes, where Turcoman nomads still make the so-called Yomut Bokharas. These forlorn survivors cannot last many years, and then the West will be measurably cast upon its own resources for superior floor coverings.

In some quarters the hope is expressed that the modern factory products of Asia Minor, Persia, and India may be brought up to the old standard, and it is true that fine carpets, substantial in weave, of true colors and more than passable design, come from these countries. It will probably be long before the West makes carpets of equal utilitarian or artistic merit. But these are

something quite other than Oriental rugs in the true sense. Even when of high technical merit, like the modern Kirman-shah or Tabriz weaves, they are made upon set copies, being lifeless tracings of traditional designs. The imperious demand of the West has at last exhausted the apparently unfailing inventiveness of the East, and the modern commercial rugs, however practicable, are no more Oriental than Vernis-Martin is fine Japanese lacquer. Moreover, these carpet rugs, even where the law, as in Persia, requires vegetable dyes, are for the most part artificially "aged" or bleached. This may be done without harm to the wool, but never without detriment to the rug. Probably some thousands of these doctored carpets are sold each year to people who at least hope that they are buying a valuable heirloom. Since genuine antiques of carpet size are hardly to be had, and when bought are worth at least their weight in silver, the people who buy ancient carpets from seventy-five dollars up deserve rather little sympathy.

Meantime the trade grows apace, and the West does double injury to the East, robbing it first of its fabrics and next of the taste that made them possible. The only hope of a rehabilitation of rug-weaving in Asia would be a marked cessation of the American and European demand. This cannot fairly be expected so long as even the commercialized products of the Orient are better and cheaper than any we produce here. But the gradual degeneration of the output of Asiatic looms affords an opportunity for the Western carpet manufacturer. It is an opportune time for him to appeal to the class that still buys Eastern rugs. A few years ago the competition was frankly hopeless; to-day that is no longer the case. Even on machine looms one need not despair of vying with the average small rugs of the modern East. Merely from the artistic point of view such a rivalry might teach the weavers of Trans-Caucasia and Turkistan that it was worth while to recover their former superiority.

For the collector, the disappearance of the antique rugs from the market affords opportunities. The old ones being so few, the average dealer regards them as a source not of profit, but of prestige. When found they may be bought at a trifling advance upon the usual price per foot—always excluding the high rarities of Persia and Asia Minor. But to find these few survivors of the gorgeous clan—there's the rub. Each "find" is acquired at the cost of many disappointments and hours of fruitless breathing of the Levantine dust, while the eye is offended by the glaring dyes of the German laboratories or the specious sheen bestowed by the rug "doctor." Only very patient and stalwart persons can be encouraged to engage in

the quest. These hardly need the hint to look first at the pile of long hall "runners." Not being generally available for the modern house, good antiques may still be had in this size at most reasonable prices. And—we whisper it, for the counsel savors of sacrilege—these long fellows can readily be cut down to working dimensions by the simple expedient of taking out their middles. But this should only be done with examples, not "too bright and good for human nature's daily food."

CONGRESS OF AMERICANISTS.

The fifteenth international congress of Americanists was held at Quebec September 10 to 16. Americanists are scholars whose field is the study of the American continent and the native American races. The geography, history, and ruins of America, the life and customs, languages and traditions, arts and industries of the aborigines were the subjects of addresses and discussions by students from all parts of the world. France, Germany, England, Mexico, the United States, and Canada were represented.

One of the most interesting addresses was delivered the first evening by Leopold Batres, the Mexican archaeologist, who has been excavating the ruins of an ancient civilization. Eighteen years ago there lay, some twenty-five miles from the City of Mexico, a group of mounds and two great hills covered with vegetation. To-day the mounds have given place to ruined houses and temples; and where the hills were, now stand two pyramids, one of which is larger than Cheops in Egypt. A whole city has emerged from its burial of countless centuries. This city is called Teotihuacan, an arbitrary name, meaning "the place of God." A great avenue runs through the city and connects the two pyramids. On each side were buildings with courts, vestibules, and peristyles, adorned with frescoes and sculpture. Teotihuacan must have come to its death by violence, for the buildings are in ruins, the pillars and statues broken, and everything scarred by fire. The giant pyramids are thought to be temples. For this work of excavation the Mexican Government has appropriated \$1,500,000—a sharp contrast to the indifference of the United States towards its inheritance of antiquity.

Dr. Franz Boas of Columbia University argued for more extended archaeological and ethnological research in Canada, particularly in the field of Indian languages. The study of the native tongues, he holds, furnishes the key to knowledge of the distribution of population and diffusion of culture. Unless work is carried on speedily, the time for it will have passed.

The Indian of the future was considered in three papers which outlined a plea for the resuscitation and development of all that is of value in the Indian as an Indian. Mrs. Osgood Mason of New York spoke of the Indian's creative faculty and his skill in phases of art activity. She urged that in educating the Indian this native genius be fostered, instead of arbitrarily crushed; and that the development of his art industries would make of the Indian a useful factor in civilization. Mrs.

Mason affirmed that as decorators and designers, as workers in metal, wood, and glass, our aborigines could occupy the place now held by foreign immigrants.

Mrs. Mason's address was followed by two examples of the effort to encourage native talent—that of Miss Angel De Cora in the field of Indian art, and of Miss Natalie Curtis in Indian music. Miss De Cora is of the Winnebago tribe and is possibly the first of her race to address the Americanists. Although cultivated in the white man's ways, she exemplifies the gifts of her race. She is a skilled artist, and has worked in illustration and designing, in wood carving and in plaster, and has also painted pictures. Last year the present commissioner of Indian affairs, Francis E. Leupp, asked her to become art instructor at the Carlisle Indian School. She accepted the appointment with the purpose of developing native art in all its branches, and of applying it to various industries. This step marks a new departure in the education of the Indian, and Miss De Cora may fairly be regarded as a pioneer. She showed a number of designs made by the Indian boys and girls.

Miss Curtis then gave some examples of songs of the Indians, collected by her from all parts of the United States. She maintained that in the poetry and music of the aborigines, no less than in the pictorial art, lay a great gift to the civilized world. The whole unwritten literature of a race is embodied in the music and ritual of the Indian.

Professor Seler of the University of Berlin and Dr. Gordon of the University of Pennsylvania discussed phases of the art of ancient America.

Correspondence.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL BILLS PASSED BY CONGRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Three bills of no slight importance for the promotion of archaeological studies were passed at the last session of Congress: an act incorporating the Archaeological Institute of America, approved May 26; an act for the preservation of American Antiquities, approved June 8; and an act creating the Mesa Verde National Park, in Colorado, approved June 29.

The Archaeological Institute of America was founded in the year 1879, by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton and others in Boston. Its purpose is to promote archaeological research, by aiding in the maintenance of schools for archaeological study in Athens, Rome, and Palestine; by maintaining fellowships in American archaeology and in mediæval and Renaissance studies; by sending out expeditions for special investigations; by publishing the results of exploration and research; by holding general meetings, and by offering free public lectures. The activities of the Institute have thus far been extended to five fields of archaeological interest—Greek, Roman, Oriental, American, and the Italian Renaissance. The school in Athens was established in 1881, that in Rome in 1895; the school in Jerusalem was founded in 1900. The number of affiliated societies of the Institute is now twenty-one, comprising a

membership of nearly 2,000 persons. Eight of the societies are in the Atlantic States, eight in the Central States, and five in the Western States. The extension of the Institute's work, and the need of making permanent provision for its financial support, rendered incorporation important, while in view of the scope of its undertakings and the geographical distribution of its membership, incorporation as a national rather than as a State institution was desirable. The Institute hereafter will have an office in Washington, but the organization which has been found to be well adapted to its work is retained. Its government continues to be vested in a council consisting of ex-officio members and additional councillors chosen by the affiliated societies. It is authorized to hold property "to an amount not to exceed \$1,000,000." The beginnings of an endowment have been made by the funding of life memberships, and it is hoped that there will soon be large additions.

The approval of the act for the preservation of American antiquities marks the culmination of a long series of efforts to bring the policy of the United States in this respect into line with that of other enlightened nations. Before 1905 several bills for the protection of prehistoric remains were introduced, but were rejected as inequitable or defective on the legal side, or as presumably opening the way for the withdrawal from entry of an undue portion of the public lands desirable for settlement. Meanwhile, the ruthless destruction of ancient landmarks and archaeological remains on Government land by relic-hunters, commercial excavators, and ranchers, particularly in the Southwest, went on practically unchecked; isolated instances of protection, as that of the Casa Grande in Arizona, only served to accentuate the irretrievable loss to science occasioned by the unrestrained harrying of less favored sites.

At the meeting of the council of the Institute in May, 1904, a large and representative committee was formed to take into consideration the whole subject of national legislation for the preservation of antiquities. This committee, of which the president of the Institute, Prof. Thomas Day Seymour of Yale University, was chairman, met in St. Louis in the following September. Under its auspices representatives of the Institute and of the American Anthropological Association held conferences in Washington in January, 1905, and agreed upon a measure. That particular bill did not pass, but the present law, which had in advance the approval not only of the committees of the Institute and of the Anthropological Association, but also of the heads of the Government departments concerned, is simpler and in several respects more satisfactory. The provisions of the act are sufficiently liberal without being exposed to the danger of loose construction. The first section prescribes a penalty for the collection or destruction of antiquities upon the public lands "without the permission of the secretary of the department of the Government having jurisdiction over the lands on which said antiquities are situated." The second section is far-reaching in its application. The President of the United States is authorized to declare by public proclamation historic

landmarks, historic and prehistoric structures, and other objects of historic or scientific interest that are situated upon the lands owned or controlled by the Government of the United States to be national monuments, and he "may reserve as a part thereof suitable parcels of land."

It will be noticed that the reservation of parcels of public land from entry is not limited to areas containing prehistoric remains; "historic structures" are included, as are also objects "of scientific interest," such as a natural bridge or a petrified forest. And the way is made easy to transfer to national ownership and keeping such structures and objects of interest now in private ownership as it shall seem worth while for the Government to accept and protect. The Bureau of American Ethnology is understood to be already preparing data to be submitted to the Interior Department for guidance in withdrawing from entry as soon as practicable the sites on the public lands which contain the most important archaeological remains.

The remaining section of the act deals with the difficult question of granting permission to conduct archaeological excavations upon lands owned by the Government. Some members of Congress and Government officials at first favored the limiting of such excavation to the Government's own initiative, but the view of the archaeologists prevailed. These, including W. H. Holmes, chief of the Bureau of American Ethnology, which is more directly concerned with the matter than any other bureau, were unanimous in advocating a more generous policy, which should serve the public interest by granting the right to excavate, under suitable restrictions, to properly accredited scientific institutions, thus making possible the formation of collections of antiquities for "reputable museums, universities, colleges or other recognized scientific or educational institutions," all gatherings of antiquities to be made "for permanent preservation in public museums." Commercial excavation on public lands of the United States will soon be, if it is not already, a thing of the past.

The Mesa Verde National Park, set aside for the preservation of its cliff dwellings, comprises a strip of land along the Mancos River, in southwestern Colorado. It is fourteen and a half miles long, and contains 65.5 square miles. The most important cliff dwellings of the region are not in the park itself, but on lands belonging to the Indians, near the edge of the southern Ute Indian Reservation, which adjoins it on the south. As the Indians cannot be dispossessed of their land, the protection of these monuments is assured by a provision of the act which places under the custodianship of the secretary of the interior all prehistoric ruins that are situated "on Indian lands" within five miles of the boundaries of the park, these to be "administered by the same service that is established for the custodianship of the park." The creation of the Mesa Verde Park is in direct response to praiseworthy efforts of public-spirited women of Colorado. The act creating the park contains no provision for the care of it or for the granting of concessions to hotel-keepers and others whose services are necessary for the accommodation of tourists; but this

defect can easily be remedied by supplementary legislation.

FRANCIS W. KELSEY.

Ann Arbor, Mich., September 15.

THE "HONOR SYSTEM" IN COLLEGE. TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your interesting review of Professor Paulsen's "German Universities and University Study," in the *Nation* of September 6, you say: "[He] cites the well-known fact that there is no rowdiness in a classroom (would that we Americans could say as much!)."

The words in parenthesis, so far as they are true, should be humiliating to "us Americans." To a very large degree "we Americans" can say as much. Throughout the South, I think, it can be said.

I have been for more than forty years a professor (for more than fifty years a teacher) in several colleges and universities of the South, and, with a single exception, I have never seen "rowdiness in a classroom." That exception was in an institution under military discipline, and rather proves than refutes what I am about to say. Absolute good order and perfect respectfulness in the classroom—and not only in the classroom, but everywhere in intercourse with professors—is, I believe, the unvarying usage of students in all Southern colleges. In support of this statement, I think I can unhesitatingly appeal to the testimony of my colleagues throughout the South.

A few years ago a distinguished gentleman from Boston—whose name would be known to all readers of the *Nation*—visited me here. I was just conducting the final (written) examination of a large class. He expressed a desire to visit the library:

I said: "I will go with you."

"But," said he, "how can you leave your class in examination?"

"With perfect safety," I answered; "the class itself is my police—more perfect than any I could establish. The least attempt at dishonesty would be detected and punished."

So I went with him for an hour, and then returned to my classroom. During our walk he said: "I see you have a large class; how do you keep order in the classroom?"

I said: "You might as well ask how I keep order in my own parlor. These young men would as soon be guilty of misconduct there as in my classroom. The thought of 'keeping order' never occurs to me. *Order keeps itself!*"

My good friend, whose personal experience had been so different, was astonished, and asked: "How can this be?" I answered, with some detail, what I will here say only in brief: It is simply one of the results of the honor system, which is traditional in Southern colleges.

This "honor system"—so often misunderstood—is the very foundation of Southern college life. It applies not only to honesty in examination, but everywhere, to all intercourse between students and professors. It means simply: A student is a gentleman; a professor is a gentleman; the intercourse between them should be, always and everywhere, as between gentlemen. With this traditional sentiment, recognized by all students and by all professors, mutual de-

ceit or distrust becomes impossible. The student body becomes the watchful guardian of student honor, and this "code" elevates and refines all intercourse between students and professors.

With such convictions, based on an experience of college teaching since 1853, it is with positive grief that I read the arguments of such men as Dean Briggs of Harvard, and of President Andrews of Nebraska, expressing distrust of the "honor system" in colleges. They do not trust it because they have not tried it *with faith*. Without faith it need not be tried at all. But it is better to trust and be deceived, even again and again, than to impair that confidence which is the only true and safe basis of college life, as of business life.

EDWARD S. JOYNES.

University of South Carolina, September, 1906.

Notes.

The John Lane Company is issuing from the Bodley Head a new batch of verse, including several volumes of reprints. In the list are a complete collection of the poems of William Watson, edited by J. A. Spender; "The Book of Indian Love," a posthumous collection by Laurence Hope; the collected poems of Ernest Dowson, with a memoir by Arthur Symonds; "Peace and Other Poems," by Arthur C. Benson; "Love's Journey," by Ethel Clifford; "Musa Verticordia," by Francis Coultts; selected poems of John Davidson; Alice Meynell's later poems; poems of John Henry Newman, edited by Frederic Chapman; "Underneath the Bough," an anthology by Theodora Thompson; and "The Cloud Kingdom," a book of bird song, by J. Henry Wallis.

The American Unitarian Association announces for early publication "Four American Leaders," by President Charles W. Eliot. The book consists of essays on Franklin, Washington, Channing, and Emerson. The Association will also publish "Life's Enthusiasms," by President David Starr Jordan; "Father Taylor"—founder of the Seamen's Bethel in Boston—by Robert Collyer; "Cap'n Chadwick: Marblehead Skipper and Shoemaker," by the Rev. John White Chadwick; and "The Message of Man," a "collection of ethical scriptures," edited by Stanton Coit.

The Frederick A. Stokes Company announces for autumn publication "Decorative Styles and Periods," by Helen Churchill Candee; "Chats on Old Prints," by Arthur Hayden; "Betterment, Individual, Social, and Industrial," by E. Wake Cook; "The Making of a Housewife," by Isabel Gordon Curtis; "Tibet, the Mysterious," by Sir Thomas Holdick; and "The Collector's Manual," a guide for collectors of antiques, by N. Hudson Moore.

Doubleday, Page & Co. publish this week "Crumbs and His Time," by Dolores Bacon; "Set in Authority," by Mrs. Everard Cotes; "The Arab Horse," by Spencer Borden; "Farm Animals," by E. V. Wilcox; "Confessions to a Heathen Idol," by Marian Lee; "The Cynic's Word Book," by Ambrose Bierce, and a reprint of "They," by Rudyard Kipling.

Small, Maynard & Co. will bring out shortly "The Nibelungenlied," translated by John Storer Cobb. The firm will also

issue "Latter-Day Love Sonnets," an anthology by Laurens Maynard; and "Intimations of Immortality," a volume of selections by Helen P. Patten, divided into such sections as "The Testimony of the Ancients," "From the Bibles of Humanity," "The Speculations of Philosophy," "The Voice of the Church," "The Deductions of Science," "The Vision of the Poet."

The Fleming H. Revell Company announces for October, "On the Trail of the Immigrant," by Edward A. Steiner; "The Missionaries and Their Critics," by Dr. J. L. Barton; and "Listening to God," a volume of sermons by the Rev. Hugh Black, who comes from Edinburgh to the professorship of practical theology in Union Seminary, New York.

"From Things to God," a volume of sermons by the Right Rev. David H. Greer, D.D., bishop coadjutor of New York, preached while rector of St. Bartholomew's Church, New York, will be reissued by Thomas Whittaker, in a new and popular form in "Whittaker's Sermon Library."

An autobiography of Field-Marshal Sir Evelyn Wood, "From Midshipman to Field-Marshal," will soon be published by Methuen & Co. Sir Evelyn Wood served with the Naval Brigade in the Crimea; he won his Victoria Cross in India; he fought in Ashanti, Zululand, and the Cape; he occupied a prominent place in the Boer war of 1881 and in the Gordon Relief Expedition of 1884-85. Finally, he commanded at Aldershot, and afterwards became quartermaster-general and adjutant-general.

A book by Commander J. W. Gambier, R.N., entitled "Links in my Life on Land and Sea" is just published by Unwin. Capt. Gambier was correspondent of the London *Times* in the Russo-Turkish war.

"The Life of Sir Henry Vane, the Younger, with a History of the Events of His Time"; his sojourn in New England and governorship of Massachusetts, his return to England, and his life under the Protectorate and Restoration, his trial and execution, by Dr. William W. Ireland of Edinburgh, will be published immediately by E. P. Dutton & Co.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will have ready in a few days a novel by C. J. Cutcliffe Hyne, "The Trials of Commander McTurk."

The *National Geographic Magazine* for September opens with an account, by R. H. Chapman of the Geological Survey, of his experiences in the Nevada deserts and Death Valley, while engaged in making a reconnaissance of an unmapped region, which is, however, being rapidly developed by miners and railroads. In a discussion of the leading questions of Oriental politics, the Hon. E. Hioki, Japanese chargé d'affaires, dwells upon the Anglo-Japanese alliance as a guarantee for peace and pleads for an industrial and commercial alliance between the United States and Japan. He believes that, with the opportunities in Korea and Manchuria, Japanese immigration to the United States will considerably decrease in the future. Among the other contents is the substance of Senator Warren's speech on the animal wealth of the United States, and Sir Wilfrid Laurier's address on the forests of Canada, in which he advocates the creation of preserves and the adoption of the German system of forest

patrol and reforestation. An abstract is given of Prof. K. Mitsukuri's account of the cultivation of marine and fresh water animals in Japan. The illustrations are numerous and very interesting, and there is a map of the Death Valley region.

An interesting description of Seistan is given in the *Geographical Journal* for September by Col. Sir H. McMahon, the head of the commission appointed to arbitrate the boundary and water disputes between Persia and Afghanistan. From its fertile soil and abundance of water it is a second Egypt; and though now sparsely settled, nowhere else in the world, he affirms, are there so many ruins, from shapeless mounds to high imposing structures of great size. The singular problem of the relation of the Helmand and the other rivers to the Seistan basin, which has sunk some 400 feet in geologic times, he solves by the supposition that this lowering of level is caused by the weight of the enormous amount of silt annually deposited by the floods. The region is remarkable also from the wind which, beginning at the end of May, blows unceasingly, with a violence sometimes reaching seventy miles an hour, till the end of September. It carries with it great masses of sand, which buries towns; the wind also uncovers ancient ruins. He refers to the work of Ellsworth Huntington, the American explorer and Carnegie research assistant, as does H. W. Cadoux in his graphic account of recent changes in the course of the lower Euphrates. Prof. J. W. Gregory, in an article on the economic geography and development of Australia, dwells especially on the labor question and legislation, and gives a favorable impression of the present conditions. Some notes on two expeditions in southern Peru are contributed by C. R. Enock; and A. P. Low summarizes the geographical work of the Geological Survey of Canada, of which he is the head, for the years 1900-1905. This work includes extensive explorations in the Yukon valley.

In *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 5, Dr. M. Eckert describes a series of maps of the world designed by him on the basis of the Mercator projection, but intended to present a more correct conception of the relations of the different parts of the earth's surface to each other than this gives. A characterization of the climate and the distribution of vegetable life in the Peruvian Andes is the result of four years of hot-animal studies in that region by Dr. A. Weberhauer. There is also an interesting summary of Governor-General Gallieni's report, showing what the French have accomplished during their ten years' occupation of Madagascar. The larger part of it is devoted to an account of a journey in German East Africa by J. Vander Burgt, a white father. In No. 7, Dr. K. Sapper gives a detailed description of his researches in the Canary Islands. There is also a long and appreciative notice of the works of Alexander Agassiz and J. S. Gardiner on the Maldiv and Laccadive Archipelagoes.

The third volume of the Rev. Dr. James S. Dennis's "Christian Missions and Social Progress" (New York: Fleming H. Revell Co.) brings to a close one of the most painstaking endeavors that have ever been made to record the influence of foreign missionaries in non-Christian lands. This

entire volume is concerned with the contribution of missions to social progress, and every phase of the subject is accorded full and careful treatment, with abundant illustrations from missionary activities under all churches, and in all countries. Aside from the influence of missions in promoting general and industrial education, which are possibly the more important branches of the subject, the work of missionaries in such matters as the furtherance of wholesome literature, the cultivation of patriotism, the elevation of the standards of Government service, the promotion of advanced commercial methods, is described with abundance of specific and authentic fact. The chapter on the contributions of missionaries to intellectual and scientific progress is of peculiar interest and value. The work is liberally furnished with illustrations, especially of schools, hospitals, and the like, which convey a striking impression of the extent of missionary activity and the firmness of missionary hold upon many countries. Some idea of the industry of the author, and the extent of the work, may be had from the fact that the index occupies 100 closely printed pages. The work is valuable for reference.

In the July issue of the "Oxford English Dictionary" (H. Frowde)—Ph-Piper—the intrusive digraph Ph neatly begins the top of the first column, and, following the ignominious treatment already accorded to Ch and awaiting Th, is hedged off by a dash at the close. A stray chick or two—Fantast, Fantasy, Fanatic—gathered into the true fold, stares at its twin beyond the fence. Stiff-neckedly our unphonetic fathers, after Ph had been reduced to F in Old French and Early and Early Middle English, reverted to the Latin as in many other instances, and as Americans have done in the case of honor (honour), etc. The *corpus* of Ph has been enormously swelled since 1839 by the creation of words growing out of the invention of photography; and it is characteristic of this wonderful dictionary that it traces the introduction of the words Photograph, Photographic, and Photography to Sir John Herschel on May 14 of that year, in a paper read before the Royal Society. A Frenchman, M. Neander, brought in the useful Phraseology in 1558; an English showman in 1802 alike drew upon the Greek for his fine invention of Phantasmagoria, which quickly passed into literature and has an assured immortality. Philanthrope (1734) and Philanthropist (1730) were late comers considering that Erasmus had insinuated the Greek word in his "Colloquies" two hundred years before; but the lexicographer Bailey, first quoted here for Philanthropist, in translating at the same epoch the "Amicitia" of the "Colloquies," followed the gloss "Lover of Men" rather than take in the neologism. Erasmus had used the appellation for the dolphin, and the naturalist Pennant is here quoted (1769) for the reputation of that fish as "Boy-loving and Philanthropist." Phenomenal, in the sense of "exceptional, extraordinary," we seem to owe to Rossetti in 1850. To pronounce Physiognomy without the *g*, we are told, is now old-fashioned. There are some pithy proverbs under Physician—"A foole or a physition" reverts to 1606. Phaeton reminds us that no better name could be ap-

pied to our lawless, zig-zag, colliding, destructive automobile.

In the main letter we have been struck with the geographical and topographical excellences also of our self-styled Historical Dictionary. Pike is shown to be a Northern English name for a pointed or peaked summit, and its Norse origin is inferred from the names in Pike having their centre in Cumberland, Westmorland, and Lancashire-above-the-sands; in other words, being "localized in the district of England characterized by Norse topographical names." But there was a much later non-local Pike, the earlier form of Peak (which, had it prevailed, might have given us Pike's Pike in Colorado), first associated with the Pike of Teneriffe (1555), Adam's Pike, etc. Dr. Murray, as often happens, casts a foreign light on Continental etymology when he shows in the above connection that *pic* was locally used in the Pyrenees and is found in Provençal in the 14th century, whereas the French Academy admitted the word only in 1740 in the case of Pic de Ténériffe, Pic du Midi, etc. So, under Picturesque, Pope in 1712 cites the French usage, though French dictionaries are twenty years behind with *pittoresquement*. Again, Pill (pool), local name for a tidal creek on both sides of the Bristol Channel, on the lower Severn and in Cornwall, lacks a Middle English example connecting Old English *pyll* with sixteenth-century *pille*; yet identity is inferred from the fact that "all the examples of *pull* and *pyll* in the charters in Kemble's *Cod. Dipl.* refer to the Severn estuary or valley." To what other dictionary may we look for such detective work as this in the interest of etymology? We had, as usual, marked much more for comment, but must close with referring curious readers to the article Pie, for a history of that delicacy's contents (Pieman, by the way [1820], we owe to Simple Simon); and to Pig, the metal, where it is shown that Sow antedates Pig, and the terms probably refer to size only, not to the main and minor channels of the comblike pig-bed. Dr. Murray owes much to Mr. Albert Matthews of Boston for the elucidation of Piazza and Pilgrim Fathers.

One of the rarest of American printed books for which bibliophiles are searching is a curious work by Thomas Maule, a Quaker: "Truth held forth and maintained According to the Testimony of the Holy Prophets, Christ and his Apostles, recorded in the Holy Scriptures." The imprint reads only "Printed in the year 1695," but it is known to have been printed in New York by William Bradford. It is a quarto volume of 276 pages and is the thickest book published by Bradford prior to 1700. The paper is of two different qualities, part of it, at least, being from the Rittenhouse mill, the first paper-mill established in America. The ink was poor, as in most, if not all, books from Bradford's press, and the impression is very uneven. Maule was born in England in 1645, but he lived many years in Salem, Mass., and died there in 1724. In this book he defended the native Indians, and declared that they had been unjustly treated by the first settlers. In regard to witchcraft, also, Maule spoke out freely about his Salem neighbors and roused the ire of the Massachusetts authorities. In December, 1695, he was arrested on a warrant which stated that the

book contained "many notorious and wicked Lyes, and Slanders, not only upon private Persons, but also upon Governments," etc. The sheriff was ordered to search Maule's house and seize all copies of the book. Maule declared that they "sacrificed sixteen pounds' worth of his Books, a burned Offering to their Anger and Revenge." Probably several hundred copies of the book were printed, but whether more than the thirty-one copies found by the sheriff at his first search were burned cannot now be discovered. It is hardly possible that thirty-one copies would have been considered "sixteen pounds' worth." Although the book has been long known and diligently sought after, only two copies can be traced in this country, and both of these are imperfect. One, lacking the title-page, is in the library of the Essex Institute in Salem, Mass.; the other, lacking all the preliminary leaves, but having the text complete, is owned by a private collector in New York city. As the title is given in full in Joseph Smith's "Catalogue of Friends' Books," there must be a perfect copy in some Quaker library in England; at least there was in 1860. When Maule was out of prison again (he was acquitted), he issued a second book, with the punning title "New England Persecutors [misspelled Pesecutors] Mauld with their own Weapons." This was undoubtedly printed by Bradford, in New York in 1697, though the title is without imprint or date. Five copies of this book can now be traced in America. The Essex Institute and the Lenox Library each has a perfect copy, the Lenox copy being from the Brinley library. The Massachusetts Historical Society has a copy lacking the title, and two others, both perfect, are in private collections in New York city. This second attack still further exasperated the New England divines and provoked a reply from Cotton Mather. Maule took up his cudgel again in a third book, "An Abstract of a Letter to Cotton Mather of Boston in New England by T. M." This is a pamphlet of nineteen pages only, without name of printer or place of printing, but printed, without much doubt, by Reynier Jansen, in Philadelphia, in 1701. The copy described by Hildeburn, presumably belonging to the Pennsylvania Historical Society, and a second copy (lacking three leaves) in a private collection in New York seem to be the only ones traceable in this country.

"Juvenile trials for robbing orchards, telling fibs, and other heinous offences. . . Boston, 1797," is the title of a book recently added to the Boston Public Library. It is described in the September Bulletin as "a very pleasing and ingenious little work, in which a court of justice is supposed to be instituted in a school, composed of the scholars themselves, for the purpose of trying offences committed at school." The editor is Master Tommy Littleton, Secretary to the Court. To many it will be a surprise to find that so early in our history children received this practical training in self-government.

Two quite extensive fragments of Greek comedies have been found by the French papyrus investigator, Pierre Jouguet, and published in the Bulletin (vol. xxx.) of the French classical school in Athens. These fragments were originally discovered in papyrus coffins, which were unearthed in

Gurob, in Fayyum, and the writing shows that they belong to a very early age, the one to the third and the other to the second pre-Christian century. The former is divided into seven parts, and treats the rediscovery of a lost daughter by her parents. Of the second fragment two prologues have been preserved, both in iambic metre. The first tells the story of how a young man purchased a young girl for a wife; and the second is a specimen of metrical art, the author having woven into the composition the entire alphabet in anagram form. Both specimens belong to the New Comedy Period.

Dr. Sigurd Ibsen, State Minister of Norway, and son of the deceased poet, publishes a request to all persons having letters and other documents from his father to send these to him for the purpose of having copies made. The originals will be returned to the owners.

A number of hitherto unpublished letters of Henrik Ibsen, written to a young woman friend, will, in the near future, be published by the house of Bard, Marquardt & Co. of Berlin. They will appear in a "study," written by the Danish *littérateur*, George Brandes.

Some of our educators might well examine a book by one of their French colleagues, Professor Crouzet, entitled *Maîtres et parents* (Colin). His theme is co-operation between the school and the home; and, among other suggestive ideas, the sharp distinction he draws between the instruction which the former, and the education which the latter, should provide is one that is well worth pondering.

The merits of Urbain Mengin's translation of "Grandezza e Decadenza," by Guglielmo Ferrero have been recognized by the French Academy, which has awarded it a prize.

The Cologne *Volkszeitung* reports the organization of a Thomas à Kempis Society in Zwolle, consisting of Catholics and Protestants. The purpose is collecting the different editions of the "Imitatio," together with all documents, pictures, and other objects pertaining to the author. These are to be deposited in a Thomas à Kempis Museum in Zwolle.

The first association for collecting, sifting, and studying the great mass of data gathered from all nations in the department of comparative mythology has been organized in Berlin; the plan is to make an international organization. For the present it will publish a journal at irregular intervals. Membership fee is ten marks yearly. Particulars may be secured from Oberlehrer Dr. Ressman, in Charlottenburg, 2.

The Cultus Ministerium of Prussia is considering the question whether it would be wise definitely to pension university professors at a certain age. Such a rule is already in force in Austria, and, it is asserted, with good results, while Russia's policy in retiring men after twenty-five years' service in its German university in Dorpat has caused much heartburning. The Prussian authorities addressed a circular of inquiry to the various faculties, but a practically unanimous negative answer was given in return. The most noteworthy exception is Professor Paulsen of Berlin,

who, in an article in the *Nationalzeitung*, declares that the demands, especially the physical, are now so great on many university professors, that it would be wise to permit a professor to retire when he has attained the age of sixty-five, and at the age of seventy or seventy-two to make this retirement compulsory, the veteran to continue as professor emeritus, and to be permitted to offer courses of lectures outside of the regular curriculum.

"HANS BREITMANN."

Charles Godfrey Leland: A Biography. By Elizabeth Robins Pennell. 2 vols., illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

This readable biography, permeated with the strong personality of its subject, has the shortcomings that Leland's versatility made practically unavoidable. It is the story of the man, rather than an authoritative record of his activities in so many and so widely diverging fields of investigation; for Mrs. Pennell has not always been able to follow to the very end Leland's studies in Gypsy lore or tinkers' talk, in witchcraft, psychology, Indian legends, or the mysteries of sex. This limitation she frankly admits in her introduction; then disarms criticism, which nowhere could be very severe, with the charms of her picture. All who knew Charles Godfrey Leland knew that the man was stronger than his work. It is this man that Mrs. Pennell draws for us. From her pages radiates a personality that refreshes and rejoices, a vitality that heartens and invigorates the reader.

Not but that the biographer, proud of her brilliant uncle, does her best to give some account of what he achieved. And here she serves him truly, for the very fate is threatening to overtake him that he most dreaded in life—the fate of going down to posterity as the creator of Hans Breitmann, and nothing more. As he wrote to Miss Mary A. Owen in 1894: "I don't dislike my 'Breitmann Ballads'—indeed, I love many of them—but I am sometimes highly pained when I find that people know nothing else about me, have never heard of my 'Practical Education,' or what I have done in Industrial Art, Language, Tradition, etc." There is enough about all this in Mrs. Pennell's pages to correct this ignorance, enough, at least, to give the general reader an idea of the scope of Leland's achievements, with the emphasis laid rightly upon his services to practical education.

The biography is mainly the work of Leland's own pen. It consists almost entirely of transcripts from his memoranda, notes, and other papers, and of letters written to his family and to celebrities, American and English, with some of their replies. Mrs. Pennell furnishes the necessary links, transitions, and explanations, drawing upon her knowledge of the man and his ways, acquired during the period of her intimate companionship with him. Where there is a lacuna in her material, her personal recollection, and the memory of others, she frankly confesses the blank; one of considerable length is due to the loss of a diary.

Leland was a prince of letter writers. It is in the selection of the correspondence given here, and in the use made of his

notes, most of them as elaborate and as cleverly written as the letters, that the real merit of Mrs. Pennell's work lies. The passages she has chosen are palpably representative of the man as he was at the different stages of his career. She depicts successively the rousing spirits, the intellectual alertness of his student years in Germany and France, the repressing influence of the period of "storm and stress," when he was in bondage to daily journalism in Philadelphia and New York, the resilience of his spirits when an inheritance enabled him to devote himself to his many pleasant tasks, the energy with which he carried them to completion, his frank joy at recognition of the value of his work, his equally frank disappointment when it was withheld, and, finally, the gradual cooling of the fires of many enthusiasms into the softer glow of an interest retained during a long old age. Throughout he remains constant in his curiosity regarding witchcraft old and new, the witchcraft of the African jungle, the Etruscan sybils, or the peasantry of Europe—he who was surrounded at his birth with mediæval Christian magic by his eighteenth-century Dutch nurse, and whose last vivid pleasure in life, so Mrs. Pennell assures us, was the very curious, not to say miraculous, return to him on his death bed, of the Black Stone of Voodoo that had been as mysteriously stolen. Most of this he is made to tell in his own words, vividly, picturesquely; and, despite a few gaps, the picture is all but complete. It certainly does not lack perspective.

Withal there is a strange contradiction in Leland's career. A physical giant, endowed with an adventurous spirit, he should have become a soldier of fortune, whereas he contented himself with that one mad exploit on the barricades of Paris in 1848. His service in the Union armies was caused, of course, by a higher motive. He should have been a wanderer with the Romanies, whereas he was content to visit them soberly of an afternoon for a talk and a smoke, then to return to his well-ordered Philadelphia or London home, or his Italian or Hungarian hotel, in time for dinner. He loved Europe and its many interests, yet from his first visit to the last one, from which he never returned, his letters give evidence of a strong homesickness that was always with him, even if it was only expressed on his repatriation in whimsical boasts to Walter Besant of the dainty and delicious things one breakfasts and lunches and dines on in these United States. In some ways, it was fortunate for Leland that his versatility never allowed him to pursue the same path for long; it was perhaps unfortunate in others. Singleness of purpose might have brought him more lasting fame, but it would have taken much of the glamor that life held for him almost to the very last. Most of his serious work—his Gypsy lore, his Indian studies, his psychological investigations—is destined to survive but in footnotes to the work of later students. Breitmann is safe of his place in the annals of American humor; but nowhere can the name of Charles Godfrey Leland be more appropriately preserved than on the front of an industrial art school; and one believes that "the Rye" would like that form of posthumous fame best of all.

Appropriately enough, it is Leland's educational work that is best represented in the current lists of American publishers; most of his other books have long been out of print with us, whatever may be the case in England. And this leads us to a final word regarding the bibliography appended to these two volumes. It leaves much to be desired. Mrs. Pennell, who apparently assumes full responsibility for this bibliography, explains in a brief note preceding it that she "has not attempted a list of the magazine articles by Charles Godfrey Leland"; that "it would be no easier to make a record of his pamphlets and leaflets on politics and art," of which he himself, it appears bad not a complete collection; and that this bibliography is confined to those of Leland's writings which he himself deemed worthy of "the more permanent book form." But even within the narrow limits thus defined it but a fragmentary piece of work, of no service to the collector of scarce books or first editions, because, incredible as it may appear, its record of the first, latest, or, indeed, of any American editions of the books of this American author is very incomplete. For instance, the American publisher of "Kuloskap" is mentioned, but the fact is ignored that the same firm also issues here "The Alternate Sex," brought out in the same year. There is no mention whatever of the American editions of the "Manual of Wood Carving," the "Leather Work," or the "Elementary Metal Work." No notice whatever is taken of the American editions of the "Abraham Lincoln," which was kept alive in this country in various forms from the time of its first appearance in 1879, in an English series of "lives" edited by Walter Besant, until as late as 1902. There is no record whatever of the American edition of the "Memoirs," of which but a few copies remain, with practically no prospect of a new edition; while, to crown it all, no would-be purchaser of the "Breitmann Ballads" in this country can learn from this bibliography who is the present American publisher of the book.

The illustrations consist of two frontispiece portraits of "the Rye," and facsimile reproductions of letters written to him by Lowell, Holmes, Tennyson, Browning, Bulwer-Lytton, and many others.

RECENT FICTION.

The Guarded Flame. By W. B. Maxwell. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is a story which can hardly be taken lightly. It is composed with a deliberate and painstaking intensity. Nothing is hurried or slighted; the case is put with a kind of dogged energy, the evidence adduced and summed up, and the verdict given in due course. If the record is "not pleasant," neither is it morbid. The action chronicled is of such tragic significance as to trouble no healthy and courageous mind, nor is its manner of presentation lacking in a stern benignity of tone which sets it off from an action merely pathetic or deplorable. The motive, being tragic, is not new; but it is given a modern turn. The situation is, briefly, this: An old man is betrayed by his young wife and a man, also young, whom he has greatly trusted. The old man, discovering their

guilt, is stricken down by paralysis; and a girl, his favorite niece, to whom the young man is engaged, making the same discovery a little later, poisons herself. The young man goes away, and the wife is left to nurse her husband back to reason and the memory of her fault. By force of will, he recovers and resumes his work making no sign, and, as before, employing his wife as assistant, and seeking her companionship. At the end of ten years, he discovers that he has always remembered her guilt as the cause of his seizure. Now the peculiar thing about the interpretation of these facts is that they are looked upon as concerning an intellectual rather than a moral lapse. We observe the consequence of error not in the human heart or conscience, but in the human mind. The lusts of the flesh, our author shows us, often lead to defective judgment, or to a disastrous abeyance of judgment. Conversely, to be great in mind is to be comparatively safe from what are commonly called moral errors. Familiar doctrine, of course, but not as forming the working creed of a novelist.

Mr. Maxwell puts his case as strongly as possible by taking for his central figure an intellectual prince, one Richard Burgoyne, the last survivor of the great Victorian scientists. He is still, at seventy, in the prime of his powers. Ten years earlier he has married a girl of twenty, the daughter of an old friend, whose death had left her alone in the world. She becomes his amanuensis and chief helper. With them lives the favorite niece. Enter Unreason in the person of a male secretary, young, clever, untested by human experience. Then for some time our only concern is with the progress of Burgoyne's work. The author is unsparing in detail, and is sometimes dull in the interest of verisimilitude. Suddenly, we are startled by an outburst of raw human passion. Of that passion there are three victims; Burgoyne is not one of them. Stricken as he is by the horror of his discovery, he yet makes shift to struggle back to life, to wrest still another decade of achievement from apparent defeat, and to forgive and cherish the woman who has wronged him.

One consideration seems to escape both Burgoyne and his creator. Is it good or bad thought which leads elderly philosophers to deprive young women of the right to love with the love of youth? Why did not Richard Burgoyne adopt his friend's daughter? Whose loose thinking is directly responsible for the catastrophe?

The Incomplete Amorist. By E. Nesbit. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

The *Incomplete Amorist* is a sort of feminine Sentimental Tommy. No man would have the heart or the face to demand a general consideration of so paltry a hero as Eustace Vernon; but a male flirt and pure popinjay may, this story shows, command the fond attention of even clever women. There is nothing in this Eustace to attract a man, yet his maker is half in love with him. He has the charm of the totally irresponsible and selfish male—and no other. Even that charm he has only in a minor sense, for he is a flabby male—by no means a Manisty. Naturally, the tale of his adventures is slight enough, fit to pass the time for

a moment, and to be heard of no more. It is adorned with incidental attractions of some consequence. Our flabby gentleman is supposed to be in a casual way a great painter, and the heroine having a leaning to that kind of greatness, we are not surprised to find ourselves presently in Paris, in the Latin Quarter, being Bohemian according to the familiar code. There is the atelier scene, the café scene, with its bearded and demi-mondaine joys, and so on; we have an unfortunate sense that it is all fetched in by the ears as a popular variety of "business." We have in due season another woman, titled and jasmine-scented, who adores, and in the end captures a reluctant Eustace. We have another man, an honest one, who performs the miracle of disentangling the rather foolish heroine from the snares of an eager Eustace. Better still, we have the strapping, worldly-wise, cigarette-smoking, and gentlemanly aunt of the heroine; a person such as we have never met, but who, we are given to understand, exists. Best of all, here is talk of English country-women which reminds us of Mrs. Poyser and her gossips. This is, we understand; a first novel by an experienced writer. To judge by the experiment her true vein would promise to lie not in the picturesque region of Bohemian romance, but on the quiet levels of rustic comedy.

Italian Romance Writers. By Joseph Spencer Kennard. New York: Brentano's. \$2 net.

Dr. Kennard has already published this, or a work of similar scope, in Italian, and by it has given much pleasure to a people always sensitive to the judgment of foreigners. The author, who is an American and a doctor of the Sorbonne, who has lectured under the august cupola and published books in French and Italian, as well as English, can say nothing about Italian writers that is not worthy of attention. In adding our testimony of admiration of this really good book, we almost feel as if we were carrying coals to Newcastle.

Of the novelists of to-day, the author gives evidence of having read nearly all who are worth reading, excepting the very latest. His silence with regard to Ugo Ojetti, Luigi Pirandello, Alberto Cantoni, and some others, is owing, we infer, to the fact that they have come to the fore since the materials for this work were gathered. He may be acquainted with such writers as Edoardo Calandra, Arturo Graf, the Marchese Crispolti, and have thought that the small volume of their performance precluded them from the honors of a review; we prefer to think him ignorant rather than guilty of such an error of judgment. Within the compass of some 450 pages he has treated of fourteen writers, and, what is more, has managed to give a fairly adequate idea of their performance. Donna Laura Gropallo, in the same number of pages, confined herself to only five, and one of these, Gerolamo Rovetta, is unaccountably absent from the list of Dr. Kennard. Indeed, we must make it a reproach to him that a list which includes "Neera," should omit not only Rovetta, but Luigi Capuana. It would not have been difficult to make room for them. Nearly 120 pages of this book are taken up with accounts of the

fiction of Alessandro Manzoni, Massimo d'Azeglio, Francesco Guerrazzi, Tommaso Grossi, and Ippolito Nievo. Granting that there is always something to be said about Manzoni, and that it was even desirable that somebody should introduce Nievo to the English-speaking public, we could well have spared the pages consecrated to novels that have pretty well lost the little flavor they ever had.

Dr. Kennard, however, could hardly have gratified us in this respect without changing the essential conception of his book. And it is just here that such little quarrel as we would raise against him finds its excuse. We should have prized unreservedly an account even fuller and more complete of the achievement of the Italians of to-day in the field of fiction. Such as Dr. Kennard has given us is of a nature to make us wish for more. But he has chosen to give us instead in an Introduction a history of the Italian novel, mingled with something of its rationale; and it is to exemplify this that the romantic followers of Manzoni are brought in, and that the survey of modern fiction remains incomplete. We might, indeed, have accepted Guerrazzi and Grossi to the exclusion of Rovetta and Capuana, if the history which has introduced them afforded compensating delights. But, frankly speaking, this historical introduction appears to us the least successful part of the book. We are brought rapidly down through the ages, until, coming to more modern times, our author finds that, though the Italians had no lack of *novelle*, the novel properly speaking was an invention of the French and English, from whom the Italians were slow to borrow it. He assigns as a reason for this, "political divisions and unsettled conditions," though—granting the case be as stated—if these conditions did not hinder the development of poetry and painting, it is hard to see why they should have prevented the growth of the novel, had Italian intellect been directed that way. Chiabrera and Tassoni, to say nothing of Galileo and Paolo Sarpi, were all contemporaries of d'Urfé, the father of the French *roman*. And then when the Italians did get the real novel, they failed—they still fail—to reproduce some of its English characteristics. This at first blush seems only natural, and suggests that they may have preferred to stick to their own.

Moreover, our author is not always quite accurate in his history. On pages 24 and 54, it is stated that the example of Parini, dissipating the affectations of Secentismo, etc., opened the way for Goldoni and made it possible for him to write realistic comedies. As by far the greater number of Goldoni's comedies were given to the world long before Parini began to work on "Il Giorno," we are puzzled what to make of this bit of causation. Again, speaking of the *Biblioteca Italiana*, the journal founded by the Austrians to keep Italian writers out of mischief: "Ugo Foscolo saw the danger, and declined the directorship; Silvio Pellico, Pietro Giordani, Vincenzo Monti, Confalonieri, and several others who had at first promised to contribute critical and literary essays, perceiving the snare, withdrew from the *Biblioteca* and founded another periodical, *Il Conciliatore*, with a romantic national programme. A twelve-month later the *Conciliatore* was suppress-

ed; two years later the whole staff was sentenced to death or *carcere duro*." Now Giordani and Monti were both prominent among the contributors to the *Biblioteca*, though they had nothing to do with the *Conciliatore*. We need scarcely add that neither of them was sentenced either to death or to close confinement. Nor is the statement true as to all those who were on the staff of the *Conciliatore*. The Austrians knew that the aims of the journal were literary as well as political, and some of the contributors, Berchet, for example, and Porro, by whose money it was supported, were advised to withdraw from Italy before any proceedings were begun. Those who were condemned to the horrors of the Spielberg had more laid to their charge than mere participation in the affairs of the *Conciliatore*. The intimate connection between that offence and the punishment, implied in the paragraph quoted, did not exist.

And yet, notwithstanding our objections as to both scope and execution of the Introduction, we may be grateful for it as it is, accepting it, of course, *sous bénéfice d'inventaire*. It contains, in its latter part, a readable and unusually abundant account of Italian contemporary fiction.

But, with all the respect that is due to his chapters on Manzoni and Nievo, the chief interest of the book lies in those describing the works of writers of to-day. He generally seeks to convey an idea of his author by giving a sympathetic summary of some of his principal works, and there is perhaps no easier or surer way of enlightening us as to the subjects the novelist affects, with his manner of treating them, his view of life, and even—if actual quotations are made—of such qualities in his writing as can survive in translations. Dr. Kennard adds comment of his own on occasion, and sometimes this is of value, but as a rule he is at his best when he makes his author represent himself. His translations always read as if they were the originals, and with one exception, so far as we have taken the pains to verify them, are faithful.

The book is, on the whole, written with clearness and directness, though slovenly constructions are to be found now and then and sentences that will not parse. Little inaccuracies of various kinds arrest the eye of the attentive reader. Of Dr. Roberto's novels, "Illusione" is not a sequel of "I Vicerè," but was published three years before and appears to have suggested the greater work. And most surprising of all, we are told on p. 23 that after Boccaccio, "the tales of Sacchetti and Pecorone were a return to less worthy standards." Now we know that Sacchetti, for better or for worse, struck out a line for himself; but why should Dr. Kennard fall foul of poor Pecorone, whose name, we venture to assert, can be found in no Italian history of literature? There was a humble imitator of Boccaccio, by name Giovanni Fiorentino, who called his collection of tales "Il Pecorone," but as Giovanni was an imitator, and therefore stuck to the standards of Boccaccio as well as he knew how, one hesitates to suggest that there may have been here a confusion between author and work.

There is an elaborate, though not perfect, index. But after all, and notwithstanding repeated evidences of haste or carelessness in the execution, we maintain that the work

is a good and useful introduction to the study of modern Italian fiction.

The Wilderness Campaign, May-June, 1864.

Papers of the Military Historical Society of Massachusetts. Vol. IV. Boston.

The purpose of the Military Historical Society of Massachusetts is the preservation of accurate statements of military operations for historians who are to come. Sixteen communications referring to the operations of the Army of the Potomac between the Rappahannock and the James in May and June, 1864, read before the Society at various dates from January, 1879, to April, 1899, have been published as Volume IV. of its papers. With the exception of two by the eminent student, the late John C. Ropes, these are by participants, two ex-Confederates, all competent observers; and the whole is thus first-hand testimony. Its primary value is to the historian as good material, but it has an importance, which is scarcely secondary, to the generation born too late for the memories of the civil war. The object of every paper is to show what was done in some particular operation, as well as its apparent motive, and in these demonstrations fatigue and exposure, wounds and death, are mere incidents. These are casually but often vividly referred to in recounting success or failure.

Following Capt. Porter's excellent tactical description of the fight (a "battle" only in its casualties) at Cold Harbor, is one on the same theme by Mr. Ropes. That acute critic believed that when Grant broke camp on the North Anna May 27, because Lee could not reasonably be assailed and must be turned, he might have seized either the Mechanicsville road or New Bridge on the Chickahominy, compelling Lee to attack or to retire within the lines of Richmond. It was just at that point that Grant lost the initiative, and Mr. Ropes makes an excellent point by quoting from his dispatch to Halleck that "a battle with them cannot be had outside of their intrenchments," and then showing that the Union general lost an entire day in searching for their intrenchments instead of rapidly moving into a controlling position. Thus, after delay and casual, but always serious, fighting the armies again faced each other, Lee intrenched as usual. In Mr. Ropes's view, and we believe he is correct, there was the grave error of not impressing upon the Union generals and, as far as possible, upon their subordinates, that the attack of the third of June would bring on a great battle, and of not arranging for it with judgment.

The final papers are by Mr. Ropes and Col. Thomas L. Livermore, the latter a very able discussion of the former, upon the Virginia campaign of 1864 up to the first contact at Petersburg. This is not the place for an analysis of either. Mr. Ropes commends the strategy of the campaign, but condemns it tactically. He maintains that it was only the overwhelming resources of the Government which allowed the "burning, persistent desire to fight, to attack in season and out of season, against intrenchments, natural obstacles, and what not" (p. 405), to be carried out. Col. Livermore points out that "procrastination was the only salvation for the Confederacy. Un-

ceasing action was forced upon Grant" (p. 409). He *had* to fight. Col. Livermore regards the Wilderness, rather than Gettysburg, as the turning point of the military fortunes of the Confederacy. For in the Wilderness was demonstrated the inability of its soldiery to come out of their works and beat back the Federal advance.

This volume is well indexed and has six trustworthy maps. Somewhat more careful proofreading would have corrected the statement that Lee was "sending aid to Hunter" (p. 73), would have reconciled the names of the roads northeast of Richmond on the Cold Harbor map with those of the text (p. 394), and would have made Johnston (p. 457) Johnson. But these are venial slips.

The Balkan Trail. By Frederick Moore.

With sixty-two illustrations and a map. New York, pp. xi. and 296: The Macmillan Co. \$3.50.

Wherever the Turks rule over a Christian people, there you will find unrest, outrage, massacre, and again unrest, resulting finally in rebellion and revolution. Such is the completed story of Greece, Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria, and Crete, and the incomplete story of Macedonia. Macedonia is prevalently Christian, and its people are becoming more and more restless under Turkish misrule. But while prevalently Christian, Macedonia, unlike Greece, Bulgaria, and the other states which have achieved independence in the last century, is not homogeneous. It is divided among several races and religions—Bulgarians, Greeks, Wallachians, Servians, and Albanians. These, with the exception of the last named, are of the same race and religion as the people of the independent border states, which latter conduct propaganda in the country, each for its own race and religion, and against the race and religion of each other. All by their disunion play into the hands of the Turks, with whom they intrigue, and whom they sometimes directly support against one another. The feeling of each against the other is bitter; and especially bitter is the feeling between Bulgarians and Greeks, who are the really serious rivals. Mr. Moore says (p. 155): "The rivalry between the racial parties—they cannot be defined as races—works death and disaster among the Macedonian peasants. Bulgarian and Greek bands commit upon communities of hostile politics atrocities less only in extent than the atrocities of the Turks."

Even under a wise and just government the problem of ruling Macedonia would be a difficult one. Under the Turks the result is disorder, anarchy, and outrage. When the conditions of misrule finally became so flagrant that they could not be altogether overlooked, the Powers demanded from the Turkish Government reforms, and assigned to Austria and Russia, as the great Powers most intimately concerned and having the greatest facility for action, the task of overseeing and directing those reforms. The viciousness of this arrangement is not too strongly stated by Mr. Moore, when he says (p. 188): "The Austro-Russian accord on Macedonian affairs resembles a thieves' alliance—without that

saving grace, however, the proverbial honor that exists among thieves."

At last the Bulgarian *committajis*, despairing of this sort of reform and believing that Europe could be aroused to effective action only by an explosion, undertook the so-called "revolution." This was proclaimed August 2, 1903, but during the whole of that year the country was in a state of confusion. No foreigner was allowed to go away from the track of the railroad; correspondents were watched and kept under surveillance to prevent them from reporting the actual conditions and occurrences; the whole country was full of troops, alarms, and outrages. Mr. Moore was one of the correspondents sent to the scene of disturbance, representing first an American paper, and then the London *Times*. This book is the result of his observations and experiences at that time, ripened by further study and correspondence. First, he introduces us to the Bulgarians at Sophia, the capital, and then takes us along the Turkish border. He shows that universal sympathy with the "revolution" existed in Bulgaria; that no strenuous efforts were made to prevent revolutionary bands from recruiting in Bulgaria; and that, in fact, it was practically impossible to do so on account of the intense sympathy of the population with the movement of their kinsmen across the border.

Mr. Moore undertakes, as essential to an understanding of the Balkan problem, to give impressions of the various populations, in such chapters as "Constantinople and the Turks," "Salonica and the Jews," the latter including the curious sect of Moslem Jews, called *Dunmeh*. It was in Salonica, by the way, the port of Macedonia, that the Bulgarian *committajis* resorted to a very desperate and, in the eyes of the world at large, peculiarly atrocious method of awakening Europe to the need of relief in Macedonia, and the responsibility of the great Christian Powers for the conditions there prevailing, namely, a series of dynamite explosions directed against foreigners and foreign property. The revolutionists blew up the Imperial Ottoman Bank, attempted to blow up the French steamer *Guadalquivir* of the Messageries Maritimes Company, and threw dynamite bombs into various hotels and cafés in the foreign quarter. But this method of awakening Europe did not have the desired effect. So far from attracting attention to the outrageous conditions which induced men to commit such desperate acts, it led to a general denunciation of the Bulgarian *committajis* as conscienceless desperadoes. Moreover, the Turks took advantage of these dynamite explosions to manufacture Bulgarian outrages for their own advantage, both to secure the sympathy of European Governments, and also to levy blackmail on innocent Bulgarians.

The place selected by the revolutionary *committajis* for the rising against the Turks was the central portion of Macedonia, of which Monastir is the principal town. The total force available on the part of the *committajis* was about 10,000 men, armed with all sorts of weapons, which they had been gathering for several years at great sacrifice of life and at an excessive price in

money. Besides the armed men, about 40,000 villagers, men, women, and children, went into the mountains unarmed. The leaders of the revolution did not expect to defeat the Turks. They hoped to provoke the Sultan to such an excess of outrage and massacre upon the Christian population at large as would compel the outside Christian world to intervene, as it did in the early part of the last century for Greece, and fifty years later for Bulgaria. "They were willing to pay the lives of many thousands of their brother Macedonians for the accomplishment of their desire—the country's autonomy" (p. 251). The sufferings of those who joined the revolution were terrible, and the condition of those who stayed at home was in many cases almost as miserable, exposed to attack from the revolutionists and the Turks alike. One Sunday Mr. Moore and an English correspondent came to a Macedonian village where the peasants, all dressed in their brightest clothes, were dancing their national dance, the *horó*. They asked for a guide to take them over the mountains to the village of Garbintzi, where the Turks had massacred the population because of its supposed sympathy with the revolution. The villagers refused to give a guide, saying that any man from that village who took them over the mountains would be killed by the *committajis*, because they, the villagers, had refused to arm and join the revolution; and that, on the other hand, if the Turks discovered that any of their number had guided foreigners to a place where outrages had been committed, their village would be treated in the same way. So they earnestly begged the foreigners to leave them at once, that suspicion might not fall upon them from either side.

Naturally, Mr. Moore has more to say about the Bulgarian than about the rival Greek propaganda. He does, however, devote some space to the Greeks and the methods pursued by them, particularly the travesty of religion which is connected with their propaganda. We hear something also of the Wallachian, Servian, and Albanian movements.

While Mr. Moore dwells as lightly as possible on the details of Turkish outrages—the sale of boys, the abuse of women, etc.—some of them he of necessity records in connection with the massacres at various places.

With its picture of greed and intrigue, of cruelty and violence, the book would be dreary were it not for Mr. Moore's pleasant style. He is alive to the humorous in everything, especially in his own sometimes dangerous experiences. At Monastir we hear of an Italian official of the Ottoman Bank, who, having taught himself English, but never having heard it spoken, addressed them at supper in their own language, which they were quite unable to identify as any known tongue. Then he took his pencil and wrote that he was speaking English; to which an Englishman wrote back: "Always pronounce English as it is not spelt; spell it as it is not pronounced." Now and then, however, the tone is somewhat too flippant and the style becomes "journalistic."

Mr. Moore had some experiences which may remind us, as they reminded him, that in spite of our abhorrence of Turkish misrule in Macedonia, we must be careful

about throwing stones, because we, too, live in a glass house. When he was sipping coffee with a Turkish officer at Barakova, on the Bulgarian frontier, the latter complained that the foreign papers described the Turks as uncivilized, and accused the Sultan and his soldiers of doing barbarous deeds. "Tell me," continued the Turk, "are sections of America still barbarous? I read of blacks being burned at the stake."

In his concluding chapter Mr. Moore points out that, although three years have passed since the revolution, the same conditions still prevail, the same atrocities, the same mockery of reform, under the Austro-Russian agreement, with the notorious Hilmi Pasha as governor, at liberty to do what he pleases. There is still also the same disunion and discord among the Christian subject peoples, and the same propaganda by the border States. There is a chronic condition of guerrilla warfare, now by the Christians against the Turks, and now by Christians against Christians. One wonders as one reads why the whole land has not long since become a desert.

Mr. Moore has succeeded in giving a very good idea of the various peoples of the Turkish part of the peninsula, of the various agencies at work among them and the general conditions of the country. He carried with him a camera, which he used effectively. The illustrations, from his photographs, are excellent, and really illustrate the text.

Le Siam et les Siamois. Ct. E. Lunet de Lajonquière. Paris: Armand Colin.

This is an entertaining account of a journey in Siam, the main object of which was the examination of ruins of ancient cities. Though these are described at some length, archaeological details form but a small part of the book, which is simply the narrative of the daily experiences of a two months' trip by houseboat, canoe, elephant, and pony, with vivid word-pictures of the scenery, the life, customs, and industries of the natives. Its value is enhanced by the fact that the author had been in Siam twenty years before, and was familiar with its history and literature; he had been connected with the French colonial service in Indo-China, where he had made a similar examination of the ruins of Cambodia. Bits of history and quaint legends of the places visited are accordingly interspersed with the story of the incidents of the journey.

In the first chapter he gives a general description of the country, the various races inhabiting it, the methods of government, the prevailing religious beliefs, and the influences by which it is attaining a measure of civilization. Foremost among these is the King himself, now in the thirty-eighth year of his reign. He has shown his appreciation of the value of education by sending the Crown Prince to an English university and by having in his palace English women to teach the princes and princesses. Nevertheless, his loyalty to the ancestral customs is staunch, for the heir to the throne was at the time of the author's visit at Bangkok in a bonzerie for the religious novitiate, binding on all Siamese young men. In a brief reference to the relations with the Western

nations, a cordial tribute is paid to the diplomatic skill and extreme amiability with which the King's "general adviser" in foreign matters, Professor Strobel of Harvard University, is helping Siam to win a place among the nations of the world.

The number and size of the ruins found in the dense, trackless forests of Siam speak eloquently of a historic past in whose records, known to but a few, strange legends form a conspicuous part. The author gives on the whole a pleasant impression of the natives with whom he came in contact. As an illustration of their conscientiousness, he tells of one of his men whose elephant ran wild into the forest, and whose tracks he followed for three days with neither food nor sleep. "At last, by force of patience and, one can add, of energy, he succeeded in overtaking and mastering him." A curious mingling of East and West is shown by the fact that he found the walls at Moulmein covered with the show-bills of an American circus, and in the interior a canoe with two Japanese photographers taking pictures for postal cards.

The Social Message of the Modern Pulpit. By Charles Reynolds Brown. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.25 net.

This volume contains the Lyman Beecher Lectures on Preaching, delivered at Yale during the year 1905-6. The author is one of the best known clergymen of the Pacific Coast, where he has a considerable reputation for breadth of view and progressive leadership. The burden of his lectures is that it is the chief duty of the clergy, at least in the present situation, to inculcate true principles of social action and become leaders in the work of social reconstruction. He declares that the centre of interest has passed from questions of doctrine and belief and rests now in matters of social reform, and that the supreme need of the modern church is to secure ministers willing and able to cope with the problems of this kind. From a few positive statements of this sort, one might conclude that Dr. Brown's idea is that clergymen should all turn sociologists and leave off preaching faith and judgment to come, but such a conclusion would do him grave injustice. He says that the imperative need is not so much for instruction in the facts which make up social problems, as for spiritual impulses to lead men to act on what they know already. Again he declares that a clergyman's mouth is not to be stopped because he can not present a solution for the evils he defames, that in fact, it is not his business to present solutions, but to declare the eternal principles of justice. Further, when Dr. Brown illustrates at some length how he would convey the social message of the modern pulpit, in a series of very excellent expositions of the Book of Exodus, he is not so much a social reformer as a prophet of the Lord, dealing out eternal realities and recording the judgments of the Almighty. One must conclude that the author's real conception of the work of preaching is not so pre-eminently social as he himself defines it.

The besetting sin of clerical effusions on sociological questions is carelessness as to facts. Many a gospeller has shrieked

high and striven for the accents of Amos with a muck-raker's article for his single source of information. Dr. Brown is not of this class, and yet his appeal is rarely to facts of personal observation or to what might be called the original documents of sociological controversy, but is commonly to writers whose entire fairness and inerrancy have yet to be proved. One might wish that he had included a caution as to the danger of falsifying in matters in which one is not thoroughly at home, and that he had himself realized this peril sufficiently to question the authenticity of the tale of Lincoln's resolution to deal a hard blow to slavery when he saw a slave auction on his flat-boat trip to New Orleans.

Social Aspects of Christian Morality. By the Rev. W. S. Bruce, D.D. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.50 net.

A German professor of dogmatic theology expects to lecture on ethics as well as on Christian doctrine, and in some cases the *Ethik* is the abler course and the most useful portion of the student's theological instruction. From these courses have resulted volumes of *theologische Ethik* of recognized value among all students of moral science. In Great Britain and America, however, there has been woful neglect on the part of systematic theologians of the ethical side of Christian doctrine, and Protestant divinity students have had no compensation for their lack of the Roman Catholic candidate's preparation for the confessional. The incongruity of painstaking attention to doctrines of soteriology in which few are interested, while ethical questions of vital importance and equal philosophic dignity are almost ignored, cannot long continue.

Dr. Bruce's volume may be taken as an indication that morals are coming to their own among the theologians. He was Croall lecturer at Edinburgh in 1903-04, and discussed the ethical bearing of prominent social and political questions somewhat in the fashion of Dörner and Martensen. Although the "superiority of Christian ethics" is asserted vigorously, one misses the searching analysis of Christian motive and incentive found in writers like Herrmann and Rothe. In fact, Dr. Bruce cannot be said to have made any real contribution to the discussion of his theme. He has collated facts and opinions with some assiduity, and he manifests a wholesome instinct, but neither on the subject of marriage and the home, nor on the moral province of the State, does he exhibit any new light or any special wisdom.

Tacitus and Other Roman Studies. By Gaston Boissier. Translated by W. G. Hutchison. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.75 net.

We are not surprised to note thus early an English translation of M. Boissier's recent volume on Tacitus. For that work is a type of scholarly investigation at its best. Few footnotes catch the reader's eye; he sees few references to the latest "literature." But he is sure, after pondering not many pages, that the author is abreast of modern researches. Documents and *Vorarbeiten* are necessary during the process of

construction, but the perpetual citation of them, as M. Boissier remarks, is "a kind of erudition run mad." The first impulse of an artist like our author is to gather all his material within the frame of the text, to shun the footnote. If the footnote grows too great, he lets it grow greater still, into a separate essay. Such, we fancy, is the origin of the entertaining sketches at the end of the book, on the schools of declamation at Rome, on the Roman journal, on the poet Martial—all closely related in theme to the main idea of the work.

M. Boissier's method of presentation illustrates admirably his views on the function of the historian. The book abounds in shrewd reflections on the nature of historical writing; the author declares for the ancient conception of history as a literary art, cherishing no aversions to science, but recognizing that in any description, judgment and composition must play a part:

Into this task there necessarily enters an element of personal creation, and those who claim to withhold the historian from introducing aught of himself, would constrain him to produce nothing better than a work resembling the convent chronicles as compiled in the Middle Ages, or our examination manuals. . . . When we wish instruction of the past, we presumably prefer it to be presented to us as it was, that is to say, alive. Very anxiety for truth, which we set above all else, demands it. A table of contents, comprising the principal events stated and dated, with a reference to the learned dissertations in which they have been elucidated, would not do our business.

But the literary method as employed by Tacitus, and by M. Boissier himself, does not exclude our modern interest in the facts that underlie the interpretation. This M. Boissier shows at every turn: his eye is ever on causes, inferences, developments. Starting with the early career of Tacitus as advocate, he takes as his first problem, "How Tacitus Became a Historian." Following his clues step by step, with a careful Cartesian restraint, he brings us inevitably to the goal; we see how Tacitus, like the other great moralist of his day, felt that

difficile est . . . non scribere.

In a review of M. Boissier's original work we gave briefly our own judgment of Tacitus, and will not now take up this matter in detail. In a word, M. Boissier finds in Tacitus not a Republican at odds with his times, not a falsifier of tradition, not, according to Nissen's "law," a slavish adherent to one main source for his information, but, despite a fundamental tendency to pessimism and the epigram, a careful scrutinizer of facts, a critic of Roman and of foreign traits, whose chief passion is impartiality, and whose essential verdicts are sustained by those of his contemporaries.

The translation is correct in the main, and reads fairly smoothly. Its general quality should not be inferred from various infelicities in the passage here quoted, or from those in the preface. We wish that the book might be read and pondered by lovers of Tacitus, writers of history, and any other scholars who are planning learned works.

An Englishwoman in the Philippines. By Mrs. Campbell Dauncey. With Illustrations and a Map. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.50 net.

This volume is made up of selected domestic correspondence by the wife of a sugar factor in Iloilo, published because it contains "a plain account of those scenes and conversations" that refer "to the political situations which form the topic of most [such discourse] in that uneasy land." That is, we have here a presentation of the British commercial mind (for much of the comment evidently is the sentiment of foreign traders, not original research), along with a record of personal experience. Mrs. Dauncey had not visited the United States; nor had she seen the British Asiatic possessions, otherwise than as touching at Colombo, Singapore, and Hongkong on the outward voyage. Such a work, it is hardly necessary to say, contains not only much misinterpretation of facts, but much actual misinformation.

The serious criticism, which appears incessantly and sometimes with unintentional grotesqueness, is three-fold:

(1.) That the Americans fail to publish themselves a superior or ruling race, but proclaim a theoretical equality, which is denied in practice. On this point it is enough to note in passing that legal and social parity seem hopelessly confused in the writer's mind.

(2.) That the taxes and duties are exorbitant and ill-spent, consequent upon which the cost of living is unreasonably high. Here we may admit that there can be no doubt that the Philippine tariff is very ill and unjustly arranged, from which and from American profusion household expenses are beyond all reason. Censure is deserved, but it is not well administered.

(3.) That to lay stress upon education as essential or even desirable for the natives, to say nothing of providing it at public expense, is ridiculous, and the entire scheme "seems a very strange way to treat Malays." Whenever education is referred to, it is so obviously misrepresented that the slurs answer themselves. One need not believe that literacy and merit are twins, honestly to respect the remarkable work of the Filipino schools. It does not appear that Mrs. Dauncey's opinion is based upon any knowledge of what is taught, or any inspection of methods.

Much unfriendly comment might be quoted were it worth while. Speaking generally, the criticism seems unsound as well as partial; but it may be considered, as one would take the gossip of the countryside to show the drift of unlearned but popular feeling, if not serious expert judgment. It leaves the impression that the American administration is an inefficient intrusion, unacceptable to natives and foreigners alike, which must radically change its character to have hope of success. Our own opinion is that Secretary Taft, in so far as he can get competent subordinates to carry out his policy, is doing fairly well—the tariff excepted—in the desperate task of managing Asiatics veneered with Latin civilization. We have, however, indiscreetly assumed a position antipodal to our

institutions, and it will be a happy day for the republic when it can relinquish with honor its anomalous and undesirable authority.

With every page a challenge, one may be glad to read the volume, regretting, for the lively and confident author's sake, that a competent editor had not revised some of its phrases. There are two dozen illustrations, mostly good, a fair map, and an index wholly bad.

The Economic Development of a Norfolk Manor, 1086-1565. By Frances Gardiner Davenport. Cambridge: The University Press.

In the certainty and precision of statement that come from an unusual knowledge of the minute detail of her subject lies the value of Miss Davenport's study of Forncett. Her book is, in the main, a close, exhaustive analysis of the known records of her manor (which is a fair type probably of many other manors) within a restricted period, supplemented by a number of excellent tables and documents. The analysis is so complete and accurate that it compensates largely for the disappointment, probably inevitable, of finding in the appendix only selected documents. The account rolls of 1272 and 1376 especially are of so much interest that one wishes for others edited in the same competent manner. In the analysis of the material the desire and necessity for completeness has led to the inclusion of some details that seem at first sight wearisome and merely statistical; yet the dull records of bailiffs, even the price given for nails for horse shoes, become valuable if taken as illustrative of the method by which a great lay lord exploited his estates, and serve also to supplement our knowledge of the economy of great groups of church manors.

Close study of the records has led, moreover, to some suggestions and conclusions of wider application. From a sixteenth century survey and an excellent knowledge of the topography of her manor, Miss Davenport has constructed an admirable map of Forncett which proves once more the value of the study of the map for economic history. It leads her to the suggestion that in the earliest times there may have been a connection between the distribution of dwellings and the status of the population; that the dwellings of the unfree were grouped close to the manor, whereas many free men "dwelt apart and scattered." Again, a full discussion of the history of each of the bond families of Forncett, for which we were prepared elsewhere, shows that the bond population was not immobile and stationary in the later period of serfdom, as some recent writers have believed, but that rather the number of withdrawals from the manor, either of fleeing or chevage-paying tenants, was considerable. After 1350 Forncett tenants are found in at least sixty-four different places. In the concluding chapter, by the test of the number of dwellings vacant, Miss Davenport proves that there was a great decrease in the population of Forncett after 1348. Such a test, if applied in a sufficient number of cases by a student with as admirable and intimate a knowledge as Miss Davenport's of the bond and free tenants of different localities, should determine the extent of the "decay of

towns," and the relative population in the rural districts before and after the Black Death. It should also furnish statistics useful for the further question of the actual depopulation of England by the pestilence.

The Liberty of the Press in the American Colonies before the Revolutionary War. With Particular Reference to Conditions in the Royal Colony of New York. By Livingston Rowe Schuyler. New York: Thomas Whittaker. \$1.

As Mr. Schuyler is a native of New York city it is not surprising that in his "Liberty of the Press in the American Colonies" he should have given most attention to the history of the freedom of the press in the State of New York. There were only two colonies in which there was anything that could be described as a long-maintained movement to free the press from the restrictions imposed upon it when colonial settlement began. One was Massachusetts and the other was New York.

In each of these two colonies the history of the movement is interesting, but for different reasons. In Massachusetts the Church was largely concerned with the continuation of the restrictive code which may be said to have been brought from England at the time of the settlement of Massachusetts Bay. Much of the history of the free press in New England centres about the attitude of the dominant church towards the press; first towards the books which emanated from it; and later, after James Franklin, in 1721, had begun the *New England Courant*, towards the newspaper press. In New York in colonial days there is no trace of any hostility on the part of the clergy towards a free press; and practically all historical interest centres around the Bayard case during the Administration of Lord Bellamont (1697-1701); the Zenger case in 1734; and the long and bitter contention between Lord Clinton and the Assembly in 1745-48 as to the right of the House to determine what should be printed in the Votes and Proceedings. This quarrel ended in favor of the House. The Zenger case also, as is well known, ended in a victory for the popular cause.

In no other British colony on the North American continent, including British North America of to-day, have there ever been more important issues with regard to the press either in the courts or in the Legislatures, than those which were fought out in the colony of New York. The only other libel case coming before British North American courts which can be compared with the Zenger case was that in which Joseph Howe, the Nova Scotia publicist and statesman, was concerned in 1835, when he was editor of the *Nova Scotian*, and condemned the municipal administration of Halifax in its columns. No lawyer would defend Howe. In his own defence he made a speech which to-day ranks among the great orations of Canada; but the results of the triumphant acquittal of Howe were not so far-reaching as those which attended the acquittal of Zenger; for undoubtedly the point then made by Andrew Hamilton, Zenger's counsel, that after libel cases in England were no longer adjudicated upon by the Star Chamber, it was the right of juries to determine whether the publication complained of was libellous as well as

the fact of publication, had influence in England. This argument advanced by Hamilton affected the movement which began after Woodfall's case was heard before Lord Mansfield in 1770, for a reform in the libel laws—the reform which came in 1792.

The history of the freedom of the press in New York consequently has a singular constitutional importance. Regarding this, Mr. Schuyler has given much care to working out the several struggles for freedom of the press and their significance. Not quite the same care has been bestowed on the introductory chapter dealing with the position of the press in England when the American colonies were settled; and there is not much to commend, certainly not as regards completeness and clearness of statement, in the chapters covering the history of the movement in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. Authorities in print have mainly been consulted; dates are lacking in places where they ought to appear, and where they could have been given with a little further research; and the index is inadequate.

Drama.

The revival of "A Midsummer Night's Dream" in the fine new Astor Theatre in this city is the most notable of recent dramatic events here. On this representation much care, time, and money had been expended. As a spectacle it more than fulfilled all moderate expectation, but in almost every other respect it was unsatisfactory, at all events to lovers of Shakspeare. It revealed, in a very striking way, the enormous difficulties to be surmounted before there can be, in the present condition of the stage, any adequate interpretation of a play requiring a sympathetic and cultivated intelligence on the part of the producer and a capacity for romantic sentiment and poetic utterance on the part of the actors. The fact is, that during the last twenty-five years the race of real stage managers—the men capable of comprehending the spirit of a play and teaching the actors how to give full expression to it—has been rapidly dying out, and now is nearly extinct. The stage manager of today is master only of the mechanism of the scene, the groupings, the lighting, the costumes, and the sensational effects. He is concerned with the externals only, not with the soul of the play; and actors, except when the living author is present, have no expert to guide or instruct them. Thus, it came to pass that the enactment of "A Midsummer Night's Dream," apart from the beautiful framework in which it was set, was more often an effacement than a realization of the poet's ideal. The performers strove to embody the fanciful creations of a luxuriant imagination by means of the crudest methods of modern, everyday speech and gesture, without refinement, grace, or dignity. They were vigorous and fluent in speech and gesture, but utterly inelegant and unpoetic in both. Their enunciation and pronunciation were equally slovenly. The rhythm of the lines was constantly ignored and the true significance lost. Word endings were clipped and the proper vowel sounds disregarded. In the prose passages, of course, the elocutionary faults were less

perceptible, but scarcely any comprehension of the humor of the clowns was displayed. The comic effect of their proceedings, of course, ought to arise from the simplicity of their ignorance and their egregious self-confidence. To substitute for this stolid foolishness the elaborately silly artifices of burlesque or the harlequinade is to betray the most complete misconception. The purely decorative part of the representation was rich, ingenious, and tasteful, and the fairy machinery exceedingly well devised. If one-half of the intelligence and capacity exhibited in the panorama had been exerted in behalf of the acting, there would have been a memorable production. But Shaksperian actors must be made before there can be any satisfactory interpretation of such plays as "A Midsummer Night's Dream" or "The Tempest."

Music.

Music and Musicians. By Edward Algernon Baughan. John Lane Co. .

The London critics have not been given so much to reprinting their periodical articles as their American colleagues, but they have made a beginning, and among those whose utterances deserve such a compliment Mr. Baughan is prominent. He has ideas of his own, and his lucid style enables him to convey them to the general reader even when they relate, as they must now and then, to matters technical. Of the twenty-nine articles in his "Music and Musicians" the most suggestive, perhaps, is that entitled "The Gentleman in Music," which throws interesting sidelights on the status of the tonal art in England. For the purposes of his article the author defines a gentleman as "a man who comes of good family—not necessarily rich or noble, but gentle—and has had the ordinary English gentleman's education (a good public school and, afterwards, one of the universities)." Such gentlemen have long abounded in the army, the Church, and the learned professions, but it is only recently that English parents have ceased to speak of musicians as "fiddler persons," and have begun to look on with equanimity while their sons become professors or composers of music, or players or singers.

Has this change been for the good of music in England? Socially, no doubt, it has. "No one expects an English musician, at least, to be long-haired, dirty, ignorant, and a sloven in his habits." But musically it has not, according to Mr. Baughan. "The gentleman by birth and training is," he maintains, "the last man who should be a musician." Why? Because music is primarily a matter of feeling, while such a gentleman's whole education has had the aim and effect of suppressing emotion, or at least the manifestation of it; and the ideals of uniformity and stoicism inculcated in him become a second nature in time. The gentleman musician admires Bach, but strips him of his humanity, exaggerating his austerity, as he does that of Brahms. He makes a fetish of the love of uniformity that has been implicated in him. "The great fault of British music and British performers has been a certain coldness and want of emotion; and those very defects are precisely

the merits for which our universities strive."

The gentleman in music, if playfully inclined, might easily retort to this accusation: "You are a gentleman yourself." For, unquestionably, the general tone of Mr. Baughan's volume is one of decided animosity toward the display of emotion by composers or performers. On page 98 he declares that "our modern music-making suffers much from exaggerated emotionalism." And once more (p. 161): "Much could be said against the influence on the mind of the more morbidly sentimental Chopin compositions, of the pessimistic whines of the first and last movements of the 'Pathetic' symphony, and, to take another aspect, the excessive and theatrical emotion of much of Wagner's music." To cap the climax, he has a whole chapter, "Is Opera Doomed?" in which he tells us that opera (the most emotional form of music) is bound to disappear, being absorbed in the oratorio. Mr. Baughan's bark, however, is worse than his bite. He is consolingly inconsistent (he defends his inconsistency in the preface), telling us, in another essay, that there is a peculiar reason for the existence of opera as an art-form of drama, which reason he proceeds to give in convincing terms (p. 176); and on the next page he adds:

That it is not impossible to invent drama which will throughout yearn for musical expression, has been almost proved by Wagner in his "Tristan und Isolde," and, to a great extent, in his "Parsifal." In the love-tragedy you will hardly find a single speech which does not demand music.

Another rather odd inconsistency may be found with reference to Richard Strauss. On p. 273 we read that "he has strong thematic invention, so individual that many will no doubt deny it—for new melody is one of the most difficult things in music to grasp at first"; while on the last page but one of the book we find this sentence: "Strauss's want of great thematic invention has already been mentioned!"

Such inconsistencies (due to the fact that these essays cover a period of twelve years) will not prevent any one from enjoying Mr. Baughan's book, in these journalistic days of shifting opinions. The Wagnerians need not feel alarmed at his confession that he is "a convert from Wagnerism"; they will find him still very much of a Wagnerite, even if he does opine that the "Meister's" operas are as "unreal as the old Italian operas at which we laugh so consumedly nowadays," and that Wagner's reforms have had a more vital influence on Italian and French than on German opera. He admits that it is useless to criticize Wagner any more, because he is gradually gaining the same position as Shakspeare, who "stands serenely where he did in spite of Bernard Shaw."

The forty-ninth annual music festival at Worcester, Mass., will take place October 1 to 5 this year, a week later than usual. The programme is: Wednesday evening, October 3, Handel's oratorio, "Israel in Egypt," with six soloists; Thursday afternoon, October 4, first symphony concert, with soloists; Thursday evening, Verdi's Manzoni "Requiem," with four soloists, to be preceded by Brahms's "Song of Destiny," for chorus and orchestra; Friday afternoon,

October 5, second symphony concert, with pianist and soloist; Friday evening, artists' night. The usual public rehearsals will be given, beginning Monday evening, October 1. The management has provided a chorus of 400 trained voices; sixty Boston Symphony players, and sixteen soloists, as follows: Mlle. Elizabeth Parkina, soprano; Mme. Louise Homer, mezzo-soprano-contralto; Miss Louise Ormsby, Mrs. Margaret C. Rabold, and Mrs. Viola Waterhouse, sopranos; Mme. Isabelle Bouton, Miss Grace Munson, and Mrs. Grace Preston Naylor, contraltos; Daniel Beddoe and Paul Dufault, tenors; Emilio De Gogorza, Frederic Martin, and Tom Daniel, basses; Timothée Adamowski, and Miss Bessie Bell Collier, solo violinists. The piano soloist is Mme. Olga Samaroff. Arthur Snow will play the organ and Arthur J. Bassett will be piano accompanist.

Julius Stockhausen, one of the best-known German singing teachers, died on Sunday night at Frankfort. He had a fine baritone voice, and after studying with Bussine and Manuel Garcia, sang in opera in many cities on the Continent. On the death of Roff he was made director of the Frankfort Conservatory, but retired in 1898 to give private lessons.

Dr. Karl Muck, the new conductor of the Boston Symphony Orchestra, sailed for this country on Tuesday. On his arrival he will go direct to Boston to begin rehearsals for the first concerts on October 12 and 13. The programme for the opening of the season will be Beethoven's C minor symphony and Wagner's "Siegfried Idyl," "A Faust Overture," and the prelude to "The Meistersinger."

Art.

IN HONOR OF REMBRANDT.

AMSTERDAM, August 31.

The Dutch, in celebrating the Rembrandt tercentenary, have evidently felt the uselessness of attempting to compete with their own great Rembrandt exhibition of 1898. If the ceremonies of the actual anniversary, already described in the *Nation*, were not thought sufficient for so distinguished an occasion, if some sort of exhibition to prolong the period of commemoration seemed indispensable, this exhibition in no case, either in Amsterdam or Leyden, has been arranged on such splendidly broad and representative lines as the memorable show of eight years ago.

In Amsterdam, indeed, the special exhibition for this summer of 1906 is not of Rembrandt at all, but of modern Dutch artists. The avowed object is that the work now being done there may be compared with that of Rembrandt's day. If, to pursue this comparative study with the seriousness the modern Dutch artists expect, you should go first to the Rijks Museum to refresh your memory and impression of Dutch art in the seventeenth century, you will there find an important change in the hanging of the pictures, and this also is to be regarded as a special tribute to Rembrandt—not wholly a successful tribute. As every one now knows, almost all the paintings by Rembrandt—the exception is that marvellous old woman who sits, prim and stern, not far from the very similar

portrait by Hals—have been removed from the long familiar places and given two rooms apart. The change is not altogether an improvement. The room where the "Night Watch" now hangs is small, out of all proportion; a side light is artificially regulated so as to emphasize just those passages that call for no emphasis. Besides, the crowding in of the other Rembrandts on the opposite walls adds neither to the effectiveness of the "Night Watch" nor to their own. The "Syndics," in an adjoining room, is somewhat better hung than it was before, but that is not saying too much. Save for this change, the Rijks is as one remembers it—a collection that, though many things in it might be omitted with advantage, is rich in the masterpieces of Dutch art.

It is from these you must turn to the exhibition at the *Art et Amicitia*, in the delightful rooms overlooking the Rokin. The windows there, in midsummer wide open to the canal and the opposite houses and the cloud-swept skies, seem to invite you to note how well the Dutch painters of the nineteenth century have used their eyes to see what is actually before them. The Dutch painter, for that matter, has ever been a realist, if realism implies the preoccupation with motives and themes and subjects that one need wander no further than one's own door to stumble upon. Pieter de Hooch, Vermeer, Terburg, as you get to know them at the Rijks, or any other gallery where they hang, were ever busy with their own Holland, though more inclined than the modern Dutchman to study it indoors. Hobbema and Ruysdael, too, though they could borrow at times the special kinds of picturesqueness that did not exist at home, loved no less their own endless waters and low-lying land under heavy skies, their own long, straight, tree-lined roads and little villages nestling about church and spire in the distance. The Holland you look out upon from the windows of the railroad carriage is the Holland of Rembrandt's etchings—there are the same farmhouses enclosed in their squares of trees, the same lines of windmills turning on the horizon. The Dutchmen you watch tossing off their beer in the café are the same Dutchmen who swagger in that wonderful series at Haarlem; and, indeed, only this summer, as I sat in the restaurant of the Kraznapolsky at Amsterdam, I saw at a near table, calmly drinking her glass of milk, an old, old lady in close, white cap, with withered rose-flushed cheeks, who might have stepped from the group of old women in surely the most marvellous of the many marvellous pictures Hals painted. And so, too, in their own fashion, the modern Dutch artists have been absorbed with the beauty at their own doors—all, except Tadema, and he, though included out of courtesy, comes in every way as a foreigner into the company of Jacob Maris and Mauve, Bosboom and Israels, who have disdained archæology in their love for their own skies and pastures, for their own peasants and fishermen, cottages, and boats.

Even as I write these names, however, I feel, as I did in the gallery, the incompleteness of an exhibition of modern Dutch art that could leave out Matthys Maris and Bauer, Breitner, Toroop, and the younger men who, it is just possible, their

elders may think are knocking too hard at the door. There are, however, some very good things exhibited. I have never seen a Bosboom that I thought suggested better the qualities he seeks to give in his church interiors, than his Synagogue, with its simple, white-washed walls and spaces of green panel or shutter, and its great brass lamp. I know of nothing of Mauve's that has interested me more than two or three little studies of still-life—a brass milk can, some pottery, a bit of old painted wood—probably very early, guiltless of any attempt at picture-making, but with something of the beauty by which a little Chardin or a Vollon will overshadow acres of tedious, perfunctory historical and heroic "pieces." There are also pictures by Israels belonging to the period before his Dutch fishermen and fisherwomen, and his Dutch landscapes, had become enveloped in the sentiment which his admirers of later years have demanded of him; by Jacob Maris there are not only sombre towns under the dramatic skies he eventually overweighted with drama, as Israels has overweighted his domestic incidents with sentiment; but also the little figures—the girl at a piano, the boy with a violin, and the others—which prove him no insignificant rival of his brother Matthys. When all is said, however, the series of pictures and drawings represents only one small group, and has not the contemporary importance many of its promoters appear to have claimed for it.

Another exhibition at Amsterdam, arranged by a firm of dealers in the Doelen Straat, Frederick Müller & Co., is also, they announce, in honor of the Tercentenary of Rembrandt. It can boast only two or three paintings by, or attributed to, Rembrandt, and these seem all the less important because the Rijks Museum is within such easy distance. In addition, it includes proofs of a few of the etchings, and a little series of drawings, among them two sketches of Burgomaster Six that have the further personal interest of having been lent by the Burgomaster's descendant, Professor Six of to-day. The principal part of the collection, however, is made up of the paintings of other Dutch artists, some of them admirable examples, that send one back to the Rijks with renewed zest.

At Leyden, Rembrandt himself is more prominent at the two shows, or, rather, the two sections of one show, held at the Lakenhal and the University. But here, too, it was apparently impossible to depend solely upon Rembrandt, and at the more noteworthy of the two sections, in the Lakenhal, he appears in company with the other masters of Leyden of the seventeenth century. It is extraordinary how many of the Dutch painters came from Leyden. Here are Jan Steen and Van Goyen and Gerard Dow and Van Ostade and Van Mieris and, greatest of all—always excepting Rembrandt—Pieter de Hooch. There are only some seventy pictures all told, and twenty-five of these are attributed to Rembrandt. I can hardly say that, in any case, the artists are represented by their masterpieces. You can see them to better advantage not only in Amsterdam, but in London and most of the large national galleries. Jan Steen, to be honest, is a painter of whom it is easy to

wearv, and this is no less true of Van Goyen, whose pictures, usually of interest as records, are less often so as paintings, though there is here a fresh little rendering of the dunes and cottages of Holland, full of color and atmosphere that is really delightful. One of the De Hoochs, an interior lent by M. Adolf Schloss of Paris, is charming, the inevitable open door giving a characteristic glimpse of a canal and the houses of Amsterdam, though even in this De Hooch is not at his finest. It is, however, suggestive to see these men grouped about the master who was so infinitely greater than one can quite understand why the public of his own day, no more intelligent than the public of any other day, failed to appreciate him. Of that greatness the twenty-five pictures do not give an adequate idea.

There are, however, portraits: of himself, his mother, father, brother, sister, Saskia—the ever familiar themes—of Petronella Buys, Catrina Hoogstraet, Jan Six; there are pictures of the subjects, religious, historical, mythological, characteristic of him. But if I record truthfully the impression they have left with me, I must say they struck me—as a collection, that is—as more apt to appeal to the critic armed with foot-rule and photographs, than to the artist who loves a fine Rembrandt for the qualities he finds in it and who would love it just as much, given those qualities, were it signed by any other name. Some of the portraits I should hand over to the copyist, or to Rembrandt's pupils, on no more "expert" evidence than their unworthiness of the master. In saying so, however, I am far from wanting to dispose of the entire series. The little "Jan Six lisant debout à la fenêtre," lent by M. Léon Bonnat, is a beautiful little study, the figure full of character and animation, the color delightful, the composition and pose recalling the famous etching and well suggested in one of the drawings at the Amsterdam dealers' show in the Doelen Straat. Some of the other portraits, more particularly the very small ones, are of the utmost interest. But perhaps nothing appealed to me so powerfully as the little "Christ sur la Croix," another fine thing from M. Bonnat's collection—the cross with its tragic figure, so magically modelled, set against an ominously grey, storm-laden sky, below which stretches the vague, shadowy, sombre land, oppressed, you might almost fancy, with the horror and terror of the unspeakable crime being enacted upon it. The painting of the flesh, of the heavy clouds, of the mysterious distances—all had that quality of tragedy that Rembrandt, beyond other masters, knew how to wrest from what may have seemed to his contemporaries the most ordinary palette. The little "Andromeda"—this from Dr. Bredius of The Hague—has something of the same impressiveness, the tortured body beautiful, not according to any banale Salon ideal of beauty, but in the splendid play of light on its white enamelled surfaces. These are the things that held my attention at the time, that remain in my memory far more vividly than the larger and, in arrangement at least, more elaborate paintings.

The collection of drawings is, in every way, more important and more representative. M. Bonnat, Walter Gay, Dr. Bredius, Dr. Hofstede de Groot, among others, have

lent from their treasures. Here are the suggestions for many of the famous and well known pictures and etchings, and the landscapes where, with a few lines or simple washes, Rembrandt could render for you the loveliness of endless stretches of flat meadow land, of rows of windmills, of simple farmhouses in their enclosure of trees. Here are the portraits; the studies of animals, the notes of movement, action, a pose; here are the beggars who, in their picturesqueness, never ceased to inspire him; here are the odd studies and sketches—in a word, here are the memoranda of the artist who knows how to use his sketch book, who, as he goes, jots down all that he sees of interest to him, or, as they come, all his ideas for the work he has on hand. The wall space is limited, but the drawings have been exceedingly well and intelligently hung, with a real sense of things, a right feeling for subject and appropriateness. A certain number have overflowed into the university.

The four or five rooms which are available at the University are devoted to a collection of reproductions of Rembrandt—reproductions of paintings and drawings and prints. It is clear that no pains have been spared in getting it together, and, what is more important, in making the most of it once it was got together. I was astonished not so much at its completeness even, as at the excellent and suggestive manner in which, though chronological order is fairly well observed, subjects are grouped together. For instance, one room is filled with reproductions of his portraits of himself, his family, his two wives—Saskia and Hendrickje—his son, Titus. It is not so much the arrangement of this special series that commends itself to me, as the care with which the reproductions of drawings and etchings and paintings of the same subject are grouped. You are thus given a wonderful impression of Rembrandt's methods of study, of his absorption in his subject whatever it might be, of his tireless industry, of his knowledge, his power, his love of work. Photographs never can yield just the quality, the elusive something by which the master reveals and asserts himself. But in this collective display of reproductions of the same subject, as he expressed it in various mediums, you can learn much of the scope of his work and the diligence by which he attained the full measure of his accomplishment. And so I have come away from Leyden feeling that, to a certain degree, the exhibition of photographs after Rembrandt may prove more useful in the end than the major exhibition—useful as a chronicle, I should add. When it comes to a question of art, one little painting like the Jan Six or the Christ on the Cross is of infinitely greater value than all the photographs and reproductions in the world. N. N.

The death is announced of Étienne Le-roux, the sculptor, who was born at Écouché (Orne) on August 3, 1836. His works adorn many cities and towns in France. He studied under Jouffroy, and was an exhibitor at the Salon from 1863 to the present year. One of his earliest and most famous works, the "Marchande de Violettes," a bronze statue, is at the Luxembourg; his statue of Jeanne d'Arc is at

Compiègne; the monument of Sadi Carnot at Chabannais. His busts include those of Renan, Théodore Auhanel, the Duc d'Audifret-Pasquier, and Dumas the younger. He obtained medals at the Salons of 1866, 1867, and 1870, as well as at the Universal Exhibitions of 1878 and 1889.

The annual international art exhibition now open at Florence is remarkably good. It contains over 400 works. The feature of the exhibition is a collection of canvases by the late Niccolò Cannici. Many skilled artists are represented, notably Roll, Cagniard, Maurice Eliot, Fleury, Werts, Dhurmer, Rolshoven, Pael, Abel Faioire, and Lamy France. Among national artists represented are Gioli, Costelli, Martinelli, Ghiglia, Vianello, Constantini, and Costetti.

An exhibition of representative German paintings is planned for this fall by Charles M. Kurtz, director of the Buffalo Fine Arts Museum. By arrangement with the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, the Chicago Art Institute, the St. Louis Museum of Fine Arts, and the John Herron Art Institute of Indianapolis, the pictures are to be shown in those galleries also.

The seventeenth annual exhibition of the New York Water Color Club will be held in the galleries of the American Fine Arts Society, No. 215 West Fifty-seventh Street, opening to the public November 10 and closing December 2.

After an interval of three years, the second part of Giulio Urbini's "Disegno Storico dell'Arte Italiana" has been published by Paravia (Turin). The qualities which marked the author's treatment of the rise of Italian art, its romanesque and gothic periods, and the influence of the school of Giotto, which made up the first volume, are equally characteristic of his review of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries which the new volume embraces. A thorough knowledge of his subject, together with great accuracy and clearness of statement, render this author a safe guide for the general reader, and a lively, graceful style makes his pages pleasant reading for lovers of Italian. He successfully avoids the temptation to make this manual of Italian art a study of isolated schools, gives architecture the place to which it is entitled and presents a well-defined conception of its harmonious development. The illustrations are numerous, excellent, and well chosen, and the price is moderate. The "Disegno" will be completed with the publication of a third part.

Science.

Handbook of Flower-Pollination. By Dr. Paul Knuth. Translated by J. R. Ainsworth Davis, M.A. Clarendon Press.

The good work of placing the more important German botanical treatises within the reach of English and Americans who do not find pleasure in reading German, goes steadily on. Some of these treatises have been reviewed in these columns, generally with words of commendation for the thoroughness with which the translation has been done. In most cases, too, the English translation has received the attention not

only of the translator, but of competent commentators, as well, who have greatly improved the original. Dr. Paul Knuth's work, the latest in this series, is one of the best.

At first sight, the first volume (the only one yet translated) is distinctly disappointing, because it appears to consist only of an introduction and a voluminous bibliography, with nothing sandwiched between. But this impression is removed immediately by the discovery that what is called "Introduction," comprising about half the volume, is in fact a comprehensive essay of the most fascinating character. The perusal of this long essay naturally leads the reader to inquire, Where can other works on this topic be found? The bibliography answers the question. Hence, although the construction of the first volume differs from that of other first volumes, it embodies a perfectly natural arrangement of matter. The two succeeding volumes are to be devoted to special topics presented geographically.

The present work has an interesting history. Shortly after Charles Darwin had called attention to certain relations which exist between flowers and insects, an enthusiastic German naturalist undertook observations in the Alps, hearing on the general subject. For such observations, this naturalist, Dr. Hermann Müller, was peculiarly fitted. He had devoted himself to geology in the broadest possible fashion, making tributary to that synthetic science every fact which fell in his way. Being a student of nature, and not a mere specialist, he gave much of his time to botany and entomology. Thus equipped, he passed very easily from the pursuit of these allied topics to the study of the new department which was suddenly formed between them, namely, the investigation of the relations between insects and flowers. He was fortunate in securing from the outset the hearty coöperation of kindred spirits. His brother, Fritz, a renowned observer, contributed from his varied life in South America extremely valuable data, while associates in Europe and North America all lent a hand. In 1873 his first great treatise appeared in German, and this immediately stimulated further observation everywhere. Other works followed from the same author and the bibliography soon became voluminous. Early in the development of this new department of natural history, careful search was made for observations which might have anticipated those in progress; and the discovery was soon announced that some of the recent observations were only repetitions of forgotten studies made long before. This discovery gave unbounded delight to Darwin and to this earnest follower of his, Hermann Müller. Only magnanimous souls can thus welcome the news that their thoughts have been wrought out before. Even sticklers for priority, sensitively jealous of their scientific reputation, bring to such masters their single contributions, feeling that they will receive due credit for all their work. The field became speedily filled with hundreds of observers, of all sorts and conditions, each anxious to read aright the riddles of the flowers and insects in his locality.

Müller's work and some of its translations have long been out of print, and al-

though innumerable treatises upon the same subject have appeared, no single one of them has seemed to take its place. To supply this want, Dr. Paul Knuth, professor in the Oberrealschule, in Kiel, undertook negotiations with Müller's representatives and with possible publishers, finally embarking on the formidable enterprise of constructing an entirely new work, based on Müller's lines. To this work, he gave all his energy. It was the privilege of your reviewer to meet Dr. Knuth during the closing days of his voyage, as he was returning home with his scientific spoils. Although he was then far from well, Knuth devoted all of his available time to the task of revising his notes gathered in many lands. When he sought a little relief from his work, he was fond of telling his fellow-passengers something of his travels and of his plans. Many of these plans were frustrated by his untimely death, but many more of them have been carried out by friendly hands, and the magnificent German edition of his work is Knuth's lasting monument.

The English translation begun by Dr. Gregg Wilson has been committed to Prof. Ainsworth Davis. But it is more than a mere translation: it embodies additions to the original, and also many substantial improvements therein; real advantages which we owe to many contributors. The compendious treatise entitled "Introduction" in this first volume, is, beyond question, the best presentation of the matter of flower-pollination by insects yet given in an English dress.

Most of our readers are familiar with the general fact that seeds are produced by the action of pollen upon the ovules of flowers. They further know that it would seem to be a measure of economy in the vegetable world to have every ovule fertilized by the pollen of its own flower: in this way there would certainly be less risk of loss of pollen in transfer, and, as a matter of fact, a great many flowers are fertilized by this process, known as "close-fertilization." But a vast majority are provided with some sort of device, by which such close-fertilization is prevented and cross-fertilization is secured. In the latter case, the ovules are fertilized by the pollen from some flower not its own, but of the same species. In many of these instances, the pollen is transferred by the wind (the lightness of the pollen renders this mode of transfer very easy). But the most interesting cases are those in which the transfer is more safely effected by the agency of insects of some sort. The insects are paid for their work, sometimes in sweet nectar, and sometimes in a part of the pollen, a kind of rebate, so to speak. To induce the insects to act as transfer agents, there are innumerable attractions of odor, color, and the like, associated with structural mechanisms, flower-forms, etc., by which these attractions are rendered very efficient. Of course such a subject must needs possess a somewhat formidable terminology, but aside from this, the whole matter is attractive down to the smallest detail.

It ought to be said that some skeptics have expressed doubts as to the extent of insect intervention. Some of these skeptics have been apparently afraid of the results which would follow if the case of insect-intervention were proved: a notable case is

a recent work in which Darwin's study of the primrose is most unjustly handled. Some other skeptics have dwelt chiefly upon the instances of close-fertilization, and have asked whether these instances do not invalidate the general statement that cross-fertilization in plants is essential to the perpetuity of a species. Therefore, referring our readers to the book itself for the very interesting details, we may note the conclusions reached as to the whole subject, and thus observe where the skeptics are placed:

(1.) Other things being equal, a flower is visited by insects in proportion to its conspicuousness. (2.) In a number of cases, odor has more to do with the attraction of insects than the size and color of the corolla. (3.) Bees, the most intelligent of flower-guests, are influenced in the choice of flowers, even more by food-value than by external appearance. (4.) Different odors attract different groups of insects. (5.) Attraction from considerable distances is certainly effected, for the most part, by the odor of the flowers which fills the air as with invisible clouds and indicates the direction of flight. When the insects approach nearer, the colors undertake the task of further attracting them; and when they finally settle, the lines and points of color, long ago pointed out by Sprengel, serve to point out the shortest way to the nectar. These are the conclusions in this first volume, after all the evidence in court has been carefully weighed. It would appear to be a decision without the possibility of appeal.

Every one who watches the flowers in his neighborhood for the coming of their insect-guests, can perhaps obtain and contribute confirmatory evidence in regard to this matter, but the main question has been practically adjudicated. The subsequent volumes of this excellent translation of a most important work will present the specific data relative to all flowers hitherto investigated, arranged on a geographical basis, which is, after all, perhaps, the best

The British Association for the Advancement of Science, when it held its annual meeting in August at York, returned after seventy-five years to its birthplace. It was in York in 1831 that the association came into existence. It was an outgrowth of the Yorkshire Philosophical Society, which had been founded in order to examine and preserve the fossil bones and other cave deposits of the once famous Kirkdale Cavern. The founders of this earlier society saw the need for an association on national lines and with a far wider scope; and the result was the British Association, which now counts in its membership almost every scientist of distinction in the British empire, and which holds its meetings on the banks of the Zambesi or the St. Lawrence, as well as on those of the Isis, the Cam, or the Ouse. To commemorate its return to the city of its birth, "The Historical and Scientific Survey of York and District" (York: John Sampson) was prepared under the auspices of the local committee. It is edited by Dr. George A. Auden, and surely guide or handbook never attempted a wider field. Archæology, history, topography, bibliography, biography, botany, zoology, and meteorology of York are all covered by various writers. The section of the book most likely to interest Ameri-

can readers includes the chapter by G. Benson on the Minster and Churches of York, and that by Dr. J. Solloway on the Monastic Establishments in York. Much interesting matter given in these chapters is not to be found in the ordinary guides or handbooks to York. The chief merit of the volume, however, is not so much in its contents, which are too miscellaneous in character and too cursory in treatment to be of lasting value, as in its commemoration of York as the home of the movement which created the British Association.

Henry Holt & Co. has planned an "American Nature Series," which will include "Fishes," by President David Starr Jordan of Leland Stanford University; "Insects," by Prof. Vernon L. Kellogg, Stanford; "Trees," by N. L. Britton, director of the New York Botanical Garden; "Wild Mammals of North America," by C. Hart Merriam, chief of the United States Biological Survey; and "The Bird: Its Form and Function," by C. W. Beebe, curator of birds in the New York Zoological Park.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Lyman. *Personality of God*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents net.
 All the Year in the Garden. Edited by Esther Matson. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1 net.
 American Jewish Year Book. Edited by Henrietta Szold. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.

Andrews, Mary Raymond Shipman. *A Good Samaritan*. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Baker, Abby G., and Abby H. Ware. *Municipal Government of the City of New York*. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.
 Bashford, Herbert. *The Tenting of the Tillcumms*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
 Browning's Lyrical Poems. Arranged by A. J. George. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 25 cents net.
 Comstock, Harriet T. *Meg and the Others*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
 Coxy, Willard Douglas. *Heart Songs and other Verse*. Maywood, Ill.: Chas. T. Gallop & Co.
 Dawson, W. J. *The Quest of a Simple Life*. Dutton. \$1.50.
 De Morgan, William. *Joseph Vance*. Henry Holt & Co.
 Does God Comfort? Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents net.
 Dole, Charles Fletcher. *The Spirit of Democracy*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.25 net.
 Education Department of New York State. *First Annual Report—Education Department of New York State*. Second Annual Report. Albany.
 Fisher, Irving. *The Nature of Capital and Income*. Macmillan Co. \$3 net.
 Ford, Ellis A. *The Challenging of the Spirit*. Frederick, J. George. Breezy. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Geschichte der Frankfurter Zeitung, 1856 bis 1906. Frankfurt.
 Hardie, Martin. *English Coloured Books*. Putnams. \$6.75.
 Hill, George Birkbeck. *Harvard College by an Oxonian*. Macmillan Co. \$2.
 Hopper, James. *Caybigan*. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Jackson, A. V. Williams. *Persia Past and Present*. Macmillan Co. \$4 net.
 Jefferson, Charles E. *The World's Christmas Tree*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents net.
 Lathrop, Elise. *Where Shakespeare Set His Stage*. James Pott & Co.
 Loti, Pierre. *Disenchanted*. Macmillan Co. \$1.50.
 Lucas, E. V. *Listener's Lure*. \$1.50. *A Wanderer in London*. \$1.75. Macmillan Co.
 MacKaye, Mrs. Steele. *Pride and Prejudice: A Play*. Duffield & Co. \$1.25.
 Marden, Orison Swett. *Every Man a King*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1 net.
 Matheson, George. *Rests by the River*. A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$1.25.
 Mitchell, Theodore C., and George R. Carpenter.

Exposition in Class-Room Practice. Macmillan Co. 70 cents net.
 Matthews, Brander. *American Character*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents net.
 McCay, Winsor. *Little Nemo in Slumber Land*. Duffield & Co. 75 cents net.
 Memorials of Edward Burge-Jones. By G. Burne-Jones. Macmillan Co. \$4.
 Miller, J. R. *Christmas Making*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents net.
 Moore, F. Frankfort. *The Jessamy Bride*. Duffield & Co. \$2 net.
 Moore, John Trotwood. *The Bishop of Cottontown*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. \$1.50.
 Mother Goose; Her Book. Duffield & Co. 75 cents.
 Nelson's Encyclopædia. Edited by Frank M. Colby and George Sandeman. Vol. V.: Fern to Gun. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
 Nelson's Encyclopædia. Vol. VI.: Gun to Joan. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
 Noble, W. Arthur. *Ewa: A Tale of Korea*. Eaton & Mains. \$1.25.
 Otis, James. *Joey at the Fair*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
 Paine, Albert Bigelow. *A Sailor of Fortune*. McClure, Phillips & Co. \$1.20 net.
 Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart. *The Man in the Case*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
 Potter, Henry Codman. *Reminiscences of Bishops and Archbishops*. Putnams. \$2 net.
 Reed, Myrtle. *A Spinner in the Sun*. Putnams. \$1.50 net.
 Roberts, Charles G. D. *The Heart that Knows*. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
 Snider, Denton J. *The American Ten Years' War*. St. Louis: Sigma Publishing Co.
 Strannik, Ivan. *The Shadow of the House*. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Swinburne's *Anactoria and other Lyrical Poems*. Mitchell Kennerley.
 Tannhäuser. Retold in English verse by Oliver Huckel. 75 cents net.
 Tappan, Eva March. *American Hero Stories*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
 Thackeray's *Ballads and Songs*. Putnams. \$1.50.
 Traherne, Thomas. *The Poetical Works of*. Edited by Bertram Dobell. London: Published by the author.
 Villari, Luigi. *Fire and Sword in the Caucasus*. James Pott & Co.
 Wagner, Charles. *My Impressions of America*. Translated by Mary L. Hendee. McClure, Phillips & Co. \$1 net.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 4, 1906.

The Week.

In setting up a Provisional Government in Cuba, Secretary Taft, acting under the instructions of President Roosevelt, has taken a momentous step with all possible consideration for Cuban sentiments and susceptibilities. The Cuban flag is still to fly over public buildings; the government is to be conducted, so far as possible, by Cuban officials; Cuban judges will continue to administer justice. It rests with the Cubans to show whether they have sufficient political aptitude and enough patriotism to set up that other independent Government of which Secretary Taft's proclamation holds out the distinct hope. Upon Americans, also, grave problems and heavy responsibilities press in this affair. It will require the utmost delicacy of handling to prevent a collision between our troops and the insurgent forces. Moreover, if we are obliged to maintain a military government of Cuba for some years, what fiscal treatment are we to give that island? The London *Spectator* suggests offhand that Gen. Wood be put in charge for ten years, with "free access to the American market" meanwhile guaranteed the Cubans. But the *Spectator* does not know our embattled protectionists—has not learned to dread the sugar-beet on the Congressional warpath, or the Connecticut "filler" tobacco turned into a political oriflamme.

The movement of troops to Cuba is of especial interest as the first test of the General Staff under conditions approximating those of war-time. Already it is evident that there is not to be the confusion of 1898. Transports have been hired without loss of time, and their names were announced the minute the President ordered troops to Cuba. At the same time there was given out a full roster of the first expedition—something that was never done in 1898, when nobody knew what troops were going with Shafter until the last moment. The General Staff is fortunate in that it has trained officers who are already at the points of embarkation prepared to see that the troops are put on their vessels without the slightest friction or delay. This in itself is an incalculable advantage, as appears at once if one but considers the indescribable chaos of the Tampa docks in June, 1898. Furthermore, subject to the modifications of Secretary Taft and Gen. Funston, there is already a complete plan for the distribution of the troops in Cuba, which

Gen. Bell has discussed with the entire General Staff—again in marked contrast with 1898, when no general dreamed of calling a lot of capable officers together to get their suggestions as to his plans. Altogether, the army is in for manœuvres of the very best practical utility. It is to be hoped, however, that they will remain manœuvres, and end without the firing of a shot or the dispatch of further troops.

No more sudden political transformation has ever taken place in this State than that which has come over the Republican party. But three weeks ago it was still in the hands of the old bosses, whose maladministration had so long disgusted intelligent citizens. Platt and Depew, it is true, were already in oblivion, but Odell, the State Chairman, allied with Quigg, the lobbyist, was busily intriguing to retain control of the machine. Presto, change! Mr. Parsons, favorably known because of his record as alderman, as Representative in Congress, and as president of the County Committee, suddenly appeared as the slayer not of one, but of many bosses. His success at the primaries drove Quigg out of political life for the time being, and put an end to Odell's carefully laid plans for retrieving his power as State boss. For the first time, almost, within the memory of man, the Republican organization in this city is in charge of an honest and fearless leader. At the Saratoga convention Mr. Parsons, unskilled in bartering, incredibly lacking in the respect due to bosses, dominated the other delegates by refusing to accept any other candidate than the best. Thus the convention, led but not bossed, expressed the wishes not only of the vast majority of Republicans, but of thousands of Democrats who were turning with disgust from Buffalo. For this result much praise is, of course, due President Roosevelt, who backed Mr. Parsons strongly and steadily. If Republicans everywhere are glorying in the disaster which has overtaken the Aldridges, Kilburns, and Hendrickses, as well as the Odells and Quiggs, they must not fail to realize that the ground thus suddenly won must be sternly held. Behind the leaders must stand a rank and file eager to complete the rout of the evil elements in their own organization, as well as those into whose hands the Democracy has been betrayed.

The term "revolution" was generally applied to the political upheavals of last year. The powers that had long ruled our States and cities, sometimes nominally Republican, sometimes nominally Democratic, but always actually working

for selfish interests, were beaten all along the line. Not only did the creatures of the bosses go out of office, but good laws, held back for years past, were hurried through Congress and the State legislatures. Yet this year, to the confutation of the prophets, has thus far been a year of apparent setbacks for reform. La Follette of Wisconsin, the idol of his party two years ago, has been "rebuked" in the person of his candidate for the succession. Weaver of Philadelphia has broken with the City Party. Colby in New Jersey has not only failed to gain strength for the "New Idea," but has actually lost ground carried a year ago. Jerome, after his amazing sweep of this city in 1905, was utterly unable to rally Democrats throughout the State. While there have been some fine achievements, like the decisive defeat of Addicks and the victory of Mayor Jones in Minneapolis, the ret balance is thus far on the other side. Do the defeats mean that Wisconsin, New Jersey, and Philadelphia were not ready for sustained effort along the lines begun so promisingly? It is worth noting that in every instance a leader otherwise beloved and honored was attempting to control matters outside his province. La Follette gratuitously endeavored to decide which of two old and trusted lieutenants should be his successor as Governor; Mayor Weaver, the hero and the hope of Philadelphia last May, failed pitifully at the first trial, and more pitifully at the second, to have one of his own directors nominated for District Attorney over a man who had effectively attacked the Mayor's Administration in his unregenerate days. The Colby movement, as is now conceded, would have done vastly better if it had not bound itself up with the Senatorial candidacy of Mr. Record, and taken part unnecessarily in minor local campaigns. The leaders under the new order must evidently accept the position of human beings with whom their fellows sometimes agree and sometimes differ. With that as a premise, there is nothing in this year's events to destroy hope for the future.

Fresh from its triumphs in the political arena, that most influential of vegetables, the sugar beet, again complacently offers itself for our admiration. Its introducer in this instance is the versatile Mr. Coburn, secretary of the Kansas State Board of Agriculture. Kansas in 1901 began paying a bounty of a dollar a ton, later reduced, on sugar beets. Thus, since no grower is likely to let this premium go, there is the basis for an accurate return on the Kansas crop. The first year of the bounty

saw a yield of 1,747 tons, and, in spite of a decline in 1903, the total had risen in 1905 to 8,605 tons. Whether that gain has been duplicated for the country generally does not appear. The statistics of factory building, however, certainly do not point to an industry living in hourly dread of the "death blow" about which its Congressional friends talk so much. There were four beet-sugar factories in the United States in 1880. In 1890 there were so few as to figure merely among "all other industries." In 1900 there were 30. But Mr. Coburn's table shows 52 factories in 1905, 16 in Michigan and 12 in Colorado, with 12 in course of construction in the present year. An industry that increases sixteen times in twenty-five years easily inspires enthusiasm, but there will be still more if it can keep alive without feeding on special favors.

Edward Everett Hale calls for laws forbidding labor of any kind for children under sixteen years of age. To something like that we shall probably come. Meanwhile, here in New York Monday marked the going into effect of some laws with which we have special reason to be pleased. It is no longer legal to employ children under sixteen years of age in any factory before 6 A. M. or after 7 P. M. After the latter hour no child may be employed in this city in any business or telegraph office, hotel or apartment, or in the distribution of merchandise—this last provision obviously applies to the delivery of parcels in the period of Christmas shopping. Women and children under sixteen are also forbidden to work in any quarry or mine within the State. For this progress the anti-child labor organizations are entitled to hearty thanks. But there remains much to be done, not only within the limits of New York, but elsewhere throughout the Union. The workers have been much disappointed with the results they have achieved in the last few years. Dr. Hale's platform is plain and, if perhaps too sweeping, is none the less one which all who wish to see the United States lead in matters of social betterment can in general approve.

Another instance of haggling between the customs officers and a collector over a fine picture illustrates the awkwardness of applying the present tariff on art. The power of the appraisers, he it noted, is arbitrary; no certificate of purchase price avails; a theoretical market price in America must be established. In the case of ordinary merchandise, this may easily be done, but with many sorts of paintings it is very difficult to fix a value; in fact, a market price is the wildest approximation. Hence it comes about that, when a really fine picture comes into the Custom House, the

owner is mulcted as much as the officials dare. In fact, on both sides it is likely to be a simple game of "trying it on." We make it difficult to bring in the really fine paintings that are desirable possessions, and, by a strange illogicality, practically nothing is paid on the dealers' trash that is imported by the hundreds a year. Here, curiously, the principle of market price does not apply, and it would give an awful but yet educative shock to many a collector who has paid for his latest accession in five figures, to learn that it was appraised in the customs at two figures. The every-day working of the tariff on art, in short, affords the strongest argument to those who would abolish it altogether.

Inferior races seem marvellously slow in recognizing their own inferiority. A recent dispatch tells of the capture, by Dutch troops, of a native capital in the East India island of Bali, under these gratifying circumstances:

The followers of the [native] princes, numbering in all 400 men, were killed in attempting a desperate sortie. The Dutch losses were four Europeans killed and ten wounded.

This outcome shows clearly that the status of the natives of Badong, as compared with that of the Hollander, is only as 1 to 100. This record, of course, is not quite so creditable as the clean hag of 600 Moros that Gen. Wood placed to his credit some time ago, or the almost equally meritorious drive made lately by the British in Natal, where 575 Zulus were slain without the loss of a single white man. Germany, too, though young in colonial experience, has turned out a piece of work marked by the characteristic national thoroughness. In the course of a year's fighting in Southwest Africa, the Herero nation, we are told, was reduced from about 80,000 souls to 2,000, mostly women and children. That savage races, after being taught such wholesome lessons of obedience, should venture again and again to challenge the rights of their European masters, would indicate that primitive man is not only the slave of his medicine man, but that his memory is very short.

The more enlightened races of the East have adopted of late a weapon which may be regarded as an unmistakable produce of the *Zeitgeist*, so universal has become its use under the different names, passive resistance, boycott, or general strike. The Chinese boycott on American goods is yet fresh in all minds. Still more recently, in Persia, the general strike would appear to have proved tremendously successful as a political force. The entire high priesthood, as a protest against the existing régime, left the capital and betook themselves to the sacred city of Kum. Possibly

the Shah might have learned to dispense with the priests and the expounders of the law, but these were followed by no less than 16,000 inhabitants of Teheran, including nearly all the merchants of the city and most of the students, who established a vast model camp. The most admirable order is said to have prevailed, and in their tent city the Persians revealed on a sudden a capacity for self-government they had never given signs of among the palaces of the capital. In the face of so vast a secession, the Shah yielded, granted a national assembly, and everybody came back to Teheran. At present, Bengal seethes with discontent, aroused primarily by the partition of the province under Lord Curzon. The feeling voices itself with greatest effect in a widespread movement against the purchase of British goods, the place of which is to be taken by products of native manufacture. After the European model, school children are incited towards insubordination, university students find it impossible to attend lectures while their country is subjected to oppression, and social ostracism is brought to bear on the timid and the lukewarm in the national cause. And so the peaceful Chinaman and the dweller by the Ganges have come to realize that in their many millions there is a peculiar strength—not that of armies and cannon, indeed, but the strength arising from the economic demand created by millions of stomachs to be filled and bodies to be clothed. One does not willingly turn Gatling-guns against one's customers.

Repression in Russia, it appears, applies only to Jews and reformers. The author of an abominable pamphlet advocating the "pogrom" as a patriotic duty, has been let off with a fine of \$50. His inflammatory work came from the presses of the Department of the Interior. An official of this department who provided and distributed anti-semitic matter has been restored to active duty after a brief period of suspension. Meanwhile, the Czar has made a handsome contribution to the League of the Russian People, the organization that sustains the Black Hundred in its counter reign of terror. In a way, the inhumanity of the procedure is less striking than its fatuity. If this sort of repression were steadily followed all along the line, it would at least constitute a consistent policy—such, for example, as Alexander II. actively carried into effect in the years preceding his assassination. Evidently, for the present Czar, the last counsel seems the best, and there is no comprehensive grasp of the situation. The emergency is really one in which ideas only will serve; instead of these impulses are in control.

The recent visit to Denmark of the

Iceland Parliament, on the invitation of the King and the Danish Parliament, is taken as a sign that the Danes intend hereafter to pay needed attention to their colonial affairs. Mismanagement has been the rule hitherto, not only in Iceland, but in the Danish West Indies. But private organizations have lately formed to bring about better communications between the motherland and the colonies, to increase the popular interest in the latter, and to better their economic condition. This movement dates from the recent abortive attempt to sell St. Thomas to the United States, and to it must largely be attributed the renewed interest of the Government in its over-sea provinces. The Icelanders have recently been given a broader constitution and their own minister in the home government. But this has not satisfied them, and the natives who have just visited Copenhagen have boldly urged that the union between Denmark and Iceland be only a "personal" one; that is, the King of Denmark should be King of Iceland, but in every other respect Iceland should be governed by her own citizens. In other words, Iceland asks what Ireland has so long demanded. The King of Denmark, it is understood, is not at all pleased with this result of the Icelanders' visit, but he is afraid to deny the appeal for home rule lest Iceland imitate Norway and set up for herself.

The status of wireless telegraphy under the law of nations has been defined by the Institute of International Law sitting at Ghent. It denies the Japanese contention that senders of wireless messages from belligerent territory may be treated as spies, but holds that the business is contraband, and that operators, etc., may be taken as prisoners of war. In any case where a neutral vessel or balloon has furnished information useful to an adversary, the wireless apparatus may be seized and sequestered. In general, the furtive use of apparatus for partisan purposes constitutes spying, and may summarily be punished as such. These regulations are of rather an indefinite sort, and seem likely to raise in given cases pretty complex problems of evidence. It is a gain, however, to have weighty repudiation of the sweeping Japanese assertion that to carry or use wireless telegraphy on neutral waters in the vicinity of hostilities practically amounted to piracy. It should be recalled that the eminent jurist, the Rt. Hon. Sir Edward Fry, has discussed this whole matter before the British Academy, laying down the principle that even in time of war a wireless apparatus may be set up and used wherever any neutral enterprise may of right be. This would exclude telegraph ships merely from blockade limits and the actual fields of hostili-

ties and manœuvres, while a terrestrial instrument might be set up anywhere on neutral soil. Of course, the recommendations are merely advisory, not obligatory, but they at least indicate a common-sense view of a new emergency, and a reaction against the theory that the necessities of war may limit or even proscribe the use of this important new invention.

As the date for the meeting of Parliament draws near, reports of the complete break-down of Mr. Chamberlain's health are more frequent. If verified, they would imply political changes of the highest importance. Mr. Chamberlain has unquestionably been ill all summer. He has had attacks of gout before, but this one has been unusually long and severe, while his wonderful recuperative power seems at last to have been impaired at seventy years. It is thought certain that he cannot be in his seat in the Commons this session; there are even rumors that he may resign. The close attention given to these reports testifies to the extraordinary rôle which Mr. Chamberlain plays on the English political stage. The movement against free trade, for example, is almost concentrated in his personality. Were he to withdraw from public life, Mr. Balfour and the old Tories would doubtless undergo another fiscal conversion, and the issue would quietly be dropped.

The increased representation of women in the English Trade-Union Congress has been much commented upon in the London press as being in striking contrast to the apathy and disappointment hitherto noted in the movement to organize women workers. "A women's union," says the *London Tribune*, "springs up under the stimulus of an immediate and concrete grievance, and then, after a brief hour of promise and enthusiasm, it melts away as suddenly as it came into being." This was the fate of a large number of women's reform unions during the great dock strike. Another case is that of the women pen-workers in Birmingham, who once had 600 members and now have only five left. But in certain places these growths are of a more lasting nature; for instance, the union of jute and flax-workers at Dundee, which has steadily grown until it now has 4,000 members. Of course, it is much harder to organize women than men, since many of them go into work of one kind or another merely as a temporary employment until they marry. Moreover, the greater part of women workers are cheap, inexperienced, and unspecialized labor, and with them the problems of organization are hardest of all. Since the majority of women wage-earners are not self-supporting, but live at home with their parents or their husbands, they can afford to work for

very much lower wages than men. In this connection, an investigation of the English Woman's Industrial Council has rather discredited the theory that it is the married women workers who lower the rate of wages. The belief of the Council is that the unmarried worker, living with her parents, is responsible for the low wages paid, as well as for the feeble unions.

The first of five Carnegie libraries to be founded in Islington, England, was opened with a somewhat novel declaration of policy. This library is, like the branches of our New York public library, chiefly a circulating station, but also provided with reading-room facilities. The shelves are to be open, and visitors will have the privilege of selecting their book personally, after first testing it a bit, if they choose. To reduce the casual attendance, the newspaper files are limited to two—the *Times* and one local journal. The intention is, in short, to make things as convenient as possible for a reader of books, and to offer the fewest attractions to those who merely want protection against the weather. Such a programme is in the line of progressive librarianship. In particular, the opening of the shelves is worthy of note as a considerable departure from British conservatism. Such liberality can hardly be practised in public libraries possessing many rare and valuable books; but the tendency is toward a greater confidence in the honesty and intelligence of the average reader.

The anti-noise crusaders of this country will be glad to learn that Sir James Crichton-Brown, the famous neurologist, is pleading their cause in England. He calls attention to the fact that not quantity, but quality, of sleep is important, and that sounds heard, even if not perceived, produce a definite harm. Sleep is murdered, so far as restful quality is concerned, by the blowing of whistles, the rumble of vehicles, and the like, even though the victim may not be conscious of the injury. Another English expert has recommended stringent laws against street cries, the use of horns, chimes, and signals, and proposed the requirement of rubber tires for certain vehicles and the cessation of heavy traffic between the hours of 11 P. M. and 5 A. M. Resuming the discussion, Sir James brought a special indictment against the early morning cock, the herald of dawn. But this offender is not greatly to the fore in cities, and presumably cannot be legislated either into silence or late rising. Since the law has not yet formally recognized a right either to sleep or to silence, such debates may seem theoretical. They point out, however, the course that society must take in self-defence as the strain and dangers of city life are multiplied.

THE ISSUE IN NEW YORK.

When it is stated that the voters of New York have now to choose between Charles E. Hughes and William R. Hearst for Governor, the one issue of a campaign of national interest is summed up. To talk in this State of parties is as idle as the blowing of the October breeze. The labored platforms of both conventions are already in the waste-basket, utterly forgotten. Mr. Hughes himself put the case with lucidity and precision, in his admirable telegram of acceptance, when he said that the political contest now upon us is one "to defend the honor of the State and to represent the common sense of the people and the cause of decent government." That is literally true; and simply to enforce and apply that sentiment is the one duty of the next six weeks. All that newspaper or orator can do is to point the people to Hughes and Hearst, bid them look on this picture and then on that, and ask: "Have you eyes?"

We start out with good hope because Hearst's nomination has instantly provoked, along with nausea, revolt. Hundreds of honorable Democrats openly repudiate him; thousands are saying quietly that they would no more think of voting for him than they would of forging a note. Not a reputable Democratic newspaper in this Democratic city will support him. It is not necessary to talk about organizing a Democratic bolt. The thing is automatic. Hearst has an enormous power of repulsion; and decent Democrats fly from him as people flee from pestilence. It did not need the indignant words of betrayed Democrats at Buffalo to make it plain that Hearst gets the Democratic nomination only with the party torn asunder and the worse part alone his.

Moreover, though Hearst now appears more powerful than ever before, he also appears more contemptible. The trickery, bribery, and complete surrender of his professed opinions, which have marked his course during the past few weeks, have shown him so unscrupulous as to disgust even former dupes. His crawling back into the arms of Murphy and Grady and the Sullivans not only discloses his instinctive feeling for his true associates, but his readiness to swallow his bravest words if he can gain anything thereby. His repeated attacks upon Murphy, as the greatest criminal of the age, whom he called by name a thief and the hireling of corporations, will be reproduced everywhere during this campaign, and the question will be put, as it was in the convention, "What was the price?" By what infamous bargain was Hearst led abruptly to cease his arraignment of Murphy and take his nomination solely from the hands of a man whom he had again and again declared it would be his great aim to send to

Sing Sing? Tammany has always had a bad name throughout the State, and this year the stigma of treachery and brutality is fastened upon it as never before. Into that inheritance of hatred and scorn Hearst cannot escape entering. He will go through the State carried on the back of Murphy, infamy joined to freebooting.

Most happy is the chance by which we have a man like Hughes standing against this unholy alliance. As chaos settled down upon the Buffalo convention, order and law asserted themselves at Saratoga. To oppose the candidate of upheaval, the instincts of the people sought a candidate who would embody the principle of the steady ongoing of honest government. They found him in Mr. Hughes. He is of the type to which the good sense of Americans has hitherto turned from the flighty, the vicious, the demagogue, the boss. His rise has been the work of his own hand and brain. His young manhood was given up to labor. A quiet, studious, and hard-working lawyer, he was first brought prominently into general notice as counsel in two investigations—of the gas and insurance companies—wherein his extraordinary grasp and tenacity and fearlessness were displayed to great public advantage. Especially in his insurance report, with his recommendations of needed legislation, all the essential features of which were actually enacted, did he exhibit high ability and really constructive statesmanship. This State has thus a great opportunity to put a first-class man in charge of its affairs. Mr. Hughes, with his talent for business, can take hold of the extravagantly managed government of New York, let in the light, introduce economies, strengthen efficiency, and purify administration.

Though at first glance it would seem impossible to doubt the choice of the people when it is so clear a case of Hyperion to a satyr, there should be no illusion about the contest that is upon us. Hearst has fully discounted the revolt of intelligent men. He cares not that self-respecting newspapers are against him. They present arguments and appeal to the steady and thrifty and property-owning classes, while his campaign is to be one of loud assertion, of catering to the worst elements of the population, of promising everything; and he will fling his millions into the scale with the desperation of one who knows that his whole future is put to the touch. Anticipating the defection of Democrats by the thousand, Hearst will try to make it good by winning over, by fair means or foul, the venal and the freakish and the discontented Republican vote. For the first time in our history, we have an unprincipled man, with inherited millions at his command, setting out to organize the ignorant and the vicious, to upset weak heads with

inflammatory cries, to stir up class hatreds, to ply the discontented with predictions of impossible benefits, to trust solely to the baser sort being in a majority.

Any man is blind who cannot see that this Hearst campaign, as planned, has formidable elements in it. He cannot be beaten except by hard and unintermittent work. But the issue is crystal clear; Hughes is the very man to pit against Hearst; and we trust that the sober sense of the people will give such a voice in the election that Hearst will at last learn that they are neither fools nor knaves.

"CORPORATION LAWYERS."

In an address before the Bar Association of New Hampshire on Monday Edward M. Shepard uttered some serious and timely truths about corporation lawyers. A corporation lawyer himself, he began by frankly admitting the loss of political prestige which has befallen his class. As he points out, it is an enormous change from the day when the highest legal practice was the natural road to high office. To-day, it is regarded almost as a bar to it. Mr. Roosevelt has expressed a doubt whether a corporation lawyer could ever be elected President. Yet Lincoln was a skilled corporation lawyer. He gave up, to become President, a good practice as a railroad attorney. He was prominent in the McCormick Reaper cases. Imagine the howl to-day if any party dared nominate to the Presidency the counsel to the Harvester Trust! If existing prejudices had been applied in former years, neither Webster nor Seward, neither Lincoln nor Tilden, neither Cleveland nor Harrison, could have shown large in the political firmament. They were all corporation lawyers.

Why the great difference? Mr. Shepard frankly tells his brethren some of the causes. The legal profession, with the others, has not been able to withstand the rush for wealth. Eminent lawyers now get in one year fees greater than Webster or Mason or Wright earned in a decade. They are vastly richer to-day; but Mr. Shepard inflicts only the faithful wound of a friend when he asks if they are as high-minded as the leaders of the bar used to be, as delicately conscientious, as acutely sensible of their being retained by all the people as truly as by their immediate clients? These are searching questions, and they go to the root of the present-day distrust of the men who bear away the great prizes of the legal profession.

The change is one which Mr. Bryce noted, on his last visit to this country, as having taken place among us since his first. It is the shrinking of the class of lawyer-publicists. The distinguished men at the bar used more frequently and directly to lend their great

talents to the public service. They were towers of strength in times of political crisis. Consider, for example, the sheer political weight of the late James C. Carter. As a publicist, it might have been said of him, as Mr. Choate said of him as a lawyer, that when he retired he left room for a thousand men. That type seems to be passing. What lawyer in this city can be mentioned to-day who could stand as Mr. Carter did in the Maynard campaign, and, with every sign of respect and confidence and even affection showered upon him, bid an aroused electorate care for the safety of the commonwealth at the polls? The reason is that too many able minds have given up to corporations what was meant for the service of their fellows.

And it is a corporation quite other than the kind that Lincoln served which leaves its political taint upon the lawyers whose brains it sucks while it fills their pockets. It is the law-defying corporation which needs skilled legal advice to keep its managers out of jail; it is the speculative corporation, with its lying prospectuses and gulled investors, which requires lawyers to see that justice is *not* done upon its promoters; it is, finally, the public-service corporations, acquiring franchises by bribery and defending and exploiting them by systematic political corruption—these are the corporations which have dragged down the political repute of the able lawyers they employ.

It is, of course, trite to say that corporation business has so heaped up that if a lawyer refuses to work for a corporation he will be in danger of having no work at all to do. It is also true that almost all the leading lawyers of the day have been, at one time or another, retained by a corporation. The ability of a mature lawyer who had not been would naturally be doubted. In so far, then, the general outcry against "corporation lawyers" is senseless. Nothing is more certain than that a man may be a master of corporation law without either selling his mind for money or mortgaging his soul. Indeed, he may make the noblest public use of the knowledge and skill which he has gained in the private service of corporations. This is precisely what Charles E. Hughes—to take one notable instance—has already done, and what, if elected Governor, he may be expected to do on a wider scale and to the greater advantage of the State. That complete and admirable grasp of corporation accounts, and perfect insight into corporation methods, which enabled him to tear away the disguise from the insurance looters, would put him in a position to do unsurpassed service to New York. If he makes it clear, in the course of his campaign, that his ambitions are resolutely fixed upon that kind of public benefit, the taunt of "corpora-

tion lawyer" will fall away from him harmless.

STEAMBOAT DAYS RETURNING.

Kansas City celebrated last week with bands and bunting and a great outpouring of citizens the arrival of the first steamboat that had made the trip to that city from St. Louis in more than ten years. The *Lora* with the barge *Louise* and the *Thomas H. Benton* with the barge *America* had left St. Louis on the morning of September 15, with a light cargo. How long it would take to make the trip no one knew. The navigability of the undredged and unlighted river was doubtful. As a matter of fact, the *Lora* reached Kansas City in nine days. All along the route there was the utmost solicitude over her progress. The Kansas City papers published bulletins from every little river-town she passed. Business was suspended everywhere when the *Lora* went by; and when she finally reached her destination, the men on board said their welcome was like that accorded to returned explorers.

The demonstration that a boat can still pass between Missouri's two chief cities has, indeed, been hailed with more jubilation than the recent discovery of the Northwest Passage. "The cruise of the steamer *Lora*," says the *Kansas City Star*, "has put Kansas City on the map as a 'water city.' This trial trip, insignificant in itself, yet marks an epoch in the development of this industrial centre of the Southwest." If this be so, it is an epoch brought about by an organized movement. The *Lora's* trip was not due to casual enterprise on the part of a steamboat owner. The merchants and shippers of Kansas City were fairly drummed into supporting the new line by a few enthusiasts led by Lawrence M. Jones, and the same promoter is out now to ask support in running the boats into the winter months.

The promised revival of steamboat traffic on Western rivers is exactly of a piece with the recent activity in canal building and improvement in the East. Kansas City promotes an experimental steamboat line for the same reason that New York voted for a deepened Erie Canal—in order to secure railway freight rates based upon water competition. The tremendous river and canal traffic of the early days was allowed to decline on the theory that the railway alone would supply the needs of commerce. The first steamboat, as the oldest resident was disturbed on his sickbed to recall, came to Kansas City seventy years ago, but the halcyon days of the Missouri were from 1849 till the outbreak of the civil war. There were then over fifty packets in regular service from St. Louis to Sioux City, and as many more tramp steamers from the Ohio, and various other tributaries of

the Mississippi, made occasional trips up the Missouri. Much of the early Western immigration went by this route and the boats on their return trips carried valuable cargoes of furs and buffalo robes from Montana.

What happened on the Missouri has evidently happened on the Western rivers generally, though the picturesque of old steamboat days has not entirely vanished from our American life. Mr. Howells, if memory serves, wrote in a vein of delightful enthusiasm of a steamboat journey down the Ohio, taken within the last two or three years. He found most of the charm, with few or none of the discomforts which Dickens discovered on a similar trip some forty years earlier.

But the period of liberal expenditure by the national Government and the States as well for River and Harbor improvement, has also been a period of absolute and relative decline in river shipping. Twenty-five years ago, there were owned on the Western rivers vessels having an aggregate tonnage of 394,048. Last year the corresponding figure was 174,319, considerably less than half. The decline was steady, between these dates, except for a slight rally in the early nineties. The record of vessels built shows that the type has apparently changed also. In 1903 the average tonnage of vessels built on the Mississippi and its tributaries was only 74, while only two of over 1,000 tons were built and officially numbered.

The experimental trip from St. Louis to Kansas City has been followed promptly by the announcement of the establishment of a new packet line on the same river from St. Joseph to Omaha, the first trip being set for October 15. Hay, grain, and cordwood from the country immediately along the river are expected to furnish the bulk of the freight. With the two new lines in operation, long-haul traffic will be moving all the way except for the short stretch between Kansas City and St. Joseph. With that gap bridged, and the still visionary route open from St. Louis to Lake Michigan by way of the Illinois and Desplaines Rivers and the Drainage Canal, even Omaha would have water transportation to the Great Lakes. Grain could conceivably be brought from Omaha to this port, in a shallow-draught steamer to Chicago, a lake freighter to Buffalo, and a canal-boat to New York. Presumably it never will be, but this matter of river improvement and utilization lends itself to the exercise of the imagination. Kansas City, at any rate, has the good wishes of neighboring cities, and will doubtless receive strong moral support when, as is inevitable, the *Lora's* achievement is made the excuse for asking Government money to improve the Missouri.

A SOCIALIST COLLEGE.

The Rand School of Social Science has opened in this city with an attendance of ninety. Situated on East Nineteenth Street, where the East Side joins the old residential region below Gramercy Park, it is a natural rendezvous for the professional socialists of the proletariat and the amateur socialists of the well-to-do classes. The modest property of the school backs upon a dwelling owned by Prof. Brander Matthews, so the whole region is hallowed by reform of one sort or another. Certain Columbia professors who serve on the faculty may readily lunch or sup at the nearby, Columbia Club, while the Players and National Arts clubs afford similar facilities to socialists of the parlor stamp. Within a stone's-throw is Scheffel Hall, offering for all hands a temperate conviviality. The lines of the new school have surely fallen in pleasant places.

Since the similarity of the name of this institution to that of the famous *Ecole Libre des Sciences Sociales*, at Paris, might mislead, we hasten to say that the teaching of this new college will be mainly, though not exclusively, socialistic. The secretary, and apparent actual executive, is W. J. Ghent, who has with much ingenuity and ability promulgated in America Vanderfelde's doctrine of parasitism. As a writer, Mr. Ghent is serious, well documented, and, for an avowed special pleader, both candid and not devoid of humor. He may be counted on to keep the school wide of the direr abysses of vague humanitarianism and also of the uninhabitable heights of perfectionist doctrinarism. If held to a sensible middle way, the school may be a valuable educative force far beyond the limits of titular socialism.

While utterly opposed to the teaching of Socialism, whether in its dilettante or militant phases, we can but sincerely wish the new enterprise long life and all success. It will do good if it merely disabuses good people of crude imaginings about the socialist movement. A look at Mr. Ghent, Prof. F. H. Giddings, or D. S. Muzzey will convince the most timorous conservative that Socialism does not connote dynamite bombs beneath the tails of the bourgeois frock coat which even the emancipated affect. Then, actual contact between the socialists of the once brownstone districts and those of the unnumbered streets cannot but do good. Those charming amateurs who are socialists because their hearts are too warm or their nerves over-taut will learn something when they study the programme of the real socialists and observe the tactics of class warfare near at hand. The experience should send the majority back to their clubs and sewing circles—the school knows no discrimination between the sexes—or forward to their logical

destination, genuine Internationalism. In short, the lectures and, even more, the daily associations of the school, should make powerfully against the prevailing cheap sentimentalism.

From the point of view of teacher and student, a socialist college should be nearly ideal, unless, indeed, the various forms of perfectionism breed new kinds of academic odiums and incompatibilities. But we have no heart to prognosticate head-breaking between, say, the "reds" and "yellows." In fact, the most violent partisanship is usually found among reactionaries—witness those Roman Catholic gymnasians who for days heckled M. Izoulet at the Collège de France, the new professor being reputed to be a Socialist and known to be a Dreyfusard. We anticipate no trouble of this sort for the Rand School; in fact, its socialists should, as we have said, be fairly ideal students. We can imagine none who more urgently need education, and none who are more earnestly bent on getting it. There will unquestionably be an educational zeal among them that might put the indifference of many an ancient foundation to shame.

And we are willing to believe that the zeal will be tempered with discretion. There is something sobering about the riere routine of teaching. To come indoors and reason together means a resort to rational method, and, in a certain measure, an offset to that intemperate vituperation of the rich which is the staple of curbstone propaganda. Confident that the axioms of Socialism are fallacious, and its programme accordingly without substantial promise, we are equally willing to admit that it is a doctrine which may be supported by strong argument, and as such deserves respect. Its diagnosis of social ills is based, we believe, on a misinterpretation, yet on actual observations of social facts; its forecast of a collectivist state is founded, if erroneously, on study of the economic drift towards concentration of both capital and political power. If it appeals too much to class animosity, it aims at least to control the wild beast it evokes for tactical purposes. Fundamentally, its plea is a rational one, which, if honored on insufficient light, may also be repudiated on better thinking or information. It is because of its essentially rational character that we believe that Socialism will provide its own antidote, while doing much to furnish that mainstay of a free state—a proletariat intellectually quickened.

The teachings of such a college should weigh powerfully against the really pernicious agitation of the more dangerous demagogues. The unreasoning discontent and hatred of wealth inculcated by benevolent but irresponsible orators; the combination of spineless sentimentalism and social animosity produced by

the demagogic press—these are the contagion that really threatens the republic. Compared with this, the modest establishment in Nineteenth Street, with its ambitious purpose of upsetting all existing political and commercial institutions, appears a very bulwark of our institutions. An error that springs from a false step in reasoning may be cured by reason, but who shall undertake to confute the wilder fallacies of the heart?

A CHANCE FOR THE BIRDS.

The Hamburg authorities have decided to appoint a special "Vogelwart," whose duty it will be to study and utilize the best schemes for preserving bird life. This important step, which, it is hoped, will be taken as a precedent by other governing bodies, is prompted by the International Association of Women for the Protection of Birds. The German branch, which has nearly doubled its membership within a year, has just issued its "Jahrbuch" for 1905, a volume of 120 pages, containing some startling figures as to the wholesale slaughter of birds in various countries. Italy, Dalmatia, Belgium, the United States, Morocco, Egypt, and Turkey lead in this war of extermination. In Italy alone, perhaps 200,000,000 useful or ornamental birds are killed annually; the number of nests destroyed exceeds, according to the secretary of the Florence branch of the association, 12,000,000, which means the loss of another 50,000,000 birds. In Madrid, it is estimated, some 300,000 larks, robins, finches, and other birds are served daily as food. In four-fifths of the area of the United States birds with beautiful feathers have been nearly exterminated.

Though our country figures in the list as one of the chief culprits, there is reason to believe that the tide has turned, and that the birds here have once more a chance to live and multiply. While there are, of course, no statistics, observers have noted during the past spring and summer that there are more songsters in our meadows and trees than a few years ago. For this result, thanks are due largely to the work of the Audubon Society. The first duty of its members is to discountenance the use by women of all feathers except those of the ostrich and of domestic fowls. The society's report for 1905 indicates a gain of 250 per cent. in its receipts over those of the preceding year; of this money excellent use is made. Much has been done in the way of influencing legislatures to pass laws for the protection of songsters and game birds. There are already six reservations, where birds are guarded during the breeding season. The Louisiana branch has taken a lease of twenty-two islands, each of which is the breeding place of large colonies of birds, such as Laughing Gulls, Foster's Common, Royal

and Cabot's Terns, and Black Skimmers. The number of wardens has been steadily increased. A stream of educational leaflets is issuing from the headquarters, at No. 141 Broadway. Clubs are being formed in schools, and in awakening an interest among children lies the greatest hope of the permanency of the Audubon movement.

Through the work of the society, farmers are impressed anew with the importance of birds as enemies of the destructive insects and worms, whose ravages are annually increasing. Foresters are appealed to in view of the damage done, and the much greater damage threatened, by caterpillars. "No Shooting" signs have been distributed in large numbers to landholders, by which means protection has been provided on many large farms and on estates near towns and cities. Perhaps the greatest triumph has been the agreement of the wholesale milliners of New York and Chicago not to sell native or imported song birds for a period of three years. How this plan works, is illustrated in the report from Oregon. Grebe hunting was abruptly stopped in that State on receipt of word from the Milliners' Association that no more of the skins would be bought. The Pacific islands, with their birds of brilliant plumage, are included in the work of the Audubon Society. Of special interest in the current report is a remark made in the section devoted to Maine by Warden Harlow of the Mount Kineo region. "While sportsmen are generally inclined," he says, "to respect bird life, there are quite a number of instances where thoughtlessness leads them to shoot at our song-birds merely as targets." This has done much to decimate the birds; but there is undoubtedly a reaction.

One influence has been exerted by the numerous articles and books recently written to show that shooting animals with the camera is infinitely more fascinating than the use of the rifle. This enterprise calls into play all the best manly qualities of endurance, sets one's wits against the cunning of wild animals, and gives all the excitement and pleasure of pursuit without that "half-defined feeling of repentance and sorrow" which comes to hunters when their quarry lies dead before them. An excellent illustration of this method of hunting with the camera is provided by an article, to which we referred at the time of publication, "Photographing Wild Game with Flashlight and Camera," by the Hon. George Shiras, in the July number of the *National Geographic Magazine*.

There are certain animals which remain as legitimate prey of those who prefer the rifle to the camera: woodchucks, for instance, and the wily crows, which destroy birds' eggs and are, often more than is generally known, devastating visitors in the chicken yards. Squirrels,

too, must not be allowed to become too numerous; they eat eggs and young birds that have escaped the deadly cold storms of early summer. The worst enemy of birds, apart from man, is the domestic cat. One, at a low estimate, will devour every year fifty birds in the nesting season on a single farm. A cat tax would doubtless do much to help the multiplication of birds. Pending its enactment, those who love to see and hear birds near their houses would do well to follow the suggestion made in a recent book, that the house cat be prevented from roaming about during the time when young birds essay their first flight, by confining her within a large enclosure of wire netting.

GENUINE PHONETIC SPELLING.

George Bernard Shaw, in a letter to the *London Times*, buffets the simple spellers to the top of his Irish bent. To the changes proposed, he objects that they are not simplified spelling, but "shortened spelling," which leaves a child or a foreigner quite as much in the dark as before. The whole business, he continues, is trifling, not touching the real issue, which is to spell as we pronounce. Granted the desirability of a phonetic alphabet, it is evident that the gradual reforms proposed by Mr. Carnegie's committee are ludicrously inadequate. To the present list of 300 "reformed" words, thrice that number might be added, and we should still be little nearer a spelling transparent to the foreigner or child. These half measures Mr. Shaw, as a cheerful iconoclast, heartily despises; for him, genuine phonetic spelling.

This is the sincere milk of the word. Mr. Shaw is merely giving wings and a voice of brass to the cause that such quiet scholars as Ellis, Alexander M. Bell, Henry Sweet, Vietor, Paul Passy, and others have been advocating for a generation. These specialists have set themselves the task of ascertaining all the sounds of human speech and of establishing fixed and unmistakable symbols therefor. Phonetics has become a science, an indispensable adjunct to philology, a recognized means of recording dialects, for example, and an approved device for teaching the pronunciation of modern language. Many, not all, of the phoneticians believe the science transcends these erudite uses and wish to make phonetic spelling universal. Under such a dispensation, we should all write precisely as we speak, noting our individual peculiarities of pronunciation. To this end perfect alphabets have been devised; and if we cannot tell whither Professor Brander Matthews's colleagues will lead us, we can tell to a dot what Mr. Shaw means to do to the language.

Turn we, then, to Henry Sweet's "Primer of Phonetics," the best author-

ity on the subject, and learn what the innocent simplifiers, did they but know it, have in store for us. Mr. Sweet, be it noted, has two alphabets—one a transitional scheme, calculated for those who are devoted to the old spelling; the other for those who would be genuinely and progressively phonetic. He illustrates from the following Ollendorffian predication:

People used to think the earth was a kind of flat cake, with the sea all round it; but we know now that it is really round, like a ball—not quite round, but a little flattened, like an orange.

For the benefit of weak-kneed reformers, this may be spelled phonetically in the following makeshift fashion, the texts running line for line:

pijpl tjwz -tə :pijnk -ði 'æp -wəz -ə :kaɪnd -ɒv
'flæt 'keɪk', -wɪð -ðə 'sɪj -ɔl raʊnd -ɪt ; -bət -wɪj 'nəʊ
'nəʊ -ðət -ɪts 'ri:əl raʊnd', 'laɪk -ə 'bɔ:l -nɒt 'kwɑɪt
'raʊnd', -bət -ə 'ɪlɪl 'flætnd', 'laɪk -ən 'ɒrɪŋz'.

As a golden middle way, Dr. Sweet feels that this does well enough; Mr. Shaw, as a foe of compromise, is bound to repudiate any such orthographical *modus vivendi*. He desires that the "President and Board take the bull by the horns . . . and enlarge the alphabet until our consonants and vowels . . . are separately defined," stipulating also that the new letters "be designed by an artist with a fully developed sense of beauty in writing and printing." But Mr. Shaw seems to be unaware that the very thing exists in the "visible speech" invented by the late Professor Bell. It is theoretically perfect, each symbol being an exact signal to the organs of articulation. It is comely also, bearing a remote resemblance to Coptic calligraphy. Here, then, is our geographical thesis again, in the spelling to which all convinced phoneticians and simplifiers do or should aspire. Here is the real simplicity for which "G. B. S." agonizes:

ə:ntəs nɪs -ɔl 'vɪs -vɪ- 'tʃ -sɪz -l :ə:ntəs
'lɪ -sɪz 'vɪz -ɔl 'vɪs -vɪ- 'tʃ -sɪz -l :ə:ntəs
'lɪ -sɪz 'vɪz -ɔl 'vɪs -vɪ- 'tʃ -sɪz -l :ə:ntəs
'lɪ -sɪz 'vɪz -ɔl 'vɪs -vɪ- 'tʃ -sɪz -l :ə:ntəs
'lɪ -sɪz 'vɪz -ɔl 'vɪs -vɪ- 'tʃ -sɪz -l :ə:ntəs

In all seriousness, the proposals of the Simplified Spelling Board either mean a systematic advance in this direction, or they mean a purposeless and futile meddling with a language that is doing very well. It is fair to say that of the thirty-odd members all but half a dozen are quite guiltless of phonetics. The miscellaneous dignitaries on the Board have, indeed, only a casual knowledge of the history of the English language. In fact, the curious and disheartening thing is that a literary body should seem so dull to the necessary and eternal distinction between the spoken and written language—between colloquial and literary English.

It is an indication of both the narrowness of our modern philological training, and the bluntness of the average literary susceptibility, that it should be nec-

essary to labor such a point. But the myopic zeal of the phoneticians and the cheapening of the literary language by over-production have brought about real confusion. Ever since human speech has been written at all, "to talk like a book" has been a reproach; to write absolutely as one talks has been reserved, we believe, for our own day, and the author of the "Billy Baxter Letters" has possibly founded a school. In English, however, the colloquial language still includes little more than a thousand words, the literary some twenty thousand, and we properly refuse to tolerate from the pulpit or lecture platform the locutions we readily admit in the street. And the criterion of the book language is not the ear, but the eye. Spelling, if learned at all, is picked up incidentally from much reading. How much nonsense is talked about saving the time of the child can be perceived only when it is recalled that those who command only the colloquial language rarely learn to spell at all—even in the most phonetic tongues. In other words, the evil of inconsistent and illogical spelling is largely imaginary. Those who read much and well will spell well enough unless, indeed, they belong to the large class of congenital cacographers.

Of course, there are those who say that there ought to be no such distinction between spoken and written English—let us call it heard and seen English—and that heard English as the living reality ought to go straight into the books, each author mouthing as he will and duly recording his individual pronunciation. With such an expression of benevolent anarchy we have no wish to argue. Suffice it to say that the simple spellers are so far behind this teaching as to have justly acquired "G. B. S.'s" scorn, whereas the aggressive phoneticians are in such an unqualifiedly superior attitude to the mere facts of language that this literary socialist seems almost their predestined champion.

THE PRESENT POSITION OF LATIN AND GREEK.

This article is an argument neither for nor against classical studies. It has no concern with their intrinsic merits or defects as instruments of discipline and culture, and none with their value, in comparison with other studies. It is, rather, an attempt to present certain facts concerning their present position in our secondary schools and colleges, together with comments thereon from the point of view of the practical administration of those institutions.

Since the pessimists as to the future of Latin and Greek are numerous, and since they are able to cite rather disturbing evidence for their opinions, it is worth while to recall this evidence at the outset. First of all, there is the present status of the A.B. degree. Time was when the course leading to this degree involved a consid-

erable amount of prescribed Latin and Greek. This is the case no longer. It is now possible to obtain the A.B. at most colleges of the first rank, and many lesser ones, without an hour's study of either language. Many colleges still require a small amount of Latin—one or two-fifteenths of the total work for the degree—but even in these the prescription of undergraduate Greek is rare. This abandonment of required classical study has been accompanied by the enlargement of the circle of liberal studies. Most of these studies—English, German, French, Spanish, political economy, history, government, the natural sciences, and others—are not new. The important point is that, under present conditions, the student may follow any one of them for several successive years, instead of the half-year or year formerly allotted to them. Thus, for the first time in our history, they have attained a dignity formerly held by the classics alone.

The enlargement of the group of liberal studies and the increased dignity of the newer members have been emphasized recently by the growing tendency of colleges to abandon the degrees of Ph.B., B.L., B.Litt., and even of S.B., and to grant the single degree of A.B. for all undergraduate work. To many observers the introduction of real competitors for the time and attention of students, together with freedom of choice among them, seems to be a further step in pushing classical studies to the wall.

Again, the new policy regarding entrance requirements seems to be adverse to the classics. This also is marked by the general abandonment of required Latin or Greek, and by the demand for real attainments in other subjects. In 1870 Cornell demanded from all entering the A.B. course the whole of Cæsar, the entire "Æneid," six orations of Cicero, three books of the "Anabasis," one book of Homer, and Latin and Greek composition and grammar. The remaining requirements were arithmetic, elementary—very elementary—algebra, plane geometry, and a contemptible smattering of ancient history, geography, and English grammar. Substantially the same requirements were made by Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Michigan, and Columbia. Cornell and Michigan now require neither Greek nor Latin; Princeton is the only institution which requires Greek. So late as 1897 nearly three-fourths—more than three hundred—of the colleges in the country specified Greek as an entrance requirement. Undoubtedly, in many cases, this was merely a catalogue requirement, in emulation of larger colleges, but few of these institutions now make it even on paper. Two to four years of preparatory Latin are still very generally required, but it is possible to take the A.B. in institutions of the highest rank with no knowledge whatever even of preparatory Latin. The modern theory in its extreme form is that four years' really solid study of any group of secondary subjects of reasonable variety is a sufficient preparation for college. Stanford University, for instance, publishes a list of about thirty-eight subjects, of which the student must choose from six to ten, including English. Harvard, much more conservative, requires English, algebra, geometry, one ancient and one modern language, history, a natural science, and

advanced work representing a year's study in each of at least two of the foregoing branches. English is no longer the tag-end of the examination; it stands on precisely the same footing as Latin. Only occasionally is less than a year's solid study of any other subject accepted, while German and French must be pursued for two years each. It is safe to say that in 1870 students who could pass in Latin, Greek, and mathematics were never seriously troubled by examiners about the other subjects, and that a few days of study were sufficient to get them up. The importance of this development of modern subjects, with the freedom to choose them for entrance, must be emphasized. It is perfectly fair to say that much later than 1870 the classics were supreme, partly because here again they had no real competitors. This advantageous position they no longer hold.

Turning from college studies and entrance examinations to the secondary schools, the situation appears to be no better. Either the outline of a solid classical programme is lost through the adoption of a system partly or wholly elective, or if it exists, it is flanked by schools or programmes devoted chiefly to modern studies. This state of affairs is not new; on the contrary, it is nearly a century old. But only within twenty-five years have the modern subjects been standardized, their methods and resources developed, and their teachers trained, to a point even approaching equality with teachers of the classics. The latter held the advantages of centuries of scholarly work in these directions, as well as those of position, social prestige, and repute. These advantages they are now rapidly losing.

It is clear that in practice, as well as in theory, we have come to a radically new administration of liberal studies, and that Latin and Greek no longer necessarily hold a dominant place—or even any place at all—therein. On the foregoing presentation the pessimist appears to be justified in his views. The classics seem to be dethroned, and even discredited. With this view the writer disagrees. Not one of the facts cited above touches the heart of the situation; the important facts remain to be considered. For clearness Latin and Greek will be treated separately.

In number of students alone, Greek appears to be declining slowly, in the face of a general increase in the secondary school and college population. In the high schools, in 1898, students of Greek numbered 25,000; in 1904—the latest data at hand—there were 18,447. For several years previous to 1898 the number had been practically stationary. The first statistics of college students were collected in 1900-01, in which year the number of students of Greek was 16,218. In 1904, it was 14,729. The total college population of these years was 103,000 and 118,000 respectively (round numbers). Whether this is a permanent decline remains to be seen. The abandonment of prescribed Greek for college entrance has probably not greatly influenced the decline. Greek is still protected, and well protected, at most colleges by being given more credit for a given amount of study than any other subject. This is a real protection. At Harvard, where it is optional, most candidates for admission nevertheless offer elementary Greek, and 43 per cent. of them choose ad-

vanced Greek out of a list of ten elective subjects. At Yale, the alternatives are so exacting that Greek is in effect proscribed. A real cause for the diminution in numbers is probably the prosperity of Latin in secondary schools. A word of explanation will make this clear. Most schools cannot maintain separate teachers of Greek; the work is done by teachers of Latin. Greek classes are commonly small—often of half a dozen students or less; Latin classes are large, and growing larger. From an administrative point of view, the teacher's time and strength should be devoted to the subjects much demanded, hence the tendency to extinction of the small classes. This tendency holds good of all little-chosen subjects, and it probably accounts in part for the relative disappearance of Greek.

But there is much for encouragement in the situation. Greek teachers are probably better trained than ever before, and their efforts are turned in more profitable directions. There is a growing tendency to study the language as literature rather than as an exercise in grammar. How little has this been done in practice, and how often has it been recommended since the days of Quintilian! We are on the right road, though even the next generation may not reach the goal. College entrance examinations are tests of power to read Greek at sight, rather than tests of memory and knowledge of grammatical rules. College courses in Greek have never been more numerous, nor have Greek studies ever been carried so far. Denouncers of the elective system must not forget that that system means liberty to extend the study of the classics as well as liberty for other studies, and that no feasible proscribed system could possibly give them the freedom in that respect which they now enjoy.

Latin flourishes in the secondary schools almost beyond belief. In 1894 there were roughly 480,000 secondary students in the United States, of whom 43.59 per cent. were studying Latin; in 1904 the numbers were 822,000 and 49.96 per cent. respectively. The observer is at once struck by the enormous increase in the secondary population and the still greater increase in the number of Latin students. Further study of the facts only emphasizes these points. Tracing the figures backward from 1894, one finds a steadily diminishing number of secondary students, and a generally lower percentage of them giving attention to Latin. This subject is now more generally pursued than any other except algebra and English. While it shows both absolute and relative increase in numbers, many other subjects—notably the natural sciences—show relative decline. Indeed, it is clear that something must be done soon if physics, chemistry, and biology are to make a respectable showing twenty-five years hence. Latin teachers too are better and better trained. They are slowly getting away from the ideals of the Hinterschlag Gymnasium, so eloquently described in "Sartor Resartus," to the study of Latin as literature. College entrance examinations, like those of Greek, are real tests of power, rather than of linguistic cram; and similarly, under the freedom of the elective system, the college courses in Latin have been vastly extended. In 1870 the classical department at Harvard had the sup-

posed advantage of proscribed Latin and Greek, which it lacks in 1906. Yet now, with less than double the number of students which it had in 1870, its staff of professors has been multiplied by three, and it offers more than five times the number of courses offered thirty-six years ago. This case is, of course, exceptional; but in a less degree the advancement of the subject has been going on at many other institutions. The number of Latin students in college remained fairly constant from 1901 to 1904, the figures being, for the two years, 27,219, and 26,056 respectively. Much of the decline is probably due to the fact that fewer freshmen are conditioned in the subject on entrance, and do not, therefore, appear in the elementary classes.

The abolition of required Latin for entrance at Cornell has had little effect on the number of students offering it. Only an insignificant minority offer other subjects in its stead. Indeed, President Schurman declares that should there be danger of a wholesale desertion of Latin it would be restored to the status of prescription. Unless all signs fail, the number of students offering Latin for entrance, even to those institutions which do not require it, is constantly increasing. The fears that the elective system would encourage a wholesale rush for easy subjects are by no means justified. As a psychological fact, students of all ages will, and do, freely choose and stand by subjects known to be difficult, when the same subjects proscribed would win from them only a tardy attention.

In the face of these facts there may be some who still long for a return to the "traditional A.B. curriculum." This "traditional A.B." exists only in the imaginations of persons ignorant of the history of education, but let that pass. What would be the effect of a return to a proscribed curriculum involving much Latin and Greek, and to entrance requirements similarly narrow? Should we not vastly improve the present situation of the classics? The writer answers, No. He believes that such a move would result in the practical extinction both of the classics and of the A.B. degree. This has, in fact, been nearly the experience of several institutions which have made the attempt, not to restore, but merely to maintain, long established requirements. The following table shows this most forcibly:

MICHIGAN.		
	1891.	1900.
A.B. degrees conferred	55	68
Other first degrees (Litt.B., Ph.B., S.B.)	94	231
CORNELL.		
A.B. degrees conferred	23	53
Others, as above	164	237
WISCONSIN.		
A.B. degrees conferred	11	21
Others, as above	80	196
CALIFORNIA.		
A.B. degrees conferred	11	38
Others, as above	43	183

In these cases it is clear that the number of students for the A.B. degree has remained small, preventing expansion of courses, and the more advanced study of the classics, while they have been overshadowed by the growth in numbers seeking other degrees. Less conspicuously, but not less effectively, the new degrees have gained upon the A.B. even in institutions

where the latter has been particularly strong. Far-sighted administrators of college affairs have seen for years that the effective preservation of the A.B., and all that goes with it, can be secured only by broadening the terms on which it may be obtained, and on which students may matriculate for it. Michigan, Cornell, Wisconsin, and other universities have already moved in this direction with gratifying results. The adoption of the policies mentioned at the beginning of this paper was merely formal recognition of a need already urgent. As President Eliot has repeatedly pointed out, changes of this kind are commonly brought about by changes in our national life and thought quite beyond the control of college or university. In the long run, these institutions, as well as the secondary school, must adapt themselves to new conditions if they would survive. It is not merely ridiculous, but impossible, to uphold a scheme of education which no longer commands the respect of the public. And though we may never again see the classics dominating liberal studies as of old, we need not fear for their future. "The argument as to the merit of Greek," said President Eliot, "simply proves to me that the study of it by competent persons will never cease. . . . Can any of us believe that the classical departments of our universities are going to become weak and feeble, and that little money is to be spent on them? Not if we believe in the supreme excellence of the Greek period, and its fruits."

ARTHUR O. NORTON.
Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

Correspondence.

EXCAVATIONS AT SPARTA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The British Archaeological School at Athens has undertaken some important excavations this year upon the site of ancient Sparta. Sparta has long been regarded as a promising place for excavations, but has so far been neglected, because an extensive olive grove covers the ancient city, and the expense necessary to remove this has been regarded as an effective barrier to complete exploration of the site. In 1892 Dr. Waldstein, at that time director of the American School, uncovered the theatre, and did some digging at the so-called "Tomb of Leonidas" and in a few other places, but since then little or nothing was done until last spring. The British archaeologists were attracted to the site by the fact that for some time small lead figures, said to have been found in the vicinity, were offered for sale by children at Sparta. A member of the British School—I believe Mr. Wace—induced one child to show him where they were found, and was guided to a place in the river bed about half a mile below the bridge where the stream passed close to considerable remains of Roman concrete. After a preliminary examination of this site, Mr. Bosanquet, the director of the school, decided to begin at this spot the excavations which have turned out so promising.

It was evident at once that a rather important Roman building had stood there, but not enough of it remained to determine

what it was. The excavators conjectured that it might be the circular building seen by Leake, but sought for in vain by later travellers. As they dug down they came across a number of inscribed slabs of the second century A. D., recording the dedication of *strigils* to Artemis Orthia. This made it clear that they had found one of the landmarks of Sparta, the temple of Artemis Orthia, where the Spartan youths were flogged. Below the dedication on each slab was a cutting into which the *strigil* was fitted, and one slab was found with the rusty *strigil* still in place. Further down a great mass of concrete, a metre and a half thick, was uncovered. When the excavators at length broke through this they found below it foundation walls and quantities of potsherds of the Corinthian style, mixed with which were a number of bronzes and ivories, and some very interesting terra-cotta masks; and lower still were great quantities of geometric sherds also accompanied by bronzes, among which were a number of *fibulae* ornamented with four spirals. In both layers enormous quantities of the small lead figures were found. The concrete was so thick and so difficult to remove that the excavators could do little more than sink pits through it at different points, but they found everywhere deposits of the same character and the same richness. For the thick layer of concrete, like the crust of a pie, had fortunately preserved the interior absolutely intact.

The most interesting objects found were the terra-cotta masks. These are life size, and in some cases look almost like death masks. Forty whole ones and parts of about sixty others had been taken out up to the time when the excavations closed. Next in importance are the small lead figures. A few of these had found their way to the National Museum at Athens and to the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford, before the excavations began. They are as a rule about an inch and a half high and cut out of sheet lead. There are about fifty different types of soldiers, some mounted, some on foot, female figures, and great quantities of small wreaths. The excavators estimate that they have already found about 7,000 wreaths and 3,000 or more figures. When one considers that the site has only been tapped, so to speak, the number of objects which will eventually come to light is truly amazing.

Not enough has been uncovered yet to permit a study of the walls, but the west end of one building was found which the excavators thought to be the end of one of the temples, though not the earliest.

Mr. Bosanquet and his assistants were not content to devote all their time to the temple, but have explored the whole area of the ancient city very carefully. Pits sunk along the river bank between the temple and the bridge show the same deposits of pottery, and prove that one of the earliest Spartan villages was located here. And here I might say that the vase fragments show local peculiarities, a fact which seems to prove that they were made on the spot. Other excavations have been undertaken at the theatre, where one end of the stage has apparently been found. Several large sculptured blocks, with garlands extending from one *boucranon* to another, were uncovered here; also a number of inscriptions, including one with the

rare name of the Emperor Florian and another giving rules for the games called the Leonidea. It is expected that other inscriptions referring to these games will be brought to light, as several bases for *stelae* have already been found.

Furthermore, the town wall which enclosed Sparta in later times has been followed for practically its entire length. Beginning at the Artemiseum it ran up stream nearly to the bridge, and then across to the Magoula, and down by that stream. This shows that the ancient city was of much greater extent than has hitherto been supposed. The wall was of unbaked brick, covered with tiles, and had the usual stone foundation. Several tiles inscribed *δημοσίου τείχους* were found; and in one place the remains of a building, probably the temple of Eilyeithuia, as a tile was found bearing the local name of that goddess in the genitive. Trial pits have been dug in a number of other places, and some tombs opened, but nothing more of especial importance discovered.

The site is so large and has shown itself interesting in so many places that it will probably be several years before the excavators will feel that they have exhausted it. The British School is certainly to be congratulated upon its good fortune, and all archaeologists will look forward with anticipation to the renewal of the excavations under the new director, Mr. Dawkins, next spring.

WILLIAM N. BATES.

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia,
September 24.

LEARNING LATIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to express my thorough agreement with Professor Lodge in your issue of August 30, in the matter of acquiring a Latin vocabulary. The fact that this is a difficult matter only makes it the more important that the teacher should, in every possible way, aid the student. That the chief aim in the study of Latin is acquaintance with the literature, in no way obviates the necessity of learning to read the language and of learning this quickly and thoroughly. If Latin is ever to have the place in higher education that of right belongs to it, the student must acquire in the high-school course far more reading ability than at present. He must come to college with such power that he can in reality take up the study of the Roman literature. The modification of our present methods which more than any other will tend to bring about this desirable result is just this giving attention to the acquisition of a larger vocabulary.

But there is another improvement in most Latin teaching only second in importance to that proposed by Professor Lodge. It has been observed that the freshman's knowledge of the grammar has very little connection with his ability to read Latin. A freshman usually knows his declensions; he may be able to tell with some prompting the principal uses of the cases; but in my own experience, I have never yet found a freshman who could tell what were his grounds for deciding that a certain dative or ablative or accusative had a certain use or meaning. Indeed, the method commonly employed seems to be to guess at the

meaning of the form, and then to see if it makes sense. Now, an inflectional form having more than one possible meaning presents a problem to be solved, and it would seem necessary that the student should have a detailed knowledge of the methods by which the solution is to be reached. He must, in fact, have more; he must have the skill that comes only from the frequent conscious application of these methods.

If we examine the text-books, we may not be surprised at this lack of information on the part of the freshman. The grammar and the beginner's book may give him the uses of the cases and of other forms; the notes to his edition of Cæsar, Cicero, or Vergil, may occasionally tell him that the use of a certain case is this or that; but neither in grammar, beginner's book, nor notes, does the student find direct specific instructions for distinguishing one use of the ablative from another, or of one use of a conjunction from another. Whatever skill he gets in this direction, he gets with no thanks to his text-books. And unless his teacher helps him greatly, whatever he gets is haphazard and nearly worthless.

Latin is a difficult language for two reasons. The vocabulary is difficult of acquisition, and every sentence, almost every word, presents a problem, the solution of which requires the application of certain grammatical knowledge, the body of which is after all not so large as we commonly think. That students may learn to read the language, it is necessary that direct systematic instruction be given, looking to the acquisition of a vocabulary. It is also necessary that the same kind of instruction and guidance be given in the acquiring of skill in the application of grammatical knowledge.

FRANK H. FOWLER.

Lombard College, Galesburg, Ill., September 22.

EDITING CONSULAR REPORTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Do you realize the manner in which the Daily Consular Reports are now being "edited" in the interest of Trust-made tariff and ship subsidies?

Here is one of those innocent little editorials in the Consular Reports:

The large subsidy paid to the Cunard Line, and the loan of money at low rates of interest to build new ships, was proof enough of the British fear of the German lines, which are favored by aid from their Government.

Here is another:

One noticeable feature of consular reports is the frequent mention of arrangements made by foreign Governments to extend their foreign trade by increased transportation facilities, and the repeated complaint of the lack of such facilities for American exporters. In many parts of the world American products are practically excluded because of the frequent transfers necessary in shipping, the consequent long delay in filling orders, and the high cost of transportation. By increased shipping facilities Canada has greatly added to her trade, as have Germany and other progressive countries. The expressions of regret on the part of consuls and other representatives of the United States abroad because of a lack of direct transportation are creditable to them.

I read the consular reports daily and I have failed to find any such frequency of complaints. On the other hand several

consuls have taken occasion to commend the transportation facilities.

Read this from the "editorial" department of the Reports:

Mr. Heingartner, deputy consul at Trieste, says that he cannot understand why American goods of the same kind cannot be sold in Austria as well as those of British make. That is a little puzzling. But lower wages enable the British to produce many articles cheaper than can be done in the United States, and better steamship communication gives them another advantage.

Now, as matter of fact the consul said that the goods would be sold all right if an American manufacturer would establish a store or agency of his own in Trieste, and said nothing about the lack of transportation facilities affecting our trade there. In fact, he said that a large stock of poor suspenders was offered at a high price; what was wanted was good suspenders at fair price. A line of steamers runs between New York and Trieste, with at least two sailings per month, and sometimes as many as four; what more is needed?

Here is another editorial intended to quiet the clamor against Trusts:

A new Trust composed "of the whole of the hinge makers of Great Britain," as reported by the London *Times*, has recently been formed "to put an end to underselling." Trusts are increasing at present more rapidly in the United Kingdom than in the United States, despite the lack of a protective tariff in the former country.

It is about time that the "editor" of the Reports let them speak for themselves, and injected a little less of his partisan bias into them.

W. S. NEVINS.

Salem, Mass., September 24.

VOLTAIRE'S FAITH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Silas Orrin Howes, in your issue of August 16, asks for the source of Voltaire's statement, "I die adoring God, etc." He will find it in the "Œuvres complètes de Voltaire," Paris, 1828, édition Delangle Frères, Vol. I., page 437.

JEAN CHARLEMAGNE BRACQ.

Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., September 22.

Notes.

The Clarendon Press of Oxford (New York: Henry Frowde) issues a long list of books in preparation. Among those which will be published before Christmas are the following: "Louis XI. et Charles le Téméraire," by Michelet, edited by E. Renault; "Les Journées de Juin," by Stern, edited by C. N. Nagel; "Lettres Parisiennes," by Madame de Girardin, edited by F. de Baudiss; "Société Française," by Cousin, edited by A. Bentinck-Smith; "Hernani," by Victor Hugo; Sainte-Beuve's "Essays," selections, edited by D. Ll. Savory; "Pierrette," by Balzac, edited by T. de Sélincourt; "La Mer," by Michelet, edited by W. Robertson; "Eugénie Grandet," by Balzac, edited by H. E. Berthon; "Racine et Shakespeare," by De Stendhal, edited by Leon Delbos; "The Menæxenus" of Plato, edited by J. A. Shawyer; Plautus's "Mossellaria," edited by E. A. Sonnenschein;

Martial, books vii.-xii., edited by R. T. Bridge and E. D. C. Lake; "Wisa Handbook," by A. C. Madan; "Primitive and Mediæval Japanese Texts," edited with English translation, introductions, notes, and glossaries, by F. V. Dickins; Knyvett's "Defence of the Realme," with introduction by C. Hughes; Howell's "Devises" and Peacham's "Compleat Gentleman," with introductions by W. A. Raleigh; Greville's "Life of the Renowned Sir Philip Sidney," with introduction by N. C. Smith; Evelyn's "Sculptura" and Pepys's "Memoires of the Royal Navy," with introductions by C. F. Bell; Coleridge's "Biographia Literaria," edited by J. Shawcross; "The Shirburn Ballads," edited by Andrew Clark; "Frederick York Powell," his life, with a selection from his letters and occasional writings, by Oliver Elton; "Life and Letters of Sir Henry Wotton," edited by L. Pearsall-Smith; "The Dawn of Modern Geography," vol. iii., by C. R. Beazley; "The Evolution of Culture and Other Essays," by the late Lieut.-Gen. A. Lane-Fox Pitt-Rivers, edited by J. L. Myres, with an introduction by Henry Balfour; "Hermann von Helmholtz," by Leo Koenigsberger, translated by Frances A. Welby, with preface to the English edition by Lord Kelvin; "A Catalogue of the Herbarium of Dillenius," by G. Claridge Druce, with the assistance of H. H. Vines; Æschylus, the seven plays in English verse, by Lewis Campbell; "Montaigne: A Study," by R. Warwick Bond; "Christabel," by Samuel Taylor Coleridge, illustrated by a facsimile of the MS, and by notes by Ernest Hartley Coleridge; "Corolla Numismatica," numismatic essays in honor of Barclay V. Head; "Reason, Thought, and Language, or The Many and the One," a revised system of logical doctrine under the forms of idiomatic discourse, by Douglas Maclean; "Handbook of the Ila Language," by the Rev. E. W. Smith.

The American Baptist Publication Society announces for fall publication "Odds and Ends from Pagoda Land," by Dr. W. C. Griggs; "A Short History of the Baptists," by Prof. Henry C. Vedder; "The Message of Hosea and the Twentieth Century," by the Rev. B. A. Copass; "The Book of the Prophet Jeremiah," by the Rev. C. R. Brown; "Practical Ideals in Evangelism," by Charles Herbert Rust; and "For the Work of the Ministry," by the Rev. T. Harwood Pattison, elaborated by his son, the Rev. Harold Pattison.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. publish this week "The County Road," by Alice Brown; "Walt Whitman," by Bliss Perry; "Books, Culture, and Character," by J. N. Larned; the complete poems of Edward Rowland Sill; "The Poetry of Chaucer," by Robert K. Root; "Ecclesiastes in the Metre of Omar," by the Rev. William B. Forbush; "English Patents of Monopoly," by William H. Price, and "The Dictionary of Practical Phonography," by James E. Munson.

The Century Company will publish this month Maria Hornor Lansdale's "The Châteaux of Touraine," with color reproductions of Jules Guérin's drawings; H. G. Wells's "In the Days of the Comet"; Helen Nicolay's "The Boys' Life of Lincoln"; the new collection of "Fairy Stories from St. Nicholas"; and Richard Watson Gilder's new volume of poems, "A Book of Music."

Richard G. Badger announces the following volumes of verse: "The Jewels of King Art," by James Connolly; "The Children of Christmas and Other Children," by Edith M. Thomas; and "Foregone Verses," by William Wallace Whitlock.

Little, Brown & Co. are issuing a new edition complete in one volume, of "The Letters of Emily Dickinson, from 1847 to 1886," edited by Mabel Loomis Todd. The book contains a portrait of Miss Dickinson, a new one of her old home, and facsimiles of her handwriting.

The Macmillan Company announces for early publication, a volume, "The Worker and Other Poems," by a hitherto unknown English author, Coningsby William Dawson, son of the Rev. W. J. Dawson.

T. Fisher Unwin (London), is publishing "A Short History of Wales" by Owen Edwards; and "Saunterings in Spain," an illustrated book of travel by Major-Gen. Seymour.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press the authorized American edition of the first story in Fogazzaro's Trilogy. This book, issued in Italy under the title of "Piccolo Mondo Antico," will be published in the English and American editions under the title of "The Patriot." It will be followed by an edition of the second story in the Trilogy, "Piccolo Mondo Moderno," which will probably bear the title, "The Man of the World." "The Saint (Il Santo)" completes the literary scheme of the author.

Arvède Barine's "Princesses and Court Ladies" will appear shortly in translation under the Putnam imprint. The same firm will publish this autumn a small illustrated volume entitled "Westward the Course of Empire," by Montgomery Schuyler. It is in part a record of a trip to the Pacific coast, which Mr. Schuyler visited in 1905.

The first (the October) issue of *Putnam's Monthly* contains some notable matter: Undelivered addresses by John Hay; "Franklin's Social Life in France," with unpublished letters, and an essay by Maurice Maeterlinck. The proof-reading, we regret to observe, is not impeccable.

Dr. J. L. Haney of the Central High School, Philadelphia, having won an enviable station in Coleridgean scholarship, now goes further back to the field of the Elizabethans, which he enters with a booklet (Philadelphia: The Egerton Press), "The Name of William Shakespeare." In seventy pages or so, Dr. Haney seeks "simply to present in convenient form the principal facts that have been elicited concerning the origin and etymology of the name and the vicissitudes of its orthography at various periods of its history." He divides his material under nine headings: the Name Shakespeare; the Stratford Registers; Contemporary Documents; the Registers of the Stationers' Company; the Title Pages of the Quartos; Contemporary Tributes and Allusions; the Period of the Folios; Modern Editors and Critics; the Controversy over the Orthography. Although here and there the essay has a more controversial air, perhaps, than its author intended, it is, on the whole, a fair, complete, and clear exposition of the subject. So far as we have observed, it takes account of every scrap of evidence available, up to the time that it went to print; the unim-

portant data on "Other William Shakespeares," recently contributed by Miss Stopes to the London *Athenæum* (August 25), appeared, of course, too late for notice by Dr. Haney. Here is Dr. Haney's conclusion of the whole matter:

Briefly summarizing the evidence brought together in these pages, we find that the name occurred originally in numerous variant forms; that at Stratford the spelling Shakspeare prevailed for a time, though rarely after the beginning of the dramatist's career; that the Stationers' registers and other contemporary documents present a wilderness of confusing variations; that although four of the five autographs seem intended to spell Shakspeare, the title-pages of the quartos and the First Folio point more strongly to the form Shakespeare. If the usage of later scholars and critics is of less weight, it is at least noteworthy that the recent editors and biographers who have specialized most zealously upon the study of the poet are virtually unanimous for the longer spelling.

Externally, the volume is a model of good taste; type, page, and binding are alike excellent. We regret that the edition should have been limited to seven hundred and fifty copies.

A work that deserves more popular attention than it has received is Capt. Cecil Battine's (Fifteenth Hussars) "The Crisis of the Confederacy," published by Longmans, Green & Co. It is an excellent commentary upon our civil war, whose history "still remains the most important theme for the student and statesman." In Capt. Battine's view the critical point was immediately after Chancellorsville, when Lee should have been allowed to march northward at once. A subsidiary motive of the book is to display the true use of cavalry, which the author holds was developed in Virginia by Stuart, whom he regards as "the greatest warrior among the many great men so called." A confessed Confederate bias does not interfere with impartial treatment, and the work is quite worth study by those who are interested in our history as well as by professional soldiers.

The title of Gen. Newton M. Curtis's "From Bull Run to Chancellorsville" (Putnam's) suggests a history of the first half of the civil war. The book is, however, a history of the Sixteenth New York Infantry, and, incidentally, of the other military organizations of northern New York which served with the Sixteenth in the Army of the Potomac. The volume is a worthy addition to the list, now very considerable, of regimental histories; for not only does Gen. Curtis write entertainingly, but he has also seen in good perspective the part played by his regiment in the campaigns and battles which he describes. The accounts of enlisting and recruiting, and of the experiences of the regiment in camp and on the march, are also useful additions to our knowledge of the period.

"Letters from a Surgeon of the Civil War" (Little, Brown), by Martha Perry, may serve as a slight complement to the history of that distinguished regiment, the Twentieth Massachusetts. It is compiled from letters written by her husband while acting as surgeon at the time of Chancellorsville and the Wilderness.

Some new poems by Prior have been discovered. A. R. Waller, who is editing an edition of Prior for the Cambridge

University Press, writes to the London *Athenæum* that through the kindness of the Marquis of Bath he has had opportunity to examine the Prior papers preserved at Longleat. These papers, he finds, contain, in addition to the Prose Dialogues, referred to by Pope and by other writers who saw them, many hitherto unpublished poems by Prior, written by him at Wimpole and at Down Hall in his later years, together with other poems of, presumably, an earlier date. In the preface to the first volume of Prior's writings (1905) Mr. Waller announced that the second volume would contain the Prose Dialogues, mentioned above. He now adds that this volume, now in press, will also contain these unpublished poems. "This examination of the Longleat MSS.," says Mr. Waller, "has solved one or two vexed questions, which will be dealt with in due course; it has shown that Prior worked in forms of verse hitherto unsuspected; and it has proved that certain poems published anonymously are his."

The appearance of Anatole Le Braz's "Au Pays des Pardons" in 1894 was an event of considerable literary and archæological importance in France. The book was a collection of hitherto unprinted legends of the early Breton saints supplemented by sympathetic descriptions of the modern ceremonies in their honor (known as "pardons") which are the last vestiges of the ancient "Feasts of the Dead." The "Land of Pardons," just issued by the Macmillan Company, is a translation of the 1900 edition of this work, which contained one more "pardon" than the first edition. Frances M. Gostling, the translator, has performed her task well, but no translation could hope to render the strange, melancholy charm of M. Le Braz's lyric prose.

The reluctance of Rome in accepting the decision of France to effect separation between Church and State is productive of much literature, mostly polemical. Professor Meter's "Église Catholique" (Colin) is, however, an exception, for although a product of the present crisis, it is not in any way a party pamphlet. It is a clear and methodical exposition, in condensed form, of the constitution and administrative system of the Roman Catholic Church, dealing with, among other matters, canon law, the status of laymen, the right of association, organization at Rome and elsewhere, diocesan and parochial organization, missions, ecclesiastical finance. Apart from a few slips in details, the book may be commended as a convenient manual, written by a competent authority.

Comprehensive thoroughness of contemporary French scholarship in dealing with comparative literary investigation once again finds exemplification in "L'Influence Française en Angleterre au XVII. Siècle," by Louis Charlanne, professor at the University of Poitiers (Paris: Société Française d'imprimerie et de librairie). On this by no means unfamiliar theme, research finds it difficult to shed new light for English specialists; but the merit of this treatise consists less in originality of conclusions than in the extraordinary range of material laid under contribution for its composition; for the final generalizations rest on an exhaustive survey of intellectual

and social (not merely literary) influences which passed from Paris to London chiefly under the encouragement of kings and courtiers *continentalized* through exile or voluntary travel. The author's knowledge of his period issues largely from the famous memoirs of the time, supported by evidence from comedies and other light literature; he is thus able to detect French modes of thought, feeling, and practice in English dress, cooking, medicine, gardening, painting, music, etc., chiefly during the later Stuart period, without seeking to show that the foreign wave penetrated deep into the heart of the people, or in any way modified the fundamental attributes of the national spirit and mind. It is only too fatally easy to infer from the unmistakable French stamp on the drama, criticism, and didactic poetry of the time that a complete misdirection of literary energy was the outcome of this influence. M. Charlanne wisely concludes that comprehension of foreign ideals in literature accomplished much in cultivating the French (or Latin) conception of *ordonnance*, as well as in clarifying the best of English eighteenth-century prose. As he makes no mention of Miss Canfield's excellent work, "Corneille and Racine in England" (1904), we are warranted in supposing that his views are entirely independent.

Alexandre Beljame, professor of English literature at the Faculté des Lettres, Paris, died on September 17. M. Beljame was born at Villiers-le-Bal (Seine et Oise) on November 26, 1843. He published, in addition to standard educational works, translations into French of Tennyson's "Enoch Arden," Shelley's "Alastor," and Shakspeare's "Macbeth," "Julius Cæsar," and "Othello." His best known book, crowned by the French Academy, is "Le Public et les Hommes de Lettres en Angleterre au XVIIIe Siècle."

The discovery in 1888 of the famous cuneiform correspondence in El-Amarna, in Egypt, containing official communications that passed about the year 1500 B. C. between foreign kings and governors and the Egyptian King, surprised many scholars. Among these letters were some from a King of Arsapi, the exact location of which could not be settled. Now Prof. Hugo Winckler of the University of Berlin has found in Boghaz-Koi, in Asia Minor, east of the Halys, a large number of Babylonian and Assyrian cuneiform inscriptions. This place had hitherto been famous for its unique rock-sculptures; but these finds show that it was the centre of the Hittite State of the Arsapi. The tablets written in Babylonian are in the Chatti dialect and date from the times of Ramses II. and Chetasar, who, according to a covenant carved in the temple of Karnak, had made an alliance with each other. The work of excavation in Boghaz-Koi is to be vigorously pushed.

The book auction season 1906-1907 has begun. In New York the Merwin-Clayton Sales Company will dispose of a collection of first editions of American authors, including such items as Hawthorne's "Fanshawe" and Bryant's "White-Footed Deer"; the library of the late Gen. di Cesnola, director of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, rich in books on ceramics and other art subjects; a portion of the

library of the late Cyrus W. Field with numerous autograph letters; another portion of the collection of the late Thomas Nast, containing, besides the original drawings of many of his own caricatures, some of his paintings and etchings; and the library of the late Richard B. Sinton of Richmond, Va., containing some rare Virginia items. The Anderson Auction Company of this city announces the sale of the Tennyson collection of Prof. A. E. Jack of Lake Forest University, containing many of the privately printed trial books, and magazines containing the first appearance of many of the poems; the library of the late Dr. Elliot Coues, the naturalist, comprising numerous scarce pamphlets on American natural history; and the dramatic library of Charles N. Mann of Philadelphia, covering the history and literature of the English stage, and containing an extraordinary collection of American play-bills. In Philadelphia Stan. V. Henskels promises Part III. of the library of Gov. Pennypacker, including his collection of books on Pennsylvania history, the most important gathering of its kind ever offered; Part III. of the collection of engraved portraits belonging to Judge James T. Mitchell, including the portraits of John Paul Jones, Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, and Abraham Lincoln; and the autograph collection of the late Dr. Joshua I. Cohen of Baltimore, including full sets of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, the Continental Congress, the Stamp Act Congress, the Constitutional Convention, etc. In Boston C. F. Libbie & Co. will offer the library and autograph collection of the late F. Griswold Teft of Great Barrington, Mass., including some rare Cruikshank items, and several letters of Washington; the library of the late J. M. Rice of the Naval Academy at Annapolis, containing a number of rare naval books; the second part of the library of Henry G. Denny, including probably his collection relating to Harvard College, one of the most complete ever brought together.

WASHINGTON.

Letters and Recollections of George Washington, being letters to Tobias Lear and others, between 1790 and 1799, showing the First American in the management of his estate and domestic affairs, with a diary of Washington's last days, kept by Mr. Lear. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. \$2.50.

Letters of George Washington to George and James Clinton. A Collection of thirty-five letters, of which twenty-six are unpublished, together with Washington's War Map of New York and New Jersey. New York: Privately printed.

George Washington, Patriot, Soldier, Statesman, First President of the United States, by James A. Harrison, Professor in the University of Virginia. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.

The publication of letters which increase our knowledge of the private life of Washington satisfies a desire bred of something higher than morbid curiosity. To an extent unusual with the correspondence of public leaders, Washington's letters disclose not only the man, but the statesman; and no one studying the two hundred or more in the first of the volumes before

us, or those which he wrote to his manager, William Pearce, or the correspondence which he maintained to the end of his life with Sir John Sinclair, President of the British Board of Agriculture, can fail to see that they show Washington, in the management of his household, his lands, and his money, as possessed of the same qualities of mind and temperament which he displayed in the affairs of war, diplomacy, and statecraft. Unlike generals such as Marlborough, or politicians such as Fox, Washington had no cause to be ashamed of any incident of his private life; and no amount of searching into the details which these letters furnish will impair our respect and reverence for his character. He was the same man, conservative, thorough, dignified, and just, whether negotiating for a house in which to live in Philadelphia, or dealing with Genet and the foreign policy of the Government. In the latter case, he could apply with tact and firmness the principle of no entangling alliances, "steering clear of the vortex of misery which," he says, "has brought so many of the nations of Europe to the brink of ruin" (238); and in the former he could say with equal firmness, "to occupy the premises at the expense of any public body, *I will not*" (30).

Neither the letters to Tobias Lear, who was Washington's secretary for sixteen years, nor the extracts from Lear's diary relating to Washington's last illness, nor the miscellaneous letters which complete this volume, add materially to the knowledge already possessed of Washington's declining years. His life as a landed proprietor, the extent and location of his estates, the agricultural methods that he introduced, the crops that he raised, the "hands" that he employed, and the slaves that he owned, have all been well known. But they do furnish abundant details that are new and quotable expressions on many varied topics; and they bring us into very close touch with the daily life of a great man.

Though less versatile than Franklin, Washington had an intensive knowledge of the practical side of commerce and agriculture that Franklin never possessed. There is nothing academic or speculative in his letters. They contain the thoughts and directions of a shrewd man of business, familiar with the simplest needs of his lands or his family. We find here opinions on the packing of china, the suitability of such household furnishings as carpets, mirrors, and blankets, the repair of his coach, caps for his drivers, the construction of liquor coolers, the merits of horse-mills and of wind-mills, and scores of other matters relating to his farms or his houses. He had knowledge of all persons whom he employed, particularly of those that had duties in his family or about his person, even to the washerwoman. He followed the money market, sought for and took advantage of circumstances regulating the rise and fall of prices, rents, and land values, and it is a significant commentary on his financial solvency that he could say in 1799, only a few months before he died, "This business of borrowing and discount I am quite a novice in" (p. 273). Having to provide for the education of Washington Custis, he looked into the school question, and made a number of interesting and not very com-

plimentary remarks about the "College at Philadelphia," where he deemed the discipline lax and the number of pupils too great for the tutors; though of the "College at Annapolis" he seems to have had a better opinion. His well-known views regarding slaveholding find ample support in these letters. "Were it not," he says, "that I am principled agt. selling negroes, as you would do cattle at a market, I would not in twelve months from this date be possessed of one as a slave"; and again, "The running off of my cook has been a most inconvenient thing to this family; and what renders it more disagreeable, is, that I had resolved never to become the master of another slave by *purchase*, but this resolution I fear I must break." To the first remark he added, "I shall be happily mistaken, if [slaves] are not found to be a very troublesome species of property ere many years pass over our heads."

From these letters we learn Washington's opinions on many matters of public concern, the relations between England and the United States, between England and France, and between France and the United States; on the Embargo and the Whiskey Rebellion; and, especially, on the founding, building, and government of the "Federal City," as he generally called the new capital. We learn that Washington frequently called upon Lear to recommend suitable appointees for offices under government and to aid him in the preparation of his messages to Congress. The letters are inclined to be formal and dignified in expression, as was characteristic of Washington, and for this reason it is the more delightful to meet with such phrase as "Unless some one pops in suddenly."

The editor, whoever he may be (Mrs. Eyre, Lear's granddaughter, furnished the Lear letters and signs the introduction), has taken the editorial duties very lightly. The letters are printed without comments or notes of any kind. The work could have been rendered more readable by a few explanatory foot-notes, and more useful to the student by brief introductions stating where the originals of other than the Lear letters are to be found, and how far they have been used before. All the Lear letters passed through the hands of Jared Sparks, and many of the others are already in print. Some textual criticism would have been desirable in view of the omissions, errors, and strange words that appear in the letters, due either to Washington himself or to the carelessness of a copyist. For example, "perimt" for "permit" (163), "anoner" [answer?] (196), "think" instead of "thin" (199), "draught fera waggon" (200), "over par" [overseer?] (214), "duties of your important truth" [trust?] (235), "if you to be the above mentioned flour" (243).

The letters of Washington to George and James Clinton formed part of the collection of the late William S. Appleton of Boston, recently sold at auction. The dealers who purchased a majority of the letters now offer them to the public through the medium of a small brochure of seventy-two pages, limited to one hundred copies. Of the thirty-five letters purchased, twenty-seven have never been printed, and the present owners justly place a high value on their property. Of course, the letters

should be purchased by the State of New York and published as a supplemental volume to the "Public Papers of George Clinton," issued under authority from the New York Legislature, half a century ago. But as public bodies move slowly in such matters and as autograph collectors, actuated by other motives than those which appeal to the historical scholar, do not always put their acquisitions into print, the student of Washington's military career, especially that part of it connected with the Clinton-Sullivan campaign of 1779, will find the liberal extracts printed in this volume of interest and value.

Of Professor Harrison's life of Washington we can speak with but slight approval. Its *raison d'être* is the demand of a series—the "Heroes of the Nations"—which, to be complete even approximately, must contain a life of Washington. That a book made to order may be excellent is evidenced by the presence of such scholarly works as Firth's "Cromwell" and Margolouth's "Mohammed" in the same series. That Professor Harrison has not been influenced by the high standard which these lives have set may be shown by the fact that out of 453 pages more than 200 consist of quotations from Washington's letters and from well-known secondary authorities. That he has taken little pains to equip himself thoroughly for his task can be inferred from his chapter entitled "The New Forces," where the best that he can do for Great Britain's commercial policy is to print in six pages of small type all that Bancroft has to say on the subject and to content himself with a few personal and adverse comments. If a writer is competent to produce a life of Washington, he is equally competent to make an independent and impartial study of the times in which Washington lived and of the most burning question of those times—the burden of the mercantile policy. In the performance of such a task it would not be necessary to go much beyond the writings of Beer, Lord, Ashley, Egerston, and Hertz; but it seems likely that these monographs lay beyond the limits of Professor Harrison's bibliography.

The Washington depicted in this volume is the familiar heroic and half-deified figure of the older panegyrists. The boy shines in the reflected light of manhood, and the man becomes more than human in the perfections heaped upon him and upon all who supported the American cause. Some parts of the volume are well and pleasantly written, particularly the chapters that deal with the period after 1780; but as a whole the style is that of the romanticist, embellished with imagery and superlatives.

If the Indians were the wind incarnate, the yeomen were men actuated by the purest patriotism, the highest motives, the most unselfish devotion, living exemplifications of the fury that lies latent in the ploughboy [and others] when his sweetness is turned to gall, his honey to vinegar, and his gay laugh to a sardonic grin under the nitric acid of just indignation.

This is merely rhetorical exaggeration, but the following is confused metaphor:

For these dates and events stand out in bead-like distinctness among the linked anniversaries of the decade, incising their notches deep into the living marble of the time.

Amid this cloud of words one discovers

Washington, a figure as unreal as the spectre of the Brocken. At times the clouds break, as an apt quotation reveals the man; but soon again the mist of the author's rhetoric veils the scene. It is not too much to say that the quotations are the best part of this work.

RECENT FICTION.

Puck of Pook's Hill. By Rudyard Kipling. Illustrated by Arthur Rackham. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

A new book by Kipling is still a literary event. We may never revive those enthusiasms of fifteen years ago, when "Plain Tales from the Hills," "Life's Handicap," "Under the Deodars," "Soldiers Three" and the "Barrack-Room Ballads" successively amazed and delighted all readers of English. The sensation created by the young journalist of Lahore was comparable to the sensation created by the Waverley novels and the verse of Byron. Then came the period of reaction. We tired a little of the novelty of his crisp and glittering phrase. In spite of the "Jungle Books," we began to ask whether the precocious boy had not shot his bolt once and for all. This theory had some support in fact. There is, for example, the unreadable "Stalky & Co."; in "The Seven Seas" and "The Five Nations," particularly the latter, there are poems, versified political tracts, unworthy of publication in permanent form; in "The Day's Work" and "Traffics and Discoveries" there are tales distinguished only for cheap smartness. On the other hand, mingled with the baser metal in "The Five Nations" are those veins of pure gold, "The Bell Buoy," "Bridge-Guard in the Karroo," "Recessional," such "Service Songs" as "Chant Pagan" and "Boots," and the pathetic "Dirge of Dead Sisters." In perfection of form and depth of feeling these poems are on the high level of Kipling's best. Then, too, "The Day's Work" contains "The Brushwood Boy"; and in "Traffics and Discoveries" the tiresome Mr. Pycroft is more than atoned for by "They." "Puck of Pook's Hill" is fresh evidence that Kipling's gift was merely in abeyance. He offers us ten stories in a new vein—a cross between fairy tales and historical romances of the elder Britain. The machinery is simple. A little boy and his sister go at dusk on Midsummer Eve to a fairy ring in the field near Pook's Hill, and play bits from Shakspeare's "Midsummer Night's Dream." Puck himself suddenly appears to them and tells them of Weland's sword. On later days Puck introduces to them Sir Richard Dalyngridge, who came over with the Conqueror; Parnesius, a centurion of the Thirtieth; and Kadmiel, a Jew, who lent money to King John. The thesis of the book is set forth in Kipling's own prologue:

See you the dimpled track that runs,
All hollow through the wheat?
O that was where they hauled the guns
That smote King Philip's fleet.

And see you, after rain, the trace
Of mound and ditch and wall?
O that was a Legion's camping-place,
When Cæsar sailed from Gaul.

Trackway and Camp and City lost,
Salt Marsh where now is corn;

Old Wars, old Peace, old Arts that cessé,
And so was England born!

She is not any common Earth,
Water or wood or air,
But Merlin's Isle of Gramarye,
Where you and I will fare.

These pictures of the England that is dead and gone, though nominally intended for children, will, we are confident, prove quite as entertaining to all grown-ups who are still young enough to visit the Isle of Enchantments. Each of the stories is full of life and movement. Taken together, however, they have a unity and interest which are marred by separate publication in the magazines. They convey an uncommonly vivid sense of that past which to most of us is hazier than a dream. No historian, for example, has ever made the Roman Wall so firm a reality as this:

You see a smoke from east to west, as far as the eye can turn, and then under it, also as far as the eye can stretch, houses and temples, shops and theatres, barracks and granaries, trickling along like dice behind—always behind—one long, low, rising and falling, and hiding and showing line of towers. . . . Along the top are towers with guard-houses, small towers, between. Even on the narrowest part of it three men with shields can walk abreast from guard-house to guard-house. A little curtain wall, no higher than a man's neck, runs along the top of the thick wall, so that from a distance you see the helmets of the sentries striding back and forth like beads. Thirty feet high is the wall, and on the Picts' side, the north, is a ditch, strewn with blades of old swords and spearheads set in wood, and tires of wheels joined by chains. . . . But the wall itself is not more wonderful than the town behind it. Long ago there were great ramparts and ditches on the south side, and no one was allowed to build there. Now the ramparts are partly pulled down and built over, from end to end of the wall, making a thin town eighty miles long. Think of it! One roaring, rioting, cock-fighting, wolf-baiting, horse-racing town, from Ituna on the west to Scgedunum on the cold eastern beach! On one side heather, woods, and ruins, where Picts hide, and on the other, a vast town—long like a snake and wicked like a snake.

The Romans who defended the wall, the Picts who lurked in the wastes beyond, the Normans and Saxons who fought at Hastings—all seem, not the pasteboard and lath figures of the historical romance of commerce, but creatures of flesh and blood and bone. In fine, "Puck of Pook's Hill" is another proof of Kipling's amazing versatility. He works on a far smaller scale than Scott, but within his limits he shows similar powers of reconstructing by imagination an age that has vanished.

The underlying ideas are those which have informed so much of Kipling's later work: the glory of England and the valor that has made her great. The import of each tale is that "she is not any common earth"; of her splendid military history every boy and girl born on British soil may well be proud. The heroes whom Kipling celebrates are good fighters, brave and loyal. Such is Sir Richard Dalyngridge, such Hugh the Saxon, such are Parnesius and Pertinax—all compact of knightly virtues. Kipling reminds us again that

there is neither East nor West, Border, nor
Breed, nor Birth,
When two strong men stand face to face, tho'
they come from the ends of the earth."

In this book, however, he does not celebrate, according to his recent fashion,

sheer brute force, mere animal prowess and daring. Sir Richard wins over the Saxons by a display of justice and mercy; and it is with these same irresistible weapons that Parnesius, his garrison reduced to a skeleton, holds back the hungry Picts. And Kipling strikes this same note in the epilogue, "The Children's Song" of dedication to the service of country:

Teach us the strength that cannot seek,
By deed or thought, to hurt the weak;
That, under Thee, we may possess
Man's strength to comfort man's distress.

Joseph Vance: An Ill-written Autobiography. By William De Morgan. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

This novel in autobiographical form is of a type now a little archaic. It might more naturally have been written a generation ago. Though the American publisher has tried to conceal the fact, it is of noble three-decker proportions. It is ill-written only in the sense of not being composed according to the present trim, abrupt fashion of novel-writing. A very skilful hand has imparted to this narrative its gentle inconsecutiveness, its fond diffuseness, its premature betrayals and redundant echoes—defects, if they be from any point of view defects, so engaging and so natural; the defects of "Tom Jones" and "Henry Esmond" and "David Copperfield." It is not a hook to be hurried through, and we do not recommend it to impatient readers. To all others, we commend it with something more nearly approaching enthusiasm than is usually expected of the jaded novel-reader of tradition. Such a book is like a child thrown to the wolves; it diverts for the moment here and there some member of the pack of reviewers from his snarling pursuit of the mediocre.

Seriously, we take this to be a novel of uncommon quality. The writer is, if you will, a sentimentalist. The hero, Joseph Vance, is, at all events. The human lives here recorded have their full share of hitterness and defeat; but the autobiographer, old, lonely, and under a cloud, has still an invincibly affectionate remembrance of the past. The son of a beer-swilling mechanic, he has been taken up, half-adopted, and educated by a learned gentleman of only moderate means. As a child he conceives a profound and unconscious devotion for a daughter of his benefactor, some five years older than himself. The relation is supposed to be brotherly and sisterly, but while he is at the university she marries, most happily, and the boy Joseph is driven to despair by the sudden realization that he has thought of her as his own. He survives, and presently marries a woman whom he sincerely loves, but who understands that his first love has been given, and is in some subtle sense still due, to the "Lossie" he might have made his wife. For "Lossie," after his wife's death, as it chances, he makes the supreme sacrifice of his life; and it is only in a "Postscript by the Publishers" that we are given a hint as to his reward. All this sounds vague and hare enough; but, indeed, we hardly know how to suggest the mellowness of this story, and therein lies its charm. In detail it is often brilliant, sometimes exuberant; it is not guiltless of facetious touches of the Wellerian order. It is figura-

tive, allusive, epigrammatic, and yet spontaneous.

In the end what one feels most strongly is that this is a work of true humour (will reform allow us the *u* for the nonce?); not even its wittiness can disguise the fact; and we doubt if any reader who has a sense for true humour will find it tedious.

The Spirit of Bambatsc. By H. Rider Haggard. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

No whole-souled person who read "Kiug Solomon's Mines" and "She" at the proper age can take up a new romance by Rider Haggard without some gleam of hope. Those were excellent yarns of their absurd kind; and misgivings must recur as to whether a sophisticated and middle-aged palate may not be disposed to exact the reproduction of an excellence which never existed. We should hesitate to endanger a cheerful memory by re-reading those early masterpieces, and can only honestly record our impression that for Mr. Haggard the game is up. "The Spirit of Bambatsc" is, we take it, a very thin dilution of the original beverage. It contains the old ingredients, but we doubt whether, as now watered, it would go to the head of the least accustomed schoolboy. Here is the usual African setting, the usual female ghost, the familiar hurried treasure, and the expected commodity of hairbreadth escapes; but there is no longer, for us, any savor in the concoction. Alas, that there should be no known method of defending the spent author from feeble self-imitation, nothing to offset the encouragement given by publishers to the "exploitation" of the inventive spirit in its last gasp.

The Man in the Case. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mrs. Ward is to be congratulated upon having, in this little tale, escaped from the morbidity and mawkishness which have made much of her work, especially her recent work, a thing popular and to be admired by the judicious. There is nothing sensational about the hook but its title, although its theme is a village sensation. It contains some credible new New England villagers, and one old woman who is more than credible. It is, moreover, free from religious or erotic sentimentality.

Moritz Lazarus's Lebenserinnerungen. Bearbeitet von Nahida Lazarus und Alfred Leicht. Mit einem Titelbild. Berlin: Georg Reimer.

These reminiscences of the founder of the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft* are the record of a life of rare beauty and helpfulness. For the breadth of vision which characterized the writings of Moritz Lazarus was commensurate with the range of sympathies which won him the friendship of men in many walks of life. The hook is compiled from notes dictated by Lazarus to Nahida Remy, the pupil who later became his wife, and edited by Dr. Alfred Leicht, who as student at the University of Berlin had made shorthand copies of Lazarus's lectures, and become his assistant. These notes are amply supplemented by letters from his numerous friends and acquaintances.

There were few men prominent in the intellectual life of Germany who did not know Lazarus, and with many of them he was on terms of intimacy. For the friendships of Lazarus had a deeper foundation than the desire for genial conviviality and the pursuit of intellectual intercourse. Both these ends were satisfied in the Tunnel, the society founded in Berlin by Franz Kugler, poet painter, architect, and musician, and the Rütli, which continued the traditions of the Tunnel, and counted among its members Fontane, Menzel, Storm, Heyse, Luebke, and others. The four chapters of the hook devoted to Lazarus's relations with Rückert, Keller, Auerhach, and Heyse, and parts of the chapters entitled "Literarisches Kunterhant," "Aeckerlien's Keller," "Berliner Erinnerungen," "Schönefeld," give many a discreet glimpse of Lazarus's generous devotion. Had not the widow faithfully entered into his spirit of modesty, which at times hordered on self-effacement, these chapters would have made his character stand out in high relief as one of the most magnanimous in contemporary Germany.

The literary interest of the reminiscences is mainly due to Lazarus's own remarkable gift of portrayal. Had he chosen to write plays or stories, he could not have presented his characters more vividly. The meetings with Rückert in his garden at Neuss; the story of how he forced Keller to complete "Das Fähnlein der sieben Aufrechten"; his conversations with Fritz Reuter; the hours spent with Raabe, not inappropriately styled the German Dickens; the meteoric coming and going of the erratic Bogumil Goltz—these and many other episodes in the book are valuable additions to literary biography. The thoroughgoing seriousness with which he approached his task of presenting the life of the soul ("Das Lehen der Seele," third edition, much enlarged, 1883) induced him to make the writings of some of these men the basis of profound analytical studies. Out of these grew the reviews which occasionally were published in the magazines of the period, and are noteworthy for their insight and acumen. Thus Lazarus was one of the first appreciators of Gottfried Keller's stories: "Die Leute von Seidwyla" (*Literaturblatt des deutschen Kunstblattes*, Aug 7, 1856).

That his judgment and æsthetic sense made his conversation and correspondence constantly sought, not only by his friends, but by people who knew him only as a writer and lecturer, is evident from many incidents. He had a peculiar experience with Eduard von Hartmann, whose recent death recalls the time when, as the yet unknown author of the "Philosophie des Unbewussten," he offered the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft* an article on the relation between his philosophy and Lazarus's psychology, which so offended the editor's taste by its flattering comments that he rejected it. Soon after it was published in Fichte and Ulrici's magazine without those features so complimentary to Lazarus! In the fifth chapter a meeting with Liszt is described, who had solicited his acquaintance on account of a treatise on the union and coöperation of the arts contained in the "Leben der Seele." Nor was Lazarus's personal acquaintance confined to prominent Germans. He had

met Talne and remained in close touch with him. He knew Renan, Gaston Paris, Theodore Bernard, Adolphe Cremieux, Michel Bréal, Henri Laboulaye, James Darmesteter, and George Monod. In Berlin he associated with George Bancroft, Edward Burnett Tyler, and other famous Englishmen and Americans.

Among the most interesting chapters in this book are the eighteenth, embracing a record of his intercourse with the royal family, and the nineteenth, containing a review of the work he did as lecturer at the military academy of Berlin during the four years 1868-1872. Crown-Prince Frederick, who had frequently attended the lectures, distinguished Lazarus in many ways. Perhaps the first sign of the wave of antisemitism about to spread over Germany was the sudden dismissal of Lazarus in the year 1872. The popularity which Lazarus enjoyed at court and in the academy was an annoyance to the newly-appointed director of that institution, who prided himself upon his "Christian-Germanic" spirit, an epithet which was then used as shibboleth. Almost his first act was to strike the Jew who had become so unduly prominent in a world which had so far been closed to his race.

It may have been this experience that led Lazarus to buy a country-place in Schönefeld, near Leipzig, where he spent the happiest years of his life. He retained his residence in Berlin, being appointed lecturer at the university the year after his dismissal from the academy, but in Schönefeld he did some of his best work. Here he edited his treatise on mind and speech, the third volume of his "Leben der Seele," the lectures and addresses published under the title "Ideale Fragen," and wrote the first part of his "Ethik des Judentums" (1898), which was translated into English by Henrietta Szold: "Ethics of Judaism" (Philadelphia, 1900-1). The guest chamber of this quiet house became a refuge for all friends that needed a rest or change. It was in turn occupied by Theodor Fontane and his wife, by Adolf Menzel, of whom some anecdotes are related that should interest students of art (pp. 386-7); Julius Wolff, Eduard Lasker, Georg Ebers, and many of lesser fame, but hardly one so generally known as George Brandes.

There is an error concerning the death of Dr. Martin Cohn, better known under his pseudonym A. Mels, soldier, traveller, and author. He died, not in Nizza, as stated in the text, but in a suburb of Chicago.

Nature Notes and Impressions, in Prose and Verse. By Madison Cawein. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

When a great genius dies and leaves us none of the broken fragments by which we may trace his artistic progress from its rude beginnings to the finished structure, we imagine that the history of artistic development has suffered a serious loss. Occasionally we may be right, but when juvenilia and random note-books are preserved and dragged into print, especially during the author's lifetime, the reader may properly entertain a different sentiment. In the case of Mr. Cawein, whose volume lies before us, we can readily believe that many who have been attracted by his contribu-

tions to recent magazine verse, or by his printed volumes, will secretly wish that the muses had included in his literary equipment a capacious waste-basket. With all allowance for his high poetic qualities which have been recognized in these columns in the past, he had not reached such a rank as to warrant publication of the inferior matter which makes up a goodly share of this volume. As an example of the undue straining after word pictures which characterizes much of the book, we may quote the following paragraph:

Gems and crystals scattered around him, on marble the color of fire; sea-green chryso-prase and copalite from Zanzibar; spar the color of amber; alexandrines—green by day, by night, purple or crimson—from the Urals; iron, with red streaks of jasper through it; lapis-lazuli and chryso-beryl; fluor spar crystals, white, amethystine, pink and green; cairngorms, dark and clear as an Ethiope's eye; topazes, smoky and blue and wine-colored; and heaped high amid them, like violets smothered under the snows of spring, great sapphires mingled and mixed with the milky fire of many opals.

All this apropos of nothing at all, so far as the records tell us. Occasionally this wrestling with nouns and adjectives reduces them to an attractive picture, of intelligible import. How much better if only the successes had seen the light. As it is, the whole output tends to give the impression that the successes themselves are not spontaneous but the mere chance triumphs of a highly self-conscious and wholly artificial method.

Railroads and their Rates, with an Appendix on the British Canal Problem. By Edwin A. Pratt. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.

This *apologia* was evoked by the author's conviction that British railroads have been subjected to a great amount of criticism, at once harsh, unjust, and ungenerous (p. 312). They have been censured for not basing freight rates on mileage, for their alleged favoritism to consignments of foreign merchandise, and for exacting a much higher rate per ton mile than prevails on Continental railroads.

Mr. Pratt, a well-known writer on transportation problems, has little difficulty in upsetting the notion that freight rates should be based wholly on mileage. That such a system would fail to apportion charges to cost he shows from the difference in cost of constructing and operating different miles of line. He is equally successful in demonstrating that freight rates based wholly on mileage would fail to meet competition by water or by other rail routes. Such rates would thus transform much competitive traffic into a monopoly, to the detriment of shippers generally. There can be little doubt that the principle of charging what the traffic will bear develops a larger volume of traffic and generally lower rates than would exist under a system of mileage rates. But while this contention is impregnable, it is fairly open to question whether the other line of defence, to wit, that the practice makes for the continued prosperity of extant ports or particular productive centres, is uniformly valid. It is open to the critic of Mr. Pratt's argument on page 78 to ask why rates should be perpetuated to conserve the interests of a particular entrepreneur. There is

no universally valid economic dictum such as *non quicquam movere*.

The charge that British railroads grant to foreign merchandise rates which discriminate unfairly against the British shipper is analyzed at considerable length, and is completely refuted. Mr. Pratt shows that short hauls, small consignments, and speedy delivery are the essential characteristics of the domestic British traffic. He demonstrates with equal clearness that big loads of foreign produce offer British railroads the maximum of traffic with the minimum of trouble, expense, and dead weight. The disparity in charges between rates on imported and domestic freight is conclusively justified. Striking ocular demonstration of the essential difference in conditions is afforded by the photographs of American meat trains on the Southampton docks, and similar photographs of English meat vans billed from South Devon to London. The respective loads per van are seven or eight tons, as against less than two tons.

Not the least instructive portion of the book is the comparison of the ton-mile rates on British and Continental railroads respectively. The author very properly insists that if a statistical comparison is to be validated, all the conditions and circumstances must be weighed. The collection and delivery work of British roads, their practical grant of gratuitous storage, their relatively mobile rates as contrasted especially with stereotyped French railway charges, and their purely commercial character as undertakings of private capital for profit, must all be considered before any verdict can be fairly rendered. It must be remembered that certain Continental railroads grant what is practically bounty on freight exports. It is unfair therefore to compare crudely the export rates on Continental roads with the ordinary domestic rates on British railways. As regards German roads, Mr. Pratt concludes that "the traders engaged in export business have gained very material advantages . . . while traders who do an exclusively home business are worse off" under a State régime (p. 257). The most interesting discussion in the volume is the explanation of low rates in the Low Countries (chaps. xvii, xviii). The universal presence of waterways compels low rates; and the original construction or subsidizing of the railroads, at the expense of the taxpayer, with the consequent absence of the necessity of meeting fixed charges out of current earnings, renders possible a scale of rates that would be otherwise impossible. It must be said that Mr. Pratt presents an unusually strong case for his contention that "the grievances advanced, apart from unfair and illogical comparisons, are generally either imaginary or the result of geographical or economic anomalies practically unavoidable" (p. 325).

Five Fair Sisters; an Italian Episode at the Court of Louis XIV. By H. Noel Williams. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

History, like its parent, the tribal lay, can be written after more than one manner, and nearly every one defensible. Of late years a clearly defined and new species of historical work has been evolved in England, of which the book now under re-

view is a typical example. The late Mr. Wilkins used the formula to the best advantage, and it may perhaps fairly be stated as follows: Choose for your subject an historical episode possessing some striking feature, dramatic or romantic, for choice a love story in which royal personages figure. Read up the latest monographs and special studies on the subject. State the result in the best literary form attainable. Illustrate as profusely as the publisher feels inclined. Make up a pleasant looking, substantial, gilt-edged volume—and await your public. That is the approximate formula—it is set forth not as a matter of praise or blame, merely as a matter of observation. To this formula Mr. Williams more or less closely conforms. His volume looks well; his illustrations are interesting; his style, though it smacks a good deal too much of translation, is readable; his subject could hardly have been better chosen.

The *Mazarinettes*, as they were called, were the five daughters of a sister of Cardinal Mazarin, by her marriage with a member of the lesser Roman nobility, Baron Mancini. The cardinal brought them to France at the time when he dominated its government, during the minority of Louis XIV. The children grew up in the intimacy of princes, and as soon as they were marriageable became great *partis*, because of their beauty and attractiveness, because of their uncle's political predominance, and because of his enormous wealth. The eldest, Laura, was married to the Duke de Mercœur, a grandson of Henry IV. Marianne, the youngest, married the Duke de Bouillon, became the patroness of one great poet, La Fontaine, and did much towards driving another, Racine, to abandon the stage; when she died Saint Simon declared that she had been the Queen of Paris, unrivalled in beauty and wit. Hortense married a madman, the Duke de la Meilleraye, who became Duke de Mazarin by the cardinal's wish. As part of this transaction Hortense was made residuary legatee of her uncle; she lived a wretched life with her husband, and finished up as one of the beauties of the court of Charles II.; she died of drink in London. Olympe married Eugène of Savoy Carignan, who was also Comte de Soissons through his mother, Marie de Bourbon. Olympe became by this match *Madame la Comtesse*, one of the greatest ladies of France. She was one of the first of the mistresses of Louis XIV.; she had a son who was Prince Eugène of Savoy, the friendly rival of Marlborough; she was implicated in the great poisoning affair of Brinvilliers and la Voisin, fled from France, and lived the rest of her life as a suspected poisoner in Madrid and Flanders.

The fifth sister, Marie, is Mr. Williams's chief heroine. For one thing, there is far more material available about her; for another, her career was certainly the most interesting. She was apparently brilliantly beautiful and brilliantly clever, full of political ambition, and equally adept in decking her black braids with becoming ribbons. Louis XIV. was the playmate of her youth, and in his shy young days as King, when Mazarin ruled France and His Majesty was by common consent relegated to the functions of Master of the Revels, he

found in Marie an old friend with whom shyness was not in point, and whose beauty, whose heart, whose mind, were devotedly at his service. There can be no reasonable doubt that Marie loved Louis for himself, and the King, with good reason, fell very much in love with her. The story of their amours is the only edifying one of the many like it that mark the reign of Louis XIV., but for its many curious episodes the reader must be referred to the book. Here, let it suffice to say that Mazarin used his niece's romance as the determining agent in one of his most brilliant political strokes, but later separated the lovers, though not without a great struggle on the part of the King. Marie eventually became the wife of the head of the princely house of Colonna, but her romantic adventures did not cease with her marriage. They were indeed so numerous and remarkable that the reader will probably not echo the sentiment of the pious Madrilene nuns in whose charge, the Princess Colonna, the Constableness, as her title ran, was once placed, and who, according to Charles II., met her at their gate, chanting:

Libera nos, Domine, de la Condestabile.

Algiers and Tunis; painted and described by Frances E. Nesbitt. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$6.

This sumptuous volume would not be an important contribution to the literature of North Africa except for its seventy illustrations, reproduced from watercolors by the author. Decorative and unmistakably full of local color and spirit, they may be roughly divided into two classes, those representing mosques and minarets, narrow street vistas, huddled groups in marketplace and courtyard being in general more typical and satisfying than country scenes, distant views, and sunsets—though these are often excellent.

Arab architecture is invariably well suggested, its arches showing as rough and solid as actual sight presents them, while the colors, even to the tawdry green and red spirals encircling the columns, and the pale, blue-green of mosque doorways, are always true. The figures of old Arabs stalking with unutterable dignity through narrow labyrinths; gathered in solemn groups in the *souks* or under a sky of blazing blue, are highly satisfactory. Especially to be commended are the sketches of white-robed figures against the white arches of the market at Biskra (p. 58), the fruit market in the same town (p. 64), the "begging Marabout" (p. 82), and the "game of draughts" at Constantine (p. 112).

But not as much can be said of the accompanying literary, historic, and descriptive letter-press. Here the author is working in a less familiar medium, and her style, while amiable and well-intentioned, brings no atmosphere, tells nothing new, and is almost unrelieved by those touches of humor which make tales of travel and personal experience brilliant or even readable. Occasional sentences without subject or verb may be found, as on page 27 (bottom); and in the middle of page 222, where a discriminating sentiment as to afterglows is marred by its formless expression.

In spite of this laxity of language and of a certain amount of worked-over, guide-book information, the volume is unmistak-

ably written by one who possesses the artistic temperament, a keen eye for color, and upon whom light and shadow exert their magic power. She feels the delicious thrill of the ever-present, blinding whiteness, the depth of brilliant blue in the sky, the grace of draped figures and burnous folds. But something more than this is necessary. A certain psychic sense is needed to feel, even more to describe, the desert and its long, long call. This the present author lacks. She tells us the glamour is there, but does not recreate it for the reader. Perhaps she did not penetrate far into measureless Sahara spaces.

El Djem with its marvellous Roman amphitheatre, is quite inadequately treated, although the sketch gives a fair idea of its enormous impressiveness. Bardo is summarily dismissed in a single sentence, without mention of the riches in its Museum, where one may read the story of Punic as well as Roman days. But perhaps most disappointing of all is the curiously indifferent chapter upon Carthage.

There is an excellent and picturesque map, and a fair index.

Hebrew Religion to the Establishment of Judaism under Ezra. By W. E. Addis, M.A. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.

Professor Addis of Manchester College, Oxford, is a competent scholar in Old Testament matters, and his sketch of the earlier and more important periods of the development of Hebrew religion, though making no claim of originality, is in fact a careful and thorough study of its subject. The limit set is the middle of the fifth century, B. C., when the compilation of the Pentateuch was completed. By confining himself within this period the author has opportunity for discussion of all the larger and more difficult questions in the history of Hebrew religion and for presentation of its real strength and genius, while he saves himself the necessity of dealing with the more barren problems of later Judaism. The sections which treat of the primitive forms of Semitic religion and the early Jahveh worship are of special excellence. Popular interest in Old Testament themes has not seemed to extend to these important topics, and while scholars have been informed through the writings of Wellhausen and Robertson Smith, there has been no concise, clear account adapted to general circulation. One thinks of the elaborate article of Kautsch in "Hastings's Dictionary of the Bible," which is especially full in its discussion of this period, and yet Professor Addis seems to have supplied a real want in his fair discussion of what is to be known of Hebrew society before the work of the literary prophets. Even with his endeavor to be cautious it will appear to many who have had experience in trying to establish facts by means of the uncertain and conflicting traditions of the Mosaic period, that Professor Addis sometimes goes beyond the evidence. It is perhaps too much to say that it was Moses who made Jahveh the God of the Hebrew tribes collectively, and that Moses excluded the worship of all other gods. There is much to be said in favor of reserving the latter honor for Elijah. Yet on the whole, Professor Addis keeps well within the safe ground of es-

established fact, with caution to the reader when opinion is uncertain. His graphic style and ability to render a situation clear in few words make his essay suitable for popular or general use. The book is provided with an index; which some of the volumes of the Crown Theological Library lack.

Notes on the History and Political Institutions of the Old World. By Edward Preissig, Ph.D. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.50 net.

Following a modest title and a modest preface, the contents of this work are of a pretension more modest still. Dr. Preissig lays no claim to originality and tells us that his book has "grown out of a set of student's notes, compiled in preparation for an examination." The substance of the narrative is drawn from the writings of Prof. P. V. N. Myers; the account of political institutions owes a like obligation to "The State," by President Woodrow Wilson. It seems particularly strange that Mr. Myers should stand in need of an interpreter, or even that it should have been deemed advisable by any one to publish an abridgment of his numerous publications. The neglectful undergraduate in search of a cram book might welcome an epitome of the *Corpus Myersianum*, but Dr. Preissig gives us a book of over seven hundred pages. As there is little promise of a short cut in this portly octavo we fear it will be avoided by the retarded freshman or sophomore. Unfortunately it is not well adapted for the use of other readers.

The compiler who has devoted little attention to the subject with which he is dealing, takes a grave risk. Besides reproducing any slips which may occur in the authorities he has employed, he is certain to add numerous errors of his own. Dr. Johnson said of Goldsmith that he simply transferred knowledge from one place to another and did not know what was in his own books. But few compilers have Goldsmith's grace of style, and it is by no means an easy matter to transfer knowledge from one place to another without letting some base admixture of carelessness or misapprehension slip in. Dr. Preissig furnishes us with a curious patchwork. Passages drawn from Bagehot, Bryce, Fustel, and Gibbon are likely to be good wherever we find them. Dr. Preissig has strayed far enough from his Myers and his Wilson to make the acquaintance, in part, of these celebrated authors, but we cannot pretend that his use of their works is altogether judicious. The connecting links lack strength. The arrangement of subjects is in many ways defective. The general effect is amorphous rather than organic.

Dr. Preissig thinks that Cambyses conquered Egypt in B. C. 500; that Praxiteles, Apelles, and Plato adorned the age of Pericles; that the reign of Marcus Aurelius was "prosperous"; that the *Novels* were issued by Justinian himself; that the loss of Odessa was the cause of the Second Crusade; and that Wycliffe's preaching was the cause of Wat Tyler's rebellion. But in criticising this book somewhat severely we have not in mind the large list of *corrigenda* which it could be forced to yield, so much as faults of a more

rooted character. The following statement regarding "the [mediæval] Town and Feudalism" speaks for itself in respect to both form and substance:

The towns were not drawn into the system of feudalism without opposition, and though in time they were compelled to acknowledge the sovereignty of some feudal lord, the municipal organization—which was in opposition to the principal idea upon which rested feudalism, the latter being political power based upon ownership of land—or at least a part of its features, was preserved even until after the collapse of feudalism.

Without discussing details, we submit that a sentence of this kind, supplemented by two equally nebulous sentences concerning guilds, will hardly pass muster for an account of the relation between the mediæval towns and feudalism. In a word, Dr. Preissig's general statements are the weakest part of this book. "The Crusades," he observes, "form one of the most conspicuous examples in all history of the truth of Cowper's lines, 'God moves in a mysterious way His wonders to perform.'" But we need not multiply illustrations. Dr. Preissig's compilation from Myers *et al.* is a loose abstract of well-known volumes which has been prepared without much help from the reflective powers of the compiler.

Drama.

"PAOLO AND FRANCESCA."

The production of such a piece as the "Paolo and Francesca" of Stephen Phillips in a New York theatre this week is something of an event in these degenerate days. Perhaps the most satisfactory feature of it was the intelligent comprehension which was displayed of the treatment due to romantic drama. When the "Ulysses" of this same author was presented here, its prompt failure was assured by the incompetence of nearly everybody concerned in its performance. H. B. Irving, the elder son of the late Sir Henry Irving, evidently has laid to heart some of the lessons taught by his father. In some respects his presentation of Mr. Phillips's tragedy might easily have been improved. His supporting cast, when considered individually, is by no means a strong one. His Paolo, E. H. Williams, is far from an ideal lover, while his Francesca, Miss Dorothea Baird, has no special qualifications for the part, beyond a pleasing girlish innocence. But, collectively, the company do fairly well, working together harmoniously and generally preserving the proper atmosphere of the scene. Few of them are expert in the delivery of blank verse—most of them being inclined to chant it—but all show at least a modest acquaintance with the swing and rhythm of it. The whole setting of the piece, both costumes and scenery, is admirably tasteful and appropriate, the coloring being especially rich and harmonious.

Rich as Mr. Phillips's work is in literary graces, and strong as it undoubtedly is dramatically in some of its scenes, it can scarcely be called a great play. In construction and in general theatrical quality, it does not compare favorably with Mr. Boker's well-known drama on the same subject. Some of the expedients employed,

such as the overhearing by the concealed Giovanni of Paolo's convenient confession in the drug shop, betray an inexperienced playwright. And the course of the action throughout seems to be governed more by the necessity of situation than by the laws of nature or consequence. Beyond question the bitter jealousy of Lucrezia and the mystic forbodings of the blind Angela give rise to effective situations, but it is doubtful whether interest in the fate of the lovers is increased by ascribing it to predestination rather than to circumstance or opportunity. Moreover, there is something unnatural in the instant transformation of the childish innocent wife into the blind votaress of passion. The crisis is not sufficiently accounted for. It is not until the fourth act that the atmosphere is laden with the sense of impending and inevitable tragedy. Thenceforward, the dramatist is absolute master of the situation, and unfolds it with a fine perception of theatrical effect as well as artistic law. The invisible slaughter of the guilty lovers is infinitely more impressive than any execution upon the stage could be. There is an awful mystery about the secret hidden by the curtain through which Paolo and Francesca have disappeared, and it is intensified by the apparition, from behind, of the ghastly, silent Giovanni. As drama, this one scene is worth almost all the rest of the play put together.

Mr. Irving, knowing his own capacities, made no mistake when he selected the part of the avenging husband for himself. It is a study of a stern soldier, wounded to the core in his honor and affection, and impelled to ruthless revenge by a rage too strong for reason or compassion. It is worthy of a great tragedian. Mr. Irving is not this yet. He is too prone, as, at times, was his father before him; to fall into melodramatic excess in the portrayal of minor passions. But he is capable of rising to a lofty occasion. His management of the great closing scene evinced both inspiration and rare executive power, and stamped him as a player of whom great expectations may reasonably be formed. In face, figure, speech, and manner he is much like his father, but he is not in any sense an imitator of him, although, as is natural, he reproduces unconsciously some of his characteristic looks, attitudes, and gestures.

Famous Actor Families in America. By Montrose J. Moses. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$2 net.

Of the information contained in this book there is much that is useful, much more that is trivial, but very little that is original, and of that little it must be added none is particularly valuable. But Mr. Moses evidently has been a diligent student of modern theatrical literature—including not only volumes of acknowledged authority, but a vast mass of current stage biography scarcely worth the paper it is printed on. He has compiled a sufficient quantity of dry detail, dates, anecdotes, criticism, and adulation to make more than three hundred pages of solid printed matter, which might profitably have been condensed into one hundred and fifty. Apart from occasional expressions of personal opinion, of which only a small proportion can be founded on actual experience, he offers nothing in the way of knowledge or enlightenment to

any person fairly conversant with dramatic history, and he has arranged his matter in a haphazard fashion that can only be accounted for by great haste or an exceedingly slovenly literary habit. His work creates the impression, indeed, of having been constructed, in a large measure, by the aid of scissors and paste-pot. At the same time it is only fair to say that, except in the case of some dubious anecdote, he seems to have been careful and accurate in the collation of his details, and his sketches of his selected players are sufficiently full for the ordinary reader. All specialists, of course, would prefer to consult the primary sources of information, rather than the brief samples which he gives of them.

His application of the term "famous" to some of his chosen families is curiously significant of the literary and critical value of his book. In common with the majority of contemporaneous chroniclers of things theatrical, he seems to think that fame is synonymous with temporary notoriety, a product of commercial advertisement. How many of the names which he enumerates does he suppose will survive the memory of the present generation? J. B. Booth and his son Edwin were great actors, who marked a dramatic era, as did Garrick, the Kembles, and Edmund Kean. The renown of Joseph Jefferson, of E. L. Davenport, of James W. and Lester Wallack will last long, and old playgoers will not soon forget John K. Hackett, Mrs. John Drew, or George Holland, but all these, though brilliant performers, fell somewhat short of the highest rank. They towered, however, above their related juniors, and the grouping of the latter in the same category with them is preposterous.

It is a somewhat curious, and it is to be feared not very profitable, experiment which Mrs. Steele Mackaye has made in her dramatization of Jane Austen's "Pride and Prejudice" (Duffield & Co., New York). Naturally, few of the peculiar excellences of the book survive in the play, in which the lack of action, or of anything like real dramatic interest, until the very end, is only too apparent. There are still traces of the author's skill in the depiction of character, together with a certain fine flavor of the older comedy, but the dialogue bears the marks of age very clearly, and it is exceedingly doubtful whether any of our modern players would be able to speak it with the proper rhythm or emphasis.

The famous old Adelphi Theatre in London is celebrating its centenary. At first it was called the Sans Pareil, but since 1819 it has been the Adelphi. At that time Sir Walter Scott was all the rage, and the first "big" productions included "Kenilworth," "Waverley," "The Heart of Midlothian," "Ivanhoe," and "St. Ronan's Well." In 1821 Pierce Egan's "Tom and Jerry" made a great hit, and in 1830 came Buckstone's "A Wreck Ashore." In 1844 Benjamin Webster's celebrated connection with the theatre began. Under his rule Madame Céleste made a deep impression with her Cynthia in "The Flowers of the Forest," and her Miami in "The Green Bushes." John Reeve, Edward Wright, and J. L. Toole were successively principal comedians at this house. From

1850 started the production of dramas by authors of the class of Tom Taylor, Watts Phillips, Dion Boucicault, and Charles Reade. Webster rebuilt the Adelphi in 1858-59, and the Messrs. Gatti began their memorable tenancy in 1866. Latterly the theatre has been associated with the higher forms of the poetic drama.

Arthur W. Pinero's "His House in Order" will be given this winter in Copenhagen by Madame Ida Neilson, a famous Danish actress. In Paris it is to be rendered by the stock company of the Théâtre Antoine, but, presumably, without Antoine himself, who has become the manager of the Odéon.

Music.

The Art of the Singer. By W. J. Henderson. Scribners. \$1.25 net.

Probably the best thing in Mr. Henderson's book, the "Art of the Singer," is his defence of that art. In reply to the declaration of an acquaintance that singing is an artificial achievement, he says: "The truth is that while speaking is nature, singing is nothing more than nature under high cultivation. The culture of wild flowers has in some instances given us beautiful additions to the garden. Speaking is like the wild rose; singing like the American beauty." Unfortunately, it is much more difficult to achieve a Nordica, an Eames, or a Farrar than a perfected rose; each gardener has his own method and each one condemns his rivals as humbugs. Of these squabbles among teachers of singing Mr. Henderson gives an amusing account in the third of his fifteen chapters, which is concerned with breathing. Here, as in everything, the great singers are safer guides than the best of teachers, and Mr. Henderson expresses his indebtedness, in the preface, to Mesdames Nordica and Sembrich, and M. Jean de Reszke. Regarding breathing we read that "Mme. Sembrich, who is a past mistress of sustained and smooth delivery, is a firm advocate of the use of the half-breath in singing. In other words, instead of attempting to let the whole body of air exude from the lungs and then completely replenish it, one should take half breaths before the storehouse is empty, and thus keep it occupied. . . . The object of the half-breath is to prevent depletion where there is not time to get a full inspiration."

The teacher, too, has his uses, however, as our author concedes. In discussing the secret of the pure bell-like attack, he says:

The student will naturally ask how he is to know when he is getting this kind of attack. There are two ways of ascertaining. One is by one's own sensations, and the other is the report of a competent hearer. It is in the latter capacity that the trained teacher is essential; . . . the teacher is the guide whose experienced ear detects vocal error and who knows the cause of it.

The trouble with teachers is that most of them teach only "songs without words." "Nine-tenths of the songs we hear are songs without words"; that is, the singers enunciate so indistinctly that they might as well be playing violins or flutes, so far as the words are concerned. To emphasize this defect, Mr. Henderson frames this definition: "Singing is the in-

terpretation of text by means of musical tones produced by the human voice." In this sense the originators of Italian opera looked on the art of singing, but in later centuries that opera became the home of the instrumental style of singing, and it was the Austrian Schubert and the German Wagner who restored to the text its proper importance.

In a valuable chapter on Wagner Singing, Mr. Henderson makes it clear that the method of singing demanded by Wagner in his operas and his essays is far different from the present-day Bayreuth ideal. Wagner himself, he concludes, after reading his essays, "would have given much if he could have found a Jean de Reszke to introduce his Parsifal, and a Ternina or a Nordica to make known his Isolde." But the author's criticisms of Alvary and Niemann are much too severe. Alvary was, on the whole, quite as wonderful a Siegfried as Jean de Reszke; and to say of Niemann's Tristan, "It was magnificent; but it was not Wagner," is most unjust. Niemann, when he came to America, had lost the *Schmelz*, the sensuous beauty, of his voice, but he had all the other—the intellectual and emotional—qualities that make a great singer; and to condemn him simply because the sound of his voice was not always beautiful, is to fly in the face of all the good lessons enforced in Mr. Henderson's own book.

"Erinnerungen," or reminiscences of Eduard Strauss has just been issued by Franz Denticke. Eduard Strauss, though far less talented than his two brothers, Johann and Josef, nevertheless played an important rôle in the musical life at Vienna, where he had his own band for balls and concerts during a period of forty years. It was at these concerts that Richard Wagner first came before the Austrian public with samples of his later works. All three of the Strauss brothers (especially Josef, who died young) were enthusiastic admirers of Wagner, and it was through them that the Viennese heard "Lohengrin" and the Imperial Opera opened its portals to these works.

Art.

Denkmaeler Aegyptischer Sculptur. Herausgegeben und mit erläuternden Texten versehen von Fr. W. Freiherrn von Bissing. 144 plates (25 ready). Munich: F. Bruckmann.

The most prolific of pre-Greek art, and undoubtedly also the most important, is that of the Egyptians. It is remarkable that its finest surviving monuments have never been made accessible to the student, in a publication done after the most approved modern processes, in such form as might be employed in the class and lecture-room. It is to meet this lack that Baron von Bissing has joined forces with the house of Bruckmann, in the production of a fine series of heliotypes, which will undoubtedly do much for the study of Egyptian art. For this service both editor and publisher have earned the gratitude of every archæologist. The sumptuous plates vary from about 7x9½ to 9x10 inches, with generous margins. The publishers' past

achievements are sufficient guarantee of the character of the execution, although there are a few cases in which the negative from which they worked might probably have been improved.

On the whole the selection of the most important works of sculpture has been good. One or two omissions are noticeable. It is hard to conceive any good reason for not including the superb wooden doors bearing the relief figure of Hesire, now in the Cairo Museum; and the stela of the serpent-king recently acquired by the Louvre, unquestionably the finest product of proto-dynastic art. In the list of works proposed from the Saitic age, the renaissance of Egypt, we find only four subjects. This seems too few. Moreover, one of these four should certainly be the magnificent head of an old man in green stone at Berlin. If Bissing has any doubt as to its pre-Greek age, and its freedom from Greek influence, as he once said he had, an examination of the unquestionable Saitic relief installed beside it, will dispel his doubts. The relief just mentioned contains a head, which is the very counterpart of the green stone head in question, showing that the Saitic sculptors produced just such marvellous portraits long before Greek sculpture had arisen. A partiality for the pieces in his own fine collection may perhaps be forgiven the author, but, here and there, more notable works might have found place in the series but for this tendency. The inclusion of the archaic head of Naples was hardly a wise choice. The photographer also has sometimes stood too low.

The editor has supplied a text furnishing the necessary bibliography, and a comparative interpretation, with useful half-tone cuts of related works. One cannot but regret the adoption by the author of a system of chronology which places kings of the first dynasty as far back as 4500 B.C., more than a thousand years too early. This system rests upon the most arbitrary assumptions, and, judging from his recently published remarks, is no longer regarded as wholly tenable by the author himself. The author offers this publication as a basis for modern research. What would he think of a similar series of Greek sculptures without the inscriptions? The point of view selected often makes it impossible to see the inscriptions upon a work (*e. g.*, plate 12a), and in such cases the author's text should have included a fac-simile of the inscriptions. It is now necessary to resort for them to some other publication, or to work entirely without them. Whether the author should include a treatment and discussion of the inscriptions is another question. He has not done so. Surely, it adds much to the human side of the picture, when we view a relief depicting the Egyptian noble riding abroad in his palanquin 4500 years ago, to know that the carriers trudging with the heavy poles upon their shoulders are singing a song which closes with the refrain,

It is pleasanter when full,
Than when it is empty,

meaning that the burden of their lord is more agreeable to them than the empty chair. This song is recorded in the relief among the carriers (plate 18). Such disregard of the inscriptions is also a loss

in another way. Many archaeological facts find illustration or sometimes explanation in the great mass of surviving inscriptions elsewhere. The author seems not to have given attention to such sidelights from contemporary documents.

In matters archaeological some curious slips occur. In the relief of the palanquin-bearers already discussed (plate 18), the "fans" which the author sees in the hands of the attendants are, of course, sunshades. Few now accept the lines along the jaws of royal heads as fastenings for an artificial beard (plate 9). Finally, in the text to plate 10, there are not "zehn andere" statues of Sesostris I., but only nine; for only ten were discovered in all, nine besides the one published. Such errors as this would indicate that the author's notes have, at least in some cases, been published without the ripe study and research which such work demands. One cannot but regret, for the author's sake, the premature appearance of such remarks.

The faults—so easy to find—do not, however, destroy the timeliness and usefulness of the work as far as issued, and the hope that the remaining ten parts of the twelve may soon appear. Unquestionably students of art, art libraries, and the art departments in our colleges and universities will find these plates an indispensable survey of the great works of Egyptian sculpture.

Under the long but descriptive title, "Illustrated Catalogue of a Loan Collection of Portraits of English Historical Personages who died between 1714 and 1837, Exhibited in the Examination Schools, Oxford, April and May, MDCCCLVI," the delegates of the Clarendon Press publish the present model catalogue. The interest of this exhibition, like that of its two forerunners, was chiefly historical and iconographical, but a show that out of 205 numbers includes three Gainsboroughs, ten Sir Joshuas, and nine Romneys (not to mention such small fry as seven Hoppners and eight Lawrences), is not negligible from an artistic point of view. The handsome quarto, with its twenty-three plates, appeals chiefly, however, to lovers of biography and physiognomy. Here one has, for example, the chubby form and visage of Edward Gibbon as it appeared to Henry Walton, Reynolds, and Romney. These three varying presentments give a converging effect of force and vivacity under a superficial appearance of complacent mediocrity. Similar parallel studies may be made in the case of Addison, Sir William Blackstone, Matthew Prior, and others. But it must be said that the bigwiggy of Kneller and his disciples is of necessity unpleasantly prominent. The cataloguing is scrupulously minute, giving full indications of provenience, etc. Two pages of signatures in facsimile will be welcome to students of the obscurer eighteenth century painters. It will pay collectors who expect to come easily by Gainsboroughs and the like to make the nearer acquaintance of Tilly Kettle and similar minor portraitists of quality. Lionel Cust contributes a brief introduction, tracing in scholarly fashion the rise of the native school, but such appreciations as Sir Joshua "has not been surpassed in the general excellence of his portraits" are surely adapted solely to the longitude of Greenwich-on-Thames.

Three of the younger German painters, Ludwig Dill, Adolf Hölzel, and Arthur Langhammer are dealt with in "Neudachau," by Arthur Roeszler, the latest of the Knackfuss Art-Monographs. (Bielefeld and Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.) There is much resemblance between the pictures by the three men, and all show that mingling of impressionistic influence with older German (Munich?) tradition which is characteristic of so much of the art of Germany to-day. The work is vigorous but seems hardly to contain enough beauty to be worth while. Perhaps the color, necessarily absent from the reproductions, may redeem the almost brutal handling and the extremely summary drawing. The most curious things in the book are two specimens of what Mr. Hölzel calls "abstract ornament," things which others would call nonsense drawings, or mere scribbling. They are certainly so far "abstract" that they represent nothing in the heavens above or the earth beneath or the waters under the earth, but what they could ever ornament is beyond our conception.

Titian's "Sacred and Profane Love" receives still another interpretation, by Leonardo Ozzola in *L'Arte* for August. The nude figure is Venus, who persuades Helen, the draped figure, to run away with Paris. This explanation is based on the bas-reliefs that adorn the front of the fountain. These are said to represent the fatal consequences of Helen's frailty. To the left is the wooden horse by which Troy fell. Behind it Menelaus pursues Paris, the figures being merely indicated. To the right is the scene in which Deiphobus, Paris's successor, is betrayed by Helen and murdered in his sleep by Menelaus. So much for a guess at a difficult puzzle which is perhaps more plausible than any we have yet had. In the same number of *L'Arte* is reported the discovery of a large fresco by Piero della Francesca, in a building near Santa Maria delle Grazie, Arezzo. It is mentioned in Vasari and depicts St. Donato healing a blind woman. The work is of great size, fifty feet by nine, but has as yet been uncovered only in part. The heads reproduced are evidently portraits, and, though much damaged, of fine quality.

Science.

We never take up a volume of the Index-Catalogue to the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office (Washington) without being reminded of that other stupendous enterprise, the "Oxford English Dictionary." The Catalogue too may make boast of its being compiled "on historical principles." For a bibliographical example, take the rubric Monardus in the newly issued Volume XI, Second Series (Mo-Nyström). The Library has acquired this author's "De Simplicibus Medicamentis [brought from Western India]," turned into Latin from the original Spanish, by Charles Clusius, and bearing date 1574, with another edition in 1579; then, in 1602, A. Colin's French version; and, finally, a German rendering by Stünzner, of modern imprint. Herein we have exposed the real *fatum libelli*. In the field of science, again, the N-rays make

their entire appearance since Series I. of the Catalogue was concluded, and in the books and periodical articles cited we may trace the progress of human invention and discussion over this phenomenon from the beginning. Genuine history. So with Mosquitoes as transmitters of disease, revolutionizing our notion of pestilence. Biography, the Siamese twin of history, is ministered to by the unexpected entries—Molière: "Le Malade Imaginaire," "Le Médecin malgré lui," "L'Amour Médecin," and by quite a little literature regarding the dramatist's medical associations, and characters and diseases in his plays. Likewise, Montaigne is shown as a nurse, in his views on medication, his taking waters, his drunkenness, etc.; and Napoleon I.'s ailments, last moments, and autopsy are spread out for whoever would study them. For the rest, the great medical titles are Nerves and their affiliations (224 pp.), Nose (99), Muscles (46), Monsters (21)—with a section on the other creations in mythology and art; Morphine, Mouth, Myxœdema—goitre, cretinism, etc.; Neck. One may stumble on anything in this vast collection, *e. g.*, Needles, with reference to needles and pins in the body; or Negroes, with a special section for the United States, of broad inclusiveness. But "simplified spelling" we may happily not look for, in the nature of the case.

Apparently, the motive for the suicide of the eminent Austrian physicist, Prof Ludwig E. F. Boltzmann, was nervous exhaustion, aggravated by dread of losing the full control of his mental faculties. It was after his return from his last lecturing trip to the United States in 1905 that Professor Boltzmann's malady first assumed a serious turn. His lectures at the University of Vienna were announced last summer, but not given, and it was rumored that he was under constant supervision because he had repeatedly attempted to commit suicide. Professor Boltzmann was born in 1844. At different times he has lectured in the universities of Graz, Munich, and Leipsic. As early as 1887 he was honored by an invitation to become the successor of Kirchhoff in Berlin. He has written much on scientific subjects, but he is best known as the author of "Lehrbücher der analytischen Mechanik, Elektrizitätslehre und Gastheorie."

Interesting details come of the expedition in German East Africa by the Swedish explorer, Prof. Yngve Stöstedt, and two other men of science. The expedition lasted about a year; its main object was to study the animal and plant life of the southern slope of Mount Kilimancharo, where the ascent gradually passes from a tropical to an arctic climate. Stöstedt saw a number of species of animals which are extinct, or nearly so, in most other parts of Africa. He found the now rare giraffe present here in large numbers, including one kind previously unknown to zoölogists.

The Scientific Supplement (Beilage) of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, the best and most influential general scientific journal in Germany, has just changed editors. Dr. Oskar Bulle, who has had charge of the periodical for nine years, now retires, and is succeeded by Dr. Julius Petersev, also of Munich.

Finance.

THE TREASURY AND THE BANKS.

Secretary Shaw announced last Friday that, in view of the money stringency, \$26,000,000 of the surplus money in the United States Treasury would be at once deposited with national banks throughout the country. This announcement has a double interest in its bearing, first, on the question of the relation of the Treasury to the market; and, second, on the situation of the money market itself. The fact of a large withdrawal of cash by the Treasury from the market, during the past year, is the obvious ground for the Secretary's action. Between September 1, 1905, and September 1, 1906, the Treasury's cash balance, exclusive of gold or silver held against gold or silver certificates, increased \$43,000,000. The argument is that this cash ought to be restored to the market from which, through excess of revenue over expenditure and through the \$30,000,000 Panama Canal loan subscription, it had been withdrawn. It may be so restored by depositing the idle cash in bank.

Strict interpretation of the law requires, however, that a national bank receiving public moneys shall secure them by depositing Government bonds with the Treasury. But the supply of Government bonds obtainable for such purposes had become so small that banks could not qualify to the full amount desired. With this obstacle Secretary Shaw has dealt by construing the law so as to admit other deposited security than Government bonds—an expedient of doubtful legality, first adopted by him in 1902. He has also reversed the ruling of previous secretaries, whereby deposits of public money could be turned into the banks only by gradually delivering to them the accruing internal revenue. His predecessors had reasoned that money, once in the Treasury, could not be withdrawn, even for deposit in bank, except by Congressional appropriation; hence, money for deposit must be stopped on the way to the Treasury. Mr. Shaw advanced in 1903 the theory that the national banks, considered as depositories of public funds, were really part of the Treasury; hence that money already in the Treasury's vaults could be turned over to the banks on deposit.

These two actions by the Treasury illustrate rather strikingly the anomalies of the existing system. The whole discretion in the matter, even to the extent of straining the law, converges upon one man, and one man, with the best intentions, is liable to err. He might throw deposits into the banks at a time when they would merely encourage a dangerous stock speculation; he might refuse to release funds when disaster in the money market would be the consequence. The episode sufficiently illustrates the dangers of the system. It proves conclusively the need of a law for custody of the public surplus, which should remove these evils. The New York Chamber of Commerce, two years ago, proposed such a law, whereby the required collateral should be widened in scope, and interest payments required from bank depositories; the presumed effect of this plan would be to draw superfluous Government funds to the banks when they were really needed

by the market, and to send them back when they were needed no longer. Congress has hitherto refused to act on any such measure.

Mr. Shaw's announcement stipulates that the \$26,000,000 are to be widely distributed. New York and Chicago are to be allowed only \$3,000,000 each; four other cities, East and West and South, \$2,000,000 each; four others, \$1,000,000 each; sixteen others, \$500,000 each. The obvious purpose is to prevent the converging of the whole amount on Wall Street, where, through the banks controlled by them, the powerful millionaires who have been building up a fabric of stock speculation in the face of a money stringency, could seize possession of the funds. It is by no means certain that this purpose can be attained. Mr. Shaw has already warned the banks that they must not lend their public deposits in Wall Street, and they probably will not do so. But they can accomplish the same end in another and indirect way. What they can do is to leave in the Wall Street market money which is already loaned there for their account, but which they were expecting to call home. In the meantime the banks can use the newly received Government deposits to meet home requirements. In a very real sense, therefore, the secretary's deposits, even at such far-off points as New Orleans, Minneapolis, and Omaha, may act as a "windfall" to the New York speculators. This again illustrates the dangers of leaving such arbitrary power in the hands of any public officer.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Amhler, Sara Ellmaker. *The Dear Old Home*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
- Andrews, Mary Raymond Shipman. *The Perfect Tribute*. Scribners. 50 cents net.
- Bailey, Alice Ward. *Roherta and Her Brothers*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
- Baird, H. C. *Under Castle Walls*. Appletons. \$1.50.
- Beuner, Allen Rogers, and Herbert Weir Smyth. *Beginner's Greek Book*. American Book Co.
- Betts, Ethel Franklin. *Favorite Nursery Rhymes*. F. A. Stokes Co.
- Bible for Young People. The Century Co. \$1.50.
- Bingham, Madge A. *Blackie: His Friends and His Enemies*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
- Blaisdell, Etta Austin and Mary Frances. *Boy Blue and His Friends*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
- Braze, Benjamin. *The Seventh Person*. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
- Brandes, George. *Reminiscences of My Childhood and Youth*. Duffield & Co. \$2.50 net.
- Brent, Charles H. *Liberty and Other Sermons*. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1 net.
- Brown, Abbie Farwell. *Brothers and Sisters*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
- Butler, Ellis Parker. *The Incubator Baby*. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 75 cents.
- Butler, Ellis Parker. *Perkins of Portland*. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co. \$1.
- Cæsar's Civil War. Edited by F. P. Long. Henry Frowde.
- Carpenter, Edmund J. *Long Ago in Greece*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
- Champlain, Samuel de. *The Voyages and Explorations of*. Translated by Aune Nettleton Bourne. 2 vols. A. S. Barnes & Co.
- Chesterton, G. K. *Charles Dickens*. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50 net.
- Cholmondeley, Mary. *Prisoners*. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
- Cicero. *Nine Orations of*. Edited by Albert Harkness and others. American Book Co.
- Coleman, S. E. *The Elements of Physics*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
- Coke, Grace MacGowan. *Their First Formal Call*. Harpers.
- Cowper, William. *The Diverting History of John Gilpin*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
- Crockett, S. R. *The White Plume*. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
- Dean, John M. *The Promotion*. Philadelphia: Griffith & Rowland Press. 75 cents net.
- Dickens, Charles. *Mr. Pickwick's Christmas*. The Baker & Taylor Co. \$1.50.
- Dix, Beulah Marie. *Merrylips*. Macmillan Co. \$1.50.
- Doyle, A. Conan. *Sir Nigel*. McClure, Phillips & Co. \$1.50.
- Duer, Elizabeth. *The Prince Goes Fishing*. Appletons. \$1.50.
- Dye, Eva Emery. *McDonald of Oregon*. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.50.
- Edgar, M. G. *Stories from Scottish History*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 60 cents.

Egerton, Charles. *The Coming Dawn*. John Lane Co.
 Ford, James L. *The Wooling of Folly*. Appletons. \$1.50.
 Ford, Sewell. *Shorty McCahe*. Mitchell Kennerley. \$1.50.
 Fowler, Ellen Thornycroft. *The Subjection of Isabel Carran*. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
 Fraser, W. A. *Thirteen Men*. Appletons. \$1.50.
 French, Ailen. *Pelham and His Friend Tim*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
 Frenssen, Gustav. *Holyland*. Translated by Mary A. Hamilton. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. \$1.50.
 Fuller, Carollue. *The Flight of Puss Paudora*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
 Fuller, Hubert Bruce. *The Purchase of Florida*. Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.
 Gates, Eleanor. *The Plow Woman*. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Gems of Wisdom for Every Day. Selected by H. R. Metcalf. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
 Gibson, Charlotte Chaffee. *In Eastern Wonders*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
 Gibson, Thomas. *The Pitfalls of Speculation*. The Moody Corporation. \$1.10.
 Gilman, Bradley. *The Open Secret of Nazareth*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1 net.
 Gilson, Roy Rolfe. *Katrina*. The Baker & Taylor Co. \$1.50.
 Glasgow, M. R. *A Book of English Gardens*. Macmillan Co. \$2.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 11, 1906.

The Week.

In deciding to let the construction of the Panama Canal by private contract, the Canal Commission has adopted the wisest policy. It is doubtless the one which in the end will cost the country far less money than if the Government should undertake the whole great work itself. It is just three years since we filched the Panama Canal strip from Colombia, on the ground of urgent necessity for the immediate construction of the canal. That it has taken so long to reach this fundamental decision shows again how ridiculous was the claim that we had no time to negotiate another treaty with Colombia before making the "dirt fly." Whether contractors can now be found to undertake the work remains to be seen. We sincerely hope that they will be forthcoming; but there seems to be little enthusiasm among some who would naturally be expected to be eager to bid on the contracts. There are several reasons for this. One is that the present plans do not commend themselves in all details to engineers; another is that the Commission may attach troublesome conditions to the contracts, particularly in relation to Chinese labor.

After a long alienation Senator Albert J. Beveridge has returned to his darling theme of destiny. Destiny apparently retains him to enunciate her occasional oracles, and now employs him to predict the annexation of Cuba. It must come about, because "in the end, destiny will have her way." So speaks the silver-tongued determinist from Indiana. Now, opinions are free, and the topics of destiny and of all the mysterious ways of God with man are dogmatically discussed from a thousand nail-kegs. But these unofficial augurs speak for nobody but themselves. Mr. Beveridge, however, chooses, at a time when President Roosevelt is valiantly undertaking an unselfish negotiation of much delicacy, to declare to the world that the enterprise is impossible. He nudges the average man, and bids him regard a creditable expression of national altruism as so much moonshine. If his words have any weight whatever, they merely increase the burden Mr. Roosevelt has shouldered. Fortunately, the private opinions of Mr. Beveridge, while doubtless interesting to the State of Indiana, are not highly important to the nation at large. Least of all is Mr. Roosevelt likely to heed the cold water his friends throw upon a generous project. To the

principle of forbearance in Cuba, he is committed both by personal conviction and by self-interest. In any case, he would do his best to prevent the crumbling of that ideal of a Free Cuba for which he hazarded his life, while he knows well that the annexationist movement is highly suspect. Then, too, he is not used to kneeling ecstatically before the shrine of Our Lady Destiny, but is generally up and taking a hand himself.

The impression, helped on by his own speeches, that Secretary Taft would not take the first vacancy occurring on the Supreme bench is now confirmed. It is, of course, the effect of this decision on the next Republican Presidential nomination that will receive most attention. And yet the Taft "boom" is not of the same character as the "booms" for aspirants like Shaw and Fairbanks. It is not a thing of deals and cunning manipulation, but is based on the general and hearty admiration that is found on every hand for Mr. Taft and his services. It may be that this country will be as unable to find a man capable of carrying on his work in Cuba as it has been thus far to find a governor able to fill his shoes in the Philippines. Even in the strongest Democratic opposition to some of the policies he favors, there is never a note of the bitter or vindictive. He is cartooned by the opposition press in a vein of friendly banter, as hastening from place to place with the "lid" ready to be clapped over any centre of disturbance and held down with his own ponderous bulk. The big, sane, straightforward Secretary has made a place for himself in our public life which has no exact counterpart in our history.

An economic event, of possibly great importance, has occurred in the granting to the United States Steel Corporation of perpetual control of the Great Northern Railway's iron ore lands. In financial circles, the real significance of this contract has been lost to sight through Wall Street's feverish anxiety to know if it would not "boom" the stocks concerned. As to the bearing of this contract on the steel and iron trade of the future, little has yet been said. Yet this phase of the matter is singularly interesting. It is not known exactly how much iron ore lies in the property. Officers of the Steel Corporation, however, make no secret of their belief that this is the last large supply of iron ore available in this country. If this be true, the Corporation has taken a long step towards virtual monopoly. The railway does not sell the ore lands, but

merely leases them on royalty. But the noteworthy feature of the contract is that the royalty for the coming year—a price relatively high—is to be advanced regularly with every succeeding year. Moreover, this increase, to be recovered, presumably, in the selling price of steel and iron, is pledged in the face of a further agreement that the amount of Great Northern ore to be mined and used by the Steel Corporation is to increase three-quarters of a million tons per annum during the next ten years. The parties in interest say, of course, that their contract merely recognizes the probable relation of supply and demand. But, under these circumstances, can iron producers seriously ask retention in our tariff schedules of the \$4 per ton duty on pig iron, not to mention the utterly absurd tax of 40 cents per ton on iron ore—a tax amounting to nearly 50 per cent. of the basic price to be paid by the Steel Corporation to the Great Northern? Granting the outlook to be exactly what the Steel Corporation's experts say, the plain fact is that these "protective" taxes operate with increasing rigor to protect the Steel Trust, not only against the foreign iron-producer, but against all competitors at home.

The American Protective Tariff League, of which our dear friend Wilbur F. Wakeman is the moving spirit, is flying a flag of distress. Mr. Wakeman, in his circular letters, paints a gloomy picture. "The situation throughout the country," he assures us, "is unfavorable to Republican success." He predicts "a serious slump in the vote," so serious that "the best judges concede a loss of some forty Congressmen, which would make a difference of eighty." Mr. Wakeman heaps up the agony: "If we lose forty Congressmen (conceded) there is no telling where the losses will stop." What is the moral of this tale of woe? Send your money to the American Protective Tariff League, which is the one bulwark between us and ruin. On account of limited funds, this benevolent organization is "simply holding up work in many States." The case of Indiana is particularly pathetic. The Republican State Committee has sent a list of "ten thousand first voters with a request for at least six mailings of our documents at the earliest possible date." And for want of a few thousand dollars this flower of Indiana's youth may remain uninstructed in the glorious principles of protection. Mr. Wakeman's circulars, we are pained to observe, are being sent to corporations. The managers of the Republican campaign have professed a desire for single dollars from

plain citizens and humble toilers; they have recoiled from the thought of soiling their fingers with the tainted money of corporations. But Mr. Wakeman reasons, and justly, that if the corporations do not subscribe to carry on the propaganda of protection, no one will. If a few other subsidiary organizations like the American Protective Tariff League should enter the field, solicit contributions from corporations, and use the money for the benefit of the Republican party, the result would be exactly the same as if the party were—as it has been in the past—in direct partnership with the corporations. They drop their pennies in the slot and in return they are privileged to write the tariff schedules.

The report submitted to the New York Chamber of Commerce last week, by its special committee on currency reform, gives a lucid and temperate exposition of the weaknesses of our present bank-note system. For remedies the committee makes two distinct alternative recommendations. First, it advises that a central bank of issue be created, similar to the Bank of France or Germany; that this bank be owned partly by other banks and partly by the Government, but controlled by Government appointees; that it deal exclusively with banks, and perform the functions of issuing currency, holding public deposits, and otherwise acting as agent for the Government. As an alternative plan, the committee advises that national banks continue to issue bond-secured currency up to 50 per cent. of their capital, but that additional notes, up to 35 per cent. of capital, may be issued, subject to a graduated tax, which is to rise from 2 to 6 per cent., according to the ratio of outstanding notes to capital stock. A central bank of issue has long been conceded to be a political impossibility in this country. The public has always shown, and we believe will continue to show, unwillingness to intrust to a single body of men such power. The committee's proposal as to additional note circulation, based on assets alone and taxed progressively so as to insure early redemption when the need for the added currency disappeared, may be said to occupy middle ground between the simon-pure asset currency plan and that of a taxed "emergency circulation" set forth by Secretary Shaw. It has the advantage of providing an effective brake on actual inflation of banknote currency. Whether the complications arising from the "harvest demand" and from the glutting of Wall Street, in dull seasons, with reserve money of interior banks, would be disposed of under the new proposal, is a question more difficult to answer.

The extraordinary actions of the Mut-

ual Life directors, in their effort to force the company's agents to electioneer for the administration ticket, show that these gentlemen still fail to comprehend what a mutual life insurance company is. President Peabody assures the protesting agents that no coercion is intended. The agents refer him to the circular sent to them over the president's own signature, warning them that "all persons connected with the company are called upon to sustain the administration ticket wholly and unreservedly." No one will wonder that this performance should arouse, both among the agents and in the mind of the general public, intense indignation. In Michigan, the Mutual policyholders' committee, who have quite as ready access as Mr. Peabody himself to the facts of the controversy with the Mutual's agent at Detroit, have passed resolutions which "condemn in the strongest possible manner the brazen way in which an attempt has been made to coerce Mr. Paige." What right have the trustees of a mutual life insurance company to require in their own behalf the electioneering service of the general agents? Mr. Peabody and his friends appear to have overlooked the little fact that the policyholders own the company and have a right to choose their own management freely and unreservedly, and that for a management in power to use the machinery of the company for a personal canvass in its own behalf is a gross outrage.

Professor Hinckley Gilbert Mitchell has escaped a trial for heresy by the Central New York Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church. According to the dispatches, he gets off on a technicality—the charges were not drawn legally—and he may at some future time be brought to the bar. The pursuit of Professor Mitchell by a few professional heresy-hunters of the sect has troubled the more liberal Methodists. He is now a man of sixty, a graduate of Wesleyan University at Middletown, of the Theological School of Boston University, and he holds a doctorate from Leipzig. He has been director of the American School for Oriental Study and Research in Palestine, and he has written half-a-dozen books on questions of Old Testament criticism. This is a creditable record, and the trustees of Boston University recognized it by appointing him to the chair of Semitic languages. The term for this appointment is five years; and when his last term expired in 1905, the trustees reelected him. But here the bishops of the Methodist Church stepped in, with their right to veto an appointment to a theological chair, and laid a ban on Professor Mitchell. The trustees, after vainly trying to get the bishops to reconsider their decision, had to yield. The people who

succeeded in driving Professor Mitchell from Boston University are now trying to force him out of the Church. Their argument is that if he is too heretical to teach he is too heretical to preach; that a church which, through its bishops, demands narrowness and ignorance in its theological professors may reasonably seek the same qualities in its ministers.

Wizards and sorcerers still play a part at the courts of despotic princes. A sorcerer in Tangier, encouraged and supported by the Sultan, has been stirring up "anti-European sentiment" among the natives. The representative of a German firm was dragged off his mule and forced to go barefoot, and the German Consular Agent was attacked with impunity. This almost recalls the Egyptian magi. The fanatic who has gained control in Tangier is said to have acquired an astonishing control over the Sultan. The same kind of troublesome person, who has a like baneful effect upon governors, mayors, and lesser potentates, is found in Western countries. But here his power is known, not as sorcery, but as "influence." And among us it has never been necessary to call in magic as an explanation of "anti-European sentiment."

The split in the English Labor Party now announced is by no means unexpected. Efforts were made during the recent Trade Union Congress to conceal the fact that there was a widening breach within the ranks, but to no avail. To those visionaries who have worried lest the Labor Party have a majority in Parliament within the next few years, experienced politicians have replied that the new party must first stand the test of a single Parliament. This it has now failed to do, for, after a single session, it has divided into two camps—the Socialists, under the lead of Keir Hardie, and the Liberals, under John Burns. This is precisely in keeping with the history of similar movements. The inability of labor leaders to agree for long or to act harmoniously for any length of time, is a genuine stumbling-block in the way of their achieving political power. Mutual jealousy has wrecked more than one such undertaking. Indeed, there are already persistent rumors that some of our labor men are sorely vexed with Mr. Gompers for his incursion into politics. In England, the labor men are not only divided over the proper attitude of the Labor members of Parliament towards the party in power, but are harassed by the expense of supporting their representatives at St. Stephens's and by the heavy cost of keeping up a political organization.

The project of boring a tunnel under

the English Channel has once more been resurrected, and special efforts are to be made to get a bill through Parliament at its next session. The idea was originally proposed one hundred years ago by a French engineer, Mathieu, but practical plans were not laid before the public until 1867, when companies were formed both in England and in France. Hitherto, whenever the scheme has been mooted, the fear of a French invasion has been invoked to defeat it, even though a small supply of dynamite would make it impossible to use the tunnel five minutes after the declaration of war. Curiously enough, this dread of France still persists, and finds expression even in so staid a journal as the *Spectator*, which gravely contends that the construction of a tunnel would seriously weaken England's insular position. The Channel, it appears, is a moat, and "you do not strengthen your defence by running a passage under the moat." In other words, a fantastic military danger is again being used to delay what would be a great blessing to commerce and humanity. Still another absurd objection is that such a tunnel "would lead to recurrent national panics," hardly a tribute to the stability of the English character. On the practical side, it is estimated that it would cost only \$50,000,000 to build the tunnel. Bills similar to the one now proposed have been rejected eight times since 1882—the last time in 1893.

Americans are in the habit of thinking of London as having the worst slums in Europe, but it seems that it is really Liverpool which deserves that distinction. Dr. E. M. Hope, the health officer of that city, declares that there is not "a city in this country, nay, in Europe, which can produce anything like the squalor that we find in some of the back streets in Liverpool." He says that this is almost entirely due to drink, and, speaking of the Hornby Street area, known particularly for its wretchedness, he affirms that it has been proved beyond question that the poor creatures in that small quarter spend twenty-five thousand dollars a year in drink. The surprising thing about this statement is that the problem of the housing of the working classes has long engaged municipal attention in Liverpool with remarkable results, so that other cities have even regarded it as a pioneer whose methods must be studied with care. As a result, the Liverpool slums, bad as they still are, have been greatly decreased in area. Side by side with the purchase and destruction of unsanitary property has gone the erection of new buildings, while the number of public houses has steadily diminished. During the last ten years, the municipality has spent \$1,500,000 in building model cottages and tenements, and over \$2,000,000 in buying up and tearing down

houses which are a menace to health.

The day seems to be approaching when men will dread wealth as they now dread sickness or insanity, and when to be fashionable will be considered criminal. The clergy are everywhere declaiming against "smart" sets, so that it is coming to be thought rather smart to be denounced from the pulpit. At the last annual Church Congress in England, the Bishop of Durham spoke of the misery of the rich. The Seven Dials and Whitechapel are no longer the centres of wretchedness, but the place to witness suffering is in the heart of fashionable London. The Bishop recommended that his hearers "take a station at Hyde Park corner near enough to the endless string of carriages to get a good look beneath the picture hats." Evidences of discontent and unhappiness would be found on the "joyless faces" of these outwardly fortunate people. As Schopenhauer remarked, there are only two forms of unhappiness: the pain of unsatisfied and the *ennui* of satisfied desire. Most people prefer the latter to the former. But the Bishop was laboring under a mistake often made by those unfamiliar with the ways of the rich and of their associates. In the smartest set, there is no sign of ill breeding more pronounced than the betrayal of a happy state of mind. The "joyless face" of a really smart person is the outward and visible sign of an inward beatitude. It has been frequently observed that a thoroughgoing Epicurean will end by being a Stoic.

Archdeacon Colley, an adventuresome but credulous Englishman, now has cause to be skeptical concerning the spirit world. He offered Maskelyne, the magician, £1,000 if the latter would reproduce by trickery certain supposed spiritualistic phenomena. Maskelyne accepted the challenge and reproduced such a celestial visitant as had been designated. "A most attractive young lady" emerged from the smoke which filled the room. Such a phenomenon, if natural, no doubt has its value, although £1,000 is rather a high price to pay; yet if supernatural it would be worth little more. When an endowment for the proposed Institute for Psychical Research shall have been secured, it might be well to set aside a sum for the production of séances like that given by Maskelyne. It would be more costly but much more expeditious than the old way of waiting for spirits which do not materialize, and rappings which perplex and discomfit. The advantage of an artificial apparition is that it comes when wanted, and really says and does things. It is to be regretted that we in America have no Archdeacon Colleys, to tempt the magicians into duplicating the

wonderful revelations vouchsafed to Mrs. Piper. They would be a "drawing feature" for an enterprising manager.

The degree of honor in which the memory of Herbert Spencer should be held is not a point on which Englishmen are of one mind. Since the Dean of Westminster rejected the proposal to erect a monument to the philosopher in the Abbey, several plans have been advocated for some national recognition of Spencer's services to speculation and science. In favor of such recognition are a number of eminent investigators, among them Bastian, Foster, and Francis Galton. But Lockyer, the astronomer, has opposed any subscription for such a purpose, and Lord Kelvin writes: "I have never been of the opinion that the philosophical writings of Mr. Herbert Spencer had the value or importance which have been attributed to them by many writers of high distinction. In my opinion, a national memorial would be unsuitable." Some have suggested that an appropriate memorial to Spencer would be the founding of certain lectureships or scholarships to awaken scientific interest and to encourage scientific research. English universities were comparatively hospitable to the radical thought of John Stuart Mill, but have shown little enthusiasm for Herbert Spencer's philosophy. Yet we know that Taine ranked Spencer with Mill. And Huxley, who often laughed at the absurd in Spencer, still had the highest admiration for his philosophic gifts and attainments.

A discussion is now being carried on in France, like the debate among Greek cities as to the place of Homer's birth. There is a question whether the late Victor Cherbuliez was French or Swiss. Upon this important point, two of the latest biographical dictionaries contradict each other. When the novelist was admitted to the French Academy, Renan spoke of him as coming from Le Dauphiné, and his ancestors from Le Poitou and Les Cévennes. In a eulogy pronounced after his death, Emile Faguet called him a native of Geneva, but by birth a Frenchman, because his family were refugees from France. Eugène Ritter maintains that he was a Genevan by ancestry as well as by birth. Ernest Tissot concludes from Cherbuliez's own account that the latter was of Swiss nativity, though of French ancestry, but he cites a number of passages from "Le Comte Kostia" and other romances to show that Cherbuliez was "an excellent Genevan who had none of the Swiss character." It is difficult, however, to miss in his novels that serious and sometimes sombre religious coloring which may be taken as a residuum of his early Calvinistic education and training.

THE MAKING OF A "POGROM."

Why should people engaging in freeing themselves from a despotic yoke turn aside from their quest of liberty to engage in horrible massacres of unoffending Jews? This question has been asked everywhere. Documents are now coming out of Russia which throw much light upon the genesis of the "pogroms" that have succeeded one another with appalling rapidity. In the first place, the Government, and not the people, of Russia, is responsible for the outrages. It has been proved beyond dispute that most of them have been started, and deliberately, by soldiers or police under the orders of their superior officers. Yet there has been no stirring protest from the masses of the Russian people; the occurrence of pogroms is not one of the indictments of the Imperial Government which are daily increasing the ranks of the Terrorists, and even making assassins of young girls of refinement and education. A reason for this condition of affairs, aside from the usual antagonism of the adherent of the Russian Church to the Jew, is that the reactionaries, with devilish ingenuity, have deceived the public as to the actual attitude of the Jews by means of false rumors or forged documents.

The Berlin *Tageblatt* has just got hold of one of the ingenious pamphlets issued by priests of the Russian Church, hundreds of thousands of copies of which, thanks to the fanatical zeal of the "True Men of Russia" and the "Black Hundred," have been circulated among the troops and the populace generally. The document begins with a spurious "secret address" of the chief rabbi to the Jewish people "in regard to their general programme of life." From it we take the following extracts:

For nineteen hundred years we have been fighting the cross, and our people have not been defeated nor have they sunk to earth; if they have scattered all over the earth it is because the whole earth must belong to them. Their power grows with every day. . . . Not, however, until we are the real masters of all the gold in the world shall we obtain the actual power we seek. The nations of the earth must be plunged into debt. . . . That is our programme. When the property of land owners has come into our possession, the labor of the Christian workmen will become for us a never ending source of wealth. We must work zealously to weaken the influence of the Christian Church, our most dangerous enemy—we must *degrade its priesthood*. Next to the gold, the press is our most important objective; we must in all nations be at the head of the newspapers. We must . . . fire the masses to revolution, in order that they may destroy themselves.

Stupid and clumsy as this forgery reads, it is none the less reported by trustworthy Russians to have had an incredible effect in inflaming the soldiery and the masses against the Jews.

The untutored *mujik* swears, of course, that these "secret instructions" of the chief rabbi are gospel truth. But the authors of the pamphlet add an appeal to all orthodox Christians, in which they assert that all the gold and the business of the country are in the hands of the Jews, to whom alone is to be attributed the present disorder among the Russian people; and that the demand for a constitutional assembly "in place of the Czar's splendid government" is made "in order that the Jews may rule Russia through this assembly." The time will speedily come, the pamphlet continues, when the Christians will have to pay the Jews in order to enter their own churches. There was a period when all their temples were mortgaged to the Jews. Shall it come again? "In the name of the Saviour, let us drive these enemies of the Czar and our Lord from among us!"

When a leaflet like this has been carefully distributed, as was done in Warsaw recently—a "pogrom" has been expected there for weeks past—the next thing is to start the story that the Jews have resorted to arms, and are attacking populace and troops. This falsehood is persisted in, even when the "pogrom" is over. Thus, in the official report of the Siedlce massacre, there is the same old official lie that the Jews fired from their houses upon military patrols, who, of course, were bound to defend themselves. The St. Petersburg press even went so far as to fasten upon one dead Jew, Wassiliew, the responsibility for firing the first shot. But, according to the reports of the Reuter Bureau, officers of the garrison had brought their wives to the leading hotels for the night for greater safety, knowing full well that the "pogrom" was at hand. The artillerymen, who subsequently demolished many houses, stated frankly that they had been instructed in advance as to their duties and just how far they might carry their plundering and robbery. The first individual shots came from the police, and were followed almost immediately by volleys fired by full companies of infantry. Then came atrocities of the most terrible description. Men, women, and children were beaten and stabbed and robbed before being butchered.

Depressing as all this is in its revelation of the ease with which "pogroms" may be set on foot, it is, on the other hand, encouraging to have the causes laid bare and to realize that the massacres are due to passing incitement rather than to long-smouldering passions. When the triumph of the revolution comes, it is inconceivable that clergy or officialdom will be permitted to massacre in the hope either of reinstating a despotic Government or of rousing religious antagonisms.

TRAINING FOR BUSINESS.

Writing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the subject of commercial education, M. Jacques Siegfried gives to our American "business colleges" an importance not generally conceded on this side of the Atlantic. Nothing, he says, so astonished him during his visit to the United States in 1860 as the eight or ten schools of the type of Packard's and Bryant and Stratton's, which he then found in operation. He marvelled at the rapidity with which good business men and women were turned out of these mills, and he assigns to them much credit for the originality of business methods for which this country is celebrated. Since 1860, as he points out, there have been great advances, and he now notes that there are fully a dozen faculties of genuine colleges or universities devoting themselves to commercial education.

But whether success in commerce is due to commercial training or whether the training is a result of the success is an open question, long warmly debated. Frank A. Vanderlip, the New York banker, sees in Germany's remarkably homogeneous system of business education the explanation of her industrial and commercial progress. On the contrary, as far back as 1897, a British Foreign Office report declared that Germany's commercial training was the result of her great industrial advance. The writer was able to show, in defence of his theory, that in 1889 commercial education was at a low ebb. Since that time German foreign trade has more than doubled, and in the train of this increase has come the enormous growth of the commercial schools. These, by the way, were known in Berlin as long ago as the eighteenth century. At present, according to a recent writer in the *North American Review*, there are within the Kaiser's Empire 9 technical high schools, 4 mining academies, 4 commercial high schools, and 587 middle and lower grade industrial, technical, and commercial schools. No less than 297 of these schools are in Prussia; of the commercial type there are fully 64 in Saxony alone. This extraordinary showing—surpassed only by Belgium's—is not, as might have been expected, due to a paternalistic government, long eagerly engaged in over-sea colonial ventures in search of trade, but to private initiative, as in this country, or to the various municipalities.

For years a "German Society for Commercial Education" has carried on a vigorous propaganda. To it is partly due one notable result—the joining of business men in an effort to capture foreign markets. To this movement the commercial schools have very naturally contributed. That these schools bear evidence of the characteristic German thoroughness is only to be expected. In

this field Germans must be thorough if they would overcome their natural disadvantages. They have no such rich gifts of nature as this country, no wealth of raw material, no vast domestic market upon which to base their foreign conquests. They have had to fall back upon their wits, and literally must make something out of every blade of grass. There has been no weakening of literary and scientific teaching, no commercializing of education in general. Yet the business high schools are generally admitted to have accomplished more than either their numerous critics or their advocates had dared to hope. With praiseworthy flexibility they have been quick to adapt themselves to changing conditions and to unforeseen needs.

The new high school just opened in Berlin, for instance, has learned a lesson from the weaknesses of the older institutions. Thus it has established special faculties in particular fields, introduced practical exercises, and subordinated purely theoretical teaching. The Cologne high school, because of its geographical position, leans towards industrial questions; that at Berlin is more strictly commercial. Yet its two-year course is meant not to be a substitute for practical business training, but a rounding out of the knowledge thus acquired, a deepening and broadening of the student's general culture, together with an increase of his special or technical acquirements. Its discipline is, in brief, a recognition of what may be called the scientific needs of the modern merchant. On the social side the effort will be to find a middle path, which will prevent students from aping the manners and customs of the university students, and at the same time avoid the frankly commercial fashion.

Fortunately for us in this country, such questions do not vex student or teacher. Our commercial colleges are, however, face to face with the problem of the extent to which the practical training shall be carried. Must they adopt the laboratory system of the historical and other seminars, and establish miniature stock and produce exchanges, banking houses, with "tickers" as part of the stage setting? To our mind, the very best schooling for the American business man is still that training which will enable him to concentrate his mind upon whatever problem he has in hand. In so far it does not differ from the aim of the good old-fashioned classical teaching. What the business man needs, also, is sound drill in economics and finance, the laws of trade, and the economic policy of the Government since its origin. To this foundation should be added as much specialized learning of a practical character as may be acquired in a two or three years' course. Most of all, the

American "hustler" of the future ought to know a great deal more about foreign nations and their methods, lest the charge of narrowness should more than ever lie against him.

SUNDAY READING.

Principal Caird many years ago contributed a series of articles to *Good Words* under the general title of "Essays for Sunday Reading." These, at the request of several Scottish booksellers, have been reprinted in book form, and will be published on October 2 by Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, who inform us that the first edition has already been oversubscribed, and that a second impression is now being prepared.—[London *Athenæum*.

In speaking of Bunyan a few weeks since we ventured the opinion that the writings of the great allegorist are less read than they were a generation ago, partly because the old distinction between "Sunday" reading and that which is appropriate for week days is disappearing. "Pilgrim's Progress" used to be the nearest approach to a story of adventure that well-brought-up children were allowed to look at on Sunday. If we may believe a recent London critic, who joins us in lamenting the declining popularity of Bunyan, England, as well as America, is falling away from the old tradition. It is significant that Macmillan used to publish a "Sunday Library," containing such works as Mrs. Oliphant's "St. Francis of Assisi," and Charles Kingsley's "The Hermits"; but though many of the volumes are still in print, the special classification has been given up, probably as of no commercial value. In Scotland, however, as the note in the *Athenæum* indicates, religion is still a serious business. The descendants of the Covenanters, who are not to be blown about by every wind of doctrine, eagerly buy books for Sunday.

The line between sacred and secular literature was often, of course, illogically drawn. No one can have any doubt about Jeremy Taylor's "Holy Living" and "Holy Dying." The worthy Mr. Tulliver himself used to read in them "often of a Sunday." Baxter's "Saints' Everlasting Rest," Jay's "Mornings with Jesus," and Kitto's "Pictorial Sunday Book" carry conviction in their titles. Todd's "Lectures to Children" would also pass the severest censor. But fiction offered difficult problems to judicious parents. Some fathers cut the knot by forbidding all works of imagination except "Pilgrim's Progress"; others temporized and admitted the churchly and impeccable Miss Yonge. From Miss Yonge it was an easy step to Martha Finley's innumerable "Elsie Books," and thence to Louisa M. Alcott. The "Elsie Books," indeed, with their positively offensive piety, are far less wholesome for any day of the week than the stories of Miss Alcott.

The growth of the Sunday-school library brought fresh complications. The books in these collections frequently bore the imprint of a denominational publishing house; they had passed the scrutiny of the pastor, the superintendent, and a committee of the primmest Sunday-school teachers. Who, then, could object to the tales which the children joyfully brought home from the "liberry"? Yet we have known Sunday-school libraries to possess complete sets of "Oliver Optic" and "Harry Castlemon." If you make a place for these lively narratives, you have practically ceased to discriminate.

The obstacles to consistent practice do not, however, explain our abandonment of Sunday reading. We follow the line of least resistance and read the first thing that comes to hand. Men who profess to have outgrown any edification from sermons devote Sunday to an orgy of sensational or vapid articles. Not content with secularizing Sunday, they insist on vulgarizing it. At present the souls of young and old are refreshed and uplifted before church (or golf) by the antics of Buster Brown, the Katzenjammer Kids and Foxy Grandpa. The rest of the week we batten on the newspapers and the cheap magazines. Our fathers' rule was good reading for the week and the best for Sunday; ours is bad reading for the week and the worst for Sunday. For most of us, then, nothing could be more wholesome than the revival of a valid distinction between Sunday and other reading. There is no reason in the nature of things why we should demoralize ourselves with trashy books and periodicals from Monday to Saturday; but, if we must indulge in such mental dissipation, and if we must skim the newspapers on the way to and from business, we may at least on Sunday allot a little time to books that are worth while. These books need not be religious, if we are superior to religion; they can at any rate have some permanent value. They can suggest to us something beyond the routine of our shop, something that does not furnish a shrieking headline, some vision of the ideal.

A famous New England divine—long since gone to his reward—used to tell of his boyhood in which his Sunday reading was strictly confined to the Bible and the Catechism. Now the Catechism, we grant, is not a book of positive charm; and yet much depends upon associations. This lad was wont to sit during warm June afternoons by an open window through which came the fragrance of roses from the garden below. The result was that even in his old age that searching question as to the whole duty of man, and the terrible threats against the unregenerate, who are "made liable to all miseries in this life, to death itself, and to the pains of hell forever"—these thunders from Sinai

always recalled to his memory the soft airs of early summer, its brilliant verdure, and the odor of the flowers. We doubt, however, whether the kindest air and the most brilliant blossoms can ever sanctify such reading as most of us now do on Sunday, or, on the other hand, can turn our minds from the shabby, sordid page to meditations on time and eternity.

THE ARTISTIC UNDERGROUND RAILROAD.

A foreign dispatch describes a collection of stolen masterpieces which is shortly to be sold in this city. Everything in the story is vague except that these paintings all have a pedigree into which fraud or larceny has entered. The tale all has the fine full flavor of the detective novel, and collectors will possibly take the news more sedately than laymen. There are, indeed, few amateurs who are not familiar with the mysterious person who possesses the sole authentic original of a Raphael or Titian supposedly in the Uffizi or Prado. This person, if he does not say "hist" like the villain of melodrama, at least looks as if he could unfold a variegated chronicle of crime. His picture, however, rarely does credit to its dubious past. Such experiences put collectors on their guard against stolen sweets at a bargain; and the present romance will, among initiates, hardly provoke any excitement.

In spite of such reasonable skepticism, there actually is an underground railroad where the artistic freight is at times of consequence. Through the ignorance of amateurs and the trickiness of dealers, copies are constantly circulated as originals. But this again produces a curious reaction, by which the originals become discredited and may actually be rejected in favor of copies and the like. There are many opportunities for such substitution. Only the other day we read that a Titian in the Royal Palace at Venice had disappeared, being replaced by an imitation. Presumably, it was under repair. The restorer's shop is the natural place for such frauds. One recalls the British collector who, sending a famous Rubens to be cleaned, for better security put many seals upon the back of the panel. In due time he received the picture again with the seals intact, only to be informed by a connoisseur that it was a modern copy. The unlucky amateur protested the impossibility of such a thing, but an examination of the panel showed that it was but half its former thickness. It had been sawn in two and the copy executed upon the back without disturbing the seals. Prompt complaint at the restorer's procured an exchange, but the owner may be pardoned if he still has misgivings as to his Rubens. Suppose two copies had been

made to provide for this very contingency!

Such an incident shows how well-known masterpieces might be shunted to the underground railroad. For one substitution that is detected, many must be carried off successfully. Evidently also such acquisitions must be marketed with discretion. It would not have done, for example, to sell the real Rubens to a neighbor of its former possessor. To see the process in full blast one need not go far. There are American dealers who, securing a good picture, say an example of the latest fad, Schreyer, distribute copies of it here and there. When the game has gone far enough, they sell the original also, and the discovery of half-a-dozen versions of the same picture brings the value of the entire group down. It is fair to add that such dealers usually redeem their spurious output when brought to book. The game is not worth a law-suit. The law, in fact, is almost impotent in such a case. It is not a crime to copy a picture, nor to mistake a copy for an original. Fraud may fairly be inferred at every stage of the transaction, but it apparently applies technically only to the painter who forges the signature, and he can never be found. Up to that point your copy is an honest thing; beyond it the most able dealer may be honestly deceived; it all makes freight for the underground road.

And the foibles even of skilful amateurs go to aid this traffic. One may recall the whimsical fate that befell a great Parisian collector who deliberately exchanged a fine Rembrandt for a copy. He really owned the original, but a casual hint from a connoisseur that the original was in England so far perturbed the Frenchman that he rushed to London and bought the supposed original at what seemed to be a bargain. At this point a benevolent dealer intervened and offered to take the putative copy off his hands. Shortly after the sale had been effected, the connoisseur changed his mind. He had seen the English Rembrandt in a bad light; it was the copy, after all. Meanwhile, the authentic Rembrandt had passed at a great price into an American gallery, where it hangs as a monument to the enlightened benevolence of a famous Parisian dealer. The copy is an embarrassing possession in the hands of its late owner's executors. It should bear a tablet memorializing the fallibility of connoisseurship and the subtle perils of amateurism.

One might multiply examples which illustrate the ease with which copies and originals may be confused. The business is, in the nature of the case, of an individual sort, and we have no reason to suppose that any number of the submerged masterpieces are coming over in

a single consignment. Somebody might ask why no notice has been taken of actual thefts, a number of which are matter of record. Simply because very few pictures disappear in this crude fashion. The clever substitution of a copy is in every way safer and neater. In this way the original may be sold repeatedly, being used merely to flatter the purchaser's eye, while a copy is packed and shipped. Of course, there is the famous case of "The Stolen Duchess," by Gainsborough. But knowing students of that romance suspect that the spectacular theft may have been no more real than the picture itself, which is only a plausible old copy. No such work ever had so splendid an advertisement; but the authorities of the underground railroad have never been the enemies of a discreet publicity.

ADELAIDE RISTORI.

It was a rich, full, and eventful life which ended when Adelaide Ristori drew her last breath on Tuesday. Happier than many of her profession, she survived to enjoy for many years the fame, the wealth, and the esteem which she had acquired by long and arduous labor. Almost a century has slipped away, and the world, as well as the theatre, has changed in many ways, since she first saw the footlights as an infant in arms in 1821. She was born in what old English-speaking playgoers would call the palmy days of the Italian stage, when Modena and Marchionni were at the height of their fame, and the richest artistic rewards were still to be gained in high tragedy and classic comedy. In Italy, indeed, the great dramatists still exert a large if in some degree a diminishing influence. They have not been abandoned, as in England and this country, for the unclean or puerile imaginings of the commercial playwright; and consequently in that favored country there is, even with Ristori and Rossi dead and Salvini in practical retirement, a rising generation of actors not unworthy to sustain the traditions of the past.

There can be no doubt that Ristori was possessed of rare histrionic genius; but it may be questioned whether, even in her youthful prime, she ever soared to those supreme heights of pathos or passion which, in moments of inspiration, have been reached by such players as Garrick, Edmund Kean, Mrs. Siddons, Salvini, Duse, or Rachel. We have the valuable testimony of at least one capable contemporary witness on this point, that of the venerable Sir Theodore Martin, who saw both Rachel and Ristori at their best, and who does not hesitate to declare the Frenchwoman by far the more powerful actress of the two. But the genius of Rachel was almost wholly tragic, whereas the range of Ristori in her younger days embraced all that was

best in Italian classic drama. She was a mistress of refined comedy as well as a potent interpreter of solemn or tempestuous emotions. Like all the great players of the older school, she passed through a long and exacting novitiate, appearing in an interminable succession of minor characters of all kinds, until she had mastered not only all the rudiments, but all the resources and graces, of her profession. Nature, it must be granted, had been most beneficent to her, having endowed her with a countenance of most regular, expressive, and dignified beauty, an imposing stature, and a form of singular grace and majesty. But for her nobility of carriage, her eloquent, but never exuberant, gesture, her mobility of facial expression, her superb utterance, and the vocal control which enabled her to roll forth declamatory verse with an extraordinary and musical sonority, or give the choicest effects of humor to playful or satirical passages—for these accomplishments she was indebted to the constant practice in stock companies, which could only avoid starvation by almost daily changes of programme.

It is only the older generation of players who will remember Ristori as she was when she last appeared in this city. Her powers then were beginning to decline. Some of the ancient fire was lacking, and neither zeal nor inspiration was always present to conceal completely the formalism of her style. But what an artist she was! With what authority and decision—with what clearness of purpose and certainty of execution—she spoke and moved! With whatadroitness she could, upon occasion, make perfect mechanism assume the aspect of living and spontaneous intelligence! One of her famous scenes was in the "Elizabeth," of Giacometti, in which the Virgin Queen dictates two different letters, in alternate sentences, to two of her secretaries, while carrying on a conversation with her courtiers. She did all this with so striking an assumption of regal and intellectual power, that her audiences were entirely oblivious of such prosaic facts as prompters and cues and gave her personal credit for achieving a mental feat of enormous difficulty. The scene always was followed by a round of rapturous applause.

In her famous parts of Medea (Le-gouvés), Mary Stuart, Elizabeth, Myrrha, Marie Antoinette, etc., she prevailed as much by her romantic fervor and charm as by her purely tragic power. Her methods were more ornate than those of the rigid French classicists, and it was this fact that tended to accentuate the bitterness of the rivalry between herself and Rachel. She was wise, probably, in declining the high honor of admission to the Théâtre Français, offered by the French Government, for

she would have found herself cribbed, cabined and confined by many of the regulations and restrictions of the House of Molière. It was her own ambition, she professed, to effect a union of the two styles, the classic and romantic, but that was scarcely feasible. She belonged essentially to the romantic school. She was not entirely satisfied, it is said, with her reception in this country. Her triumphs all over Europe and the impressionable Latin colonies of South America had made her exacting in the matter of enthusiasm. Applauded though she was here, she found us cold, and ascribed the chill to our lack of taste. When Salvini was leaving Italy for New York she is said to have remarked to him: "Give 'em comedy, Tommy. They won't listen to your tragedy." So Salvini played the feeble "David Garrick," making it seem a masterpiece, and failed dismally. His Othello quickly justified American taste, but it had more in it than Ristori ever had to give.

She was, however, a very great actress and artist, who did much for the glory of the Italian stage, which she advertised the world over. She may be said, perhaps, to have been the connecting link between the old school of Modena and his predecessors, and the later school, of which Duse is so brilliant an example.

LITERARY NOTES FROM PARIS.

PARIS, October 1.

Among the centennial memories of the year is the beginning of Goethe's lasting reverence for Napoleon—all the more interesting to us as the rising religion of Nietzsche unites the two as Supermen. Dr. Stephen Kekulé von Stradonitz, in the *National Zeitung*, publishes the new letters, and Prof. Andreas Fischer, a Swiss, devotes a hook (in German) to "Goethe und Napoleon."

When Goethe finally met Napoleon in person he said: "Here's a man!" The letters now published date from 1808, when Napoleon made Goethe chevalier of the Legion of Honor, and 1818, when the restored Bourbon promoted him to be officer of the Legion. Goethe evidently sympathized with the downfall of Prussia, whose destiny to him at least was not manifest; and he spoke currently of "Napoleon, the phenomenon," "compendium of the world," "the greatest intellect the world has ever known," "leading the most marvellous of heroes' lives." When all was over in 1815 he said—"Faust started up in my mind the ideas which I had and still have about Napoleon." In 1828 he still said: "See what a man Napoleon was. His life was a demigod's march from battle to battle, from victory to victory—it is impossible for us to imitate him." And in the last year of his life he answered to patriotic criticism: "Let my Emperor alone!"

Frédéric Masson of the French Academy continues his series, interminable hut of intense human interest, of Napoleonic studies, by a second "Jadis" (Old Times). Like

the first, it has a variety of odds and ends that did not fit into the heavier volumes—Napoleon and Women, Napoleon on Horseback (it seems he rode badly), and so on. The author, who has devoted his life to the minute elucidation of his subject, says very sincerely by way of preface:

The Napoleon idea is not one you can take up and put aside at will, simply to amuse your leisure with it and embroider it with your own fancies. It is as masterful, absorbing, despotic as was the man himself. Without let or interruption it holds the mind which follows it up. It forces you to look closely at every one of the men employed by the Emperor, to scrutinize their acts, to seek out their share in the loyalty or treason of the drama. . . . I might have before me as many years as I have already lived and I would not take a single day for other studies. After the twenty volumes I have published I would publish twenty more which I have already planned out, and then yet twenty others whose titles are running through my brain. And still, in my impotence to paint him as I see him, I should despair.

The first volume of Mistral's *Memoirs*—"Mes Origines"—takes us back to the simple life of an old soldier of the Revolution watching reverently a son, wrapped round with university diplomas of the new order, lying back and singing like a Provençal cicada beneath pale olive trees. There is a boyhood glimpse of the withered crone who still chuckled to herself at memory of the days when she posed as Goddess of Reason for the Revolution-mad village. Paul Mariéton announces an "intimate" volume on Mistral, whose modesty, he says, makes his *Memoirs* incomplete. Even so, their interest is human as well as literary, with the aged Lamartine and young Daudet crossing their pages.

The fifth volume of the monumental complete edition of the works of Victor Hugo has just been printed at the Imprimerie Nationale. The place of Paul Meurice as editor has been taken by Gustave Simon (son of Jules Simon). He keeps to the tradition of annotating with letters, notes, and private papers, so that not only the poem, but the genesis of the verses as well, may be understood. He gives fewer rejected verses, however, than his predecessor. The new volume is entirely taken up with "La Légende des Siècles." It originally appeared in the full excitement of the war of 1859—France aiding Italy to her birth against opposing Austria. Hugo wrote to his publisher: "My books always come out at the wrong time: 'Feuilles d'Automne,' on the day of the Lyons insurrection; 'Notre Dame de Paris,' the day when the archbishopric was sacked; 'Marion de Lorme,' in a week of two riots. Purchasers had to jump over a barricade." S. D.

Correspondence.

PLEA FOR SIMPLIFIED SPELLING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a member of the Simplified Spelling Board and as one who has taken the *Nation* for thirty years and written for it a great deal, I ask the privilege of replying to your editorial of October 4 on "Genuine Phonetic Spelling."

Apropos of a recent deliverance of George Bernard Shaw you make some remarks on phonetics and phoneticians, and

then, by way of showing your readers what a funny-looking thing phonetic spelling is, you print a few lines of every-day English first in the alphabet of Henry Sweet, and then in the characters of Bell's "visible speech." Then you say:

In all seriousness, the proposals of the Simplified Spelling Board either mean a systematic advance in this direction, or they mean a purposeless and futile meddling with a language that is doing very well.

Now permit me to assure you that the proposals of the Simplified Spelling Board mean neither the one nor the other of these things. On the contrary, they are a cautious application of science and common sense to the improvement of one of our social utilities which is very much in need of improvement. Phonetic spelling such as you represent has about the same relation to this practical problem as "wanting one's daughter to marry a nigger" had to the freeing of the slaves. It is true that to spell as we pronounce is the most fundamental of all the criteria that can be scientifically applied for the purpose of deciding which way spelling ought to move. But it is not the only criterion. One of two spellings, neither of which accurately reflects pronunciation, may still be better than the other. The question may turn entirely upon the best use of existing resources. Thus the choice between "draft" and "draught," between "controller" and "comptroller" in no way involves phonetic spelling or the dream of a new alphabet. And what is true of these two words is true of the *entire three hundred* in our list.

Ideal phonetic spelling has somewhat the same relation to the practical improvement of our everyday orthography that justice has to the improvement of our laws. It gives us a large guiding principle, but it is an ideal that can never be perfectly realized. And if conceivably it were pretty nearly realized at a particular epoch, a change of conditions might, and very certainly would, require in time a resettlement. The spoken word is the fundamental thing. Spelling was invented to record speech. "Language" means "tonguiness." But as the letter is palpable and relatively permanent, while the sound is impalpable and elusive, it happens naturally and inevitably that writing lags behind speech and tends to become a record of that which was rather than of that which is. Thus arises a literary language making its appeal to the eye and differing more or less from speech; and if there is a competent phonetician in the world who objects to the existence of a literary language and would like to have all writing a meticulous transcript of speech, I do not know his name. Your castigation of such people is a castigation of men who do not exist, unless it be in asylums for the insane.

But now does it follow that every peculiarity of our conventional spelling—in the literary language, mind you—is sacrosanct because a large number of people, at a particular epoch and in a particular latitude and longitude, have become accustomed to it, so that it looks "natural"? Is spelling unique among all our social utilities in that it cannot be improved in the slightest particular by the operation of conscious intelligence? Is there no criterion more solid and scientific than the private reaction of one's own nerve-cells,

which is simply a matter of visual habit? You think it dignified and beautiful to write "programme"; but teach your child to spell "program" as he spells "telegram" and "diagram," and the child will grow up without your prepossession in favor of the long anomalous form. Is there then no way of deciding between conflicting spellings? Must a man of intelligence simply follow his habit as if his habits were sacred and all equally good? When an unfamiliar spelling is proposed and begins to creep into use as an improvement, must he simply sit and wait without an opinion until the majority, moving blindly, have either adopted it or rejected it? Or is it his part to oppose everything new because it looks odd, and then, when 51 per cent. of the population have adopted it in spite of him, to go over to the majority and cling to and defend the once-hated thing because it is usage? Are majorities always right and minorities always wrong in this one sphere of human interest? Is spelling utterly beyond the reach of science and scholarship and common sense? Can a man have no opinion as to whether it is better to write "medieval" or "mediæval" without the *Nation's* saying: "Aha! you want us to adopt Bell's 'Visible Speech,' do you?"

You say the language "is doing very well" without our meddling. There is a sense in which this is true, another and more important sense in which it is not true. It is true in the sense that there is, as there always has been, an effort to improve our spelling in the direction of simplicity by dropping superfluous letters. Many hundreds of such improvements have been made, and now the whole world accepts them as improvements. No one wishes to go back to "fysshe" and "shippe" and "forreigne." But it is a mistake to suppose that these improvements made themselves by some kind of inward spontaneity and without any human effort. Men did not write "fysshe" for some generations and then suddenly discover all together that it would be better to write "fish." We have got from that which is bad to that which is better because certain persons saw the better way and set out upon it. And so it will be hereafter. Our spelling will improve slowly, and would have improved without organized effort. But it will not change itself. It will change because writers of English go ahead and adopt better forms. In other words, it will change because there will continue to be, as there always have been, spelling reformers who see the better way and have the courage to follow it. Milton was a spelling reformer, so was Tennyson; and the only essential difference between them and us is that instead of exerting our influence separately, we have banded ourselves together and undertaken a campaign of education.

In short, when you say that the language is "doing very well" without our "futile and purposeless meddling," I must call your attention to the fact that the meddling of such persons as we are is eternally and inevitably a part of what the language is "doing"; and that the meddling has not been purposeless nor futile, but has accomplished a vast amount of good.

And do you still ask why we have banded ourselves together to accelerate and guide by the light of sound scholarship an inevitable process? It is because, owing

to the peculiar developments of the last hundred and fifty years, the process is not doing its natural work as rapidly as it should. The many have actually forgotten what spelling is for. They have come to think of it as something mysterious and beyond the reach of common sense or of the questioning intellect. They go to a big book to learn how to spell, and the big book merely tells them how people *do* spell, and refrains on principle from telling them how they ought to spell. So there we are, in the position of a kitten chasing its tail, with insufficient provision for rational progress. We have come to a pass in which men of letters, particularly, are apt to imagine that the dignity and beauty of the English language are bound up with each and every conventional spelling to which their eye is accustomed, even if that spelling was originally nothing but a pedantic blunder. And the worst of it is that this tenacious clinging to our anomalous spelling imposes a woful burden upon our own children.

Is it not time for men of intelligence, accustomed to act in other matters from social motives, and to regard the welfare of a long posterity as more important than their own fleeting prejudices, to try to do something for the betterment of our spelling? We cannot do everything at once, but we can make a beginning. We can try to win friends for the idea that what is simple, regular, scientific, is really better than what is complicated, anomalous, and fantastic. And we can plead, as I do now, with men of letters, scholars, journalists, not to attach too much importance to their own visual associations, and to recognize that, here as elsewhere, they have as social beings another duty which is no less important than that of following good usage, namely, the duty of helping to make bad usage better.

And if they decline to recognize this second duty, let them at least be a little more charitable to those of their fellow men who do recognize it. I have no quarrel with the man who says: "I do not like your simplified spellings. No doubt some of our spelling is bad and might well be improved. I hope and I presume that it will be changed for the better as time passes. But bad or good, I am used to it. I have learned it, it looks natural to my eye, it falls naturally from my pen. When I write I do not wish to bother my head with little matters of spelling. I decline to change my habits." Now, personally—I speak here for myself only—I have a very large sympathy for those who take this position. But let them hold this position in the liberal spirit of men able to look upon the fashion of spelling as they look upon other changing fashions. Let them not imagine that the usage they prefer because they have become accustomed to it is a necessary part of the Eternal Beauty. Let them cease to pour ridicule upon those of us who, acting solely from a sense of social duty and in the interest of the countless millions who are learning and will hereafter learn our language, are trying at some personal sacrifice to make it a little easier to learn and to remember our devious English spelling. When we propose to trim the good old ship a little, to scrape off some barnacles, and to heave overboard some useless old lumber, let them

not raise the absurd cry that we are laying hostile hands upon the venerable craft and have no feeling for its historic identity.

CALVIN THOMAS.

Columbia University, New York, October 7.

ROWDYISM IN AMERICAN COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: None among the sons of the South, distinguished alike for scholarship and all that the South holds dear in its conception of a gentleman, is more fitted to discuss academic propriety than Professor Joynes of the University of South Carolina, whose long and honorable service in the classroom always entitles him to be heard. What he has to say about the conduct of students in the South, therefore, must have weight with those who cannot speak from personal experience there. I am interested to know, however, if the line between the Southern and Northern youth is really so marked as he implies; if, for any reason, the Southern youth naturally assumes the same point of view as the German university student regarding conduct in halls of learning, or to what extent their commendable deportment in the long line of classes that have filed in and out of Professor Joynes's lecture-room has been due to the wonderful personality of the revered teacher.

I understand Professor Paulsen, in his statement about rowdyism and its absence from the German class-room, to refer to all that kind of rough, senseless sport and unbecoming, though not necessarily evil, conduct, such as class-rushes, hazing, "setting-up" rooms, painting and placarding walls, breaking glass, throwing chalk and paper balls, boisterous laughing, loud talking, humming, and the like, which is still by no means unknown in thousands of colleges and high schools in America, particularly in classes under weak disciplinarians, but which almost never takes place in German universities and seldom in gymnasia, unless, perhaps, during times of political agitation and fierce dissent from the views set forth by lecturers. From childhood the German boy and girl are taught to regard the teacher as a friend; to respect and honor academic institutions and those who conduct them. Nothing could exceed the courtesy offered the German teacher by his pupil, who invariably steps aside to make way, and tips his hat at every meeting, nor the demonstration of respect and affection made by the university men and women, who rise both at the coming and going of the professor. The German student, be he ever so reprobate, never introduces rowdyism or undignified nonsense on university property. That, it seems to me, is the chief difference between the German and the American student inclined to mischief, as I have come to know them in a score of places on two continents.

J. PERRY WORDEN.

Kalamazoo College, September 28.

JAMES DE MILLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Through an oversight I only today saw Judge Russell's letter in the

Nation of August 30th in regard to James De Mille at Halifax. I am only too willing to accept Judge Russell's correction as to the attitude of the people of Halifax toward James De Mille. My sole object in writing the letter was to arouse, if possible, some interest in the work and personality of a man for whom I have felt most sincere admiration. I had no thought of dealing at all exhaustively with his work, and for that reason did not mention either the poem to which Judge Russell refers—"Behind the Veil"—or his Rhetoric. By a happy coincidence Prof. Archibald MacMechan of Dalhousie College, Halifax, has an article on James De Mille in the September number of the *Canadian Magazine*. I could add nothing effectively to what he says as to the character of the poem, but I should like to endorse emphatically his conclusion that it is in "Behind the Veil" rather than in anything else that he wrote that we find the real De Mille. Professor MacMechan draws my attention to an error in the former letter. De Mille was forty-seven years of age at the time of his death, not forty-four. I find, also, that the alcove in Dalhousie College Library was not dedicated to De Mille by the college students, but by Professor MacMechan. I am sure it is no breach of confidence to say that Professor MacMechan, who probably is more familiar with the life and achievements of De Mille than anyone living, has been collecting material for some time for a memoir on this Canadian scholar, novelist, and poet. It is gratifying to know that the matter is in the hands of one whose judgment, knowledge, and sympathy so admirably fit him for the task.

LAWRENCE J. BURPEE.

Ottawa, October 3.

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce the third fifty volumes of "Everyman's Library" as now ready. Among them are: Wesley's "Journals," in four volumes; Sir George Young's version of "Sophocles," two volumes of Percy's "Reliques," "Pitt's Oration," two of Borrow's books ("Lavengro" and "Romany Rye"), Maurice's "Kingdom of Christ," and a considerable number of the "Waverley Novels." The same firm will soon issue: "The King of Court Poets," life, work, and times of Ariosto, by E. G. Gardner; "Sidney Herbert: Lord Herbert of Lea," by Lord Stanmore, two volumes; "George Crabbe and His Times," by René Huchon; "The Shores of the Adriatic," the Italian side, by F. Hamilton Jackson, with plans and photographs; "Time and Clocks," a description of ancient and modern methods of measuring time, by H. H. Cunyng-hame; "Stories of the Italian Artists," from Vasari, collected and arranged by E. L. Seeley; "Egyptian Excavations," Beban el Moluk, the tomb of Queen Hâthshopsist (Hatasu), introduction by Theodore M. Davis; the life and monuments of the Queen by Edouard Naville; description of the finding and excavation of the tomb by Howard Carter; illustrations in color, photographure, and colotype.

Among the autumn issues in D. C. Heath & Company's Modern Language Series are the following: Münchhausen's "Reisen und

Abenteuer," edited by Prof. F. G. G. Schmidt, University of Oregon; Sudermann's "Teja," edited by Prof. R. Clyde Ford of Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti; "Wilkommen in Deutschland," a reader in German, by Prof. W. E. Mosher of Oberlin; "A German Anthology," compiled and edited by Prof. Calvin Thomas of Columbia; Racine's "Les Calpeutes," edited by Prof. C. H. C. Wright of Harvard; and "Quelques Contes des Romanciers Naturalistes," edited with notes and vocabulary by Profs. Dow and Skinner of Dartmouth. In the Belles Lettres Series of the same firm the new books will be: "The Gospel of Luke in West Saxon," edited by Prof. J. W. Bright of Johns Hopkins; "The Pearl," edited by Dr. C. G. Osgood of Princeton; "The Owl and the Nightingale," edited by Prof. J. E. Wells of Hiram College, Ohio; and a volume of "Early Sixteenth Century Lyrics," edited by Prof. F. M. Padelford of the University of Washington.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will issue this week "The Flock," an illustrated book of outdoor life in California by Mary Austin, and "Organized Democracy," by Albert Stickney.

Archibald Constable & Co. of London will bring out English editions of the "Life and Letters of Lafcadio Hearn," by Elizabeth Bisland; "The Poetry of Chaucer," by Robert K. Root, and "The Struggle for a Free Stage in London," by Watson Nicholson, all of which will be published in America this season by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Clarendon Press of Oxford (New York: Henry Frowde) announces that the following books in its "World Classics" series will be published before Christmas: "Poems by Matthew Arnold," with an introduction by A. T. Quiller-Couch; Bacon's "Advancement of Learning" and "The New Atlantis," with a preface by Professor Case; Brown's "Horæ Subsecivæ," with an introduction by Austin Dobson; George Eliot's "Silas Marner," with an introduction by Theodore Watts-Dunton; Holmes's "Professor" and "Poet at the Breakfast Table," with introductions by W. Robertson Nicoll; Leigh Hunt's "Sketches and Essays," with an introduction by R. Brimley Johnson; Johnson's "Lives of the Poets," with an introduction by Arthur Waugh; Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic," with an introduction by C. K. Shorter; Scott's "Lives of the Novelists," with an introduction by Austin Dobson; "Sheridan's Plays and Poems," with an introduction by Joseph Knight; "Sophocles," the seven plays in English verse, by Lewis Campbell.

A memoir of John Baskerville, the well-known printer of the eighteenth century, will be issued from the Cambridge University Press. Materials for a life of Baskerville were collected by the late Samuel Timmins, F.S.A., of Birmingham, and given over by his literary executors to R. K. Dent, librarian of the Aston Manor Free Library. With his collaboration the present memoir has been compiled by Ralph Straus of North Kensington, who has added the bibliography.

The Royal Historical Society of England is publishing, in addition to the current volume of "Transactions," a further volume of the "Camden Miscellany," containing seventeenth century reminiscences,

and the concluding volume of Abbot Gasquet's Premonstratensian collection.

Henry Barrett Hinkley announces that if he can get subscriptions for 500 copies of a volume which he has written, "Notes on Chaucer," he will issue the book. His commentary of 180 pages will cover somewhat more than one-third of the text of the "Canterbury Tales," to wit: the Prologue and the Tales of Knight, Nun's Priest, Pardoner, Clerk, Squire, and Franklin. Among the subjects treated are the elucidation of difficult passages; the history of science; linguistic peculiarities; literary and historical references, allusions, and parallels; the extent of Chaucer's culture, and his literary sources.

A. C. McClurg & Co. are the American publishers of a new version of "The Rubaiyat of Omar," by George Roe.

"The Mirror of the Sea," a new volume of stories by Joseph Conrad, is to be published by Harpers.

Paul Elder & Co. announce a metrical rendering of the love letters of Héloïse and Abelard by Ella Costello Bennett.

Putnams have now ready two volumes of the new and attractive Knutsford edition of the works of Mrs. Gaskell, to be completed in eight. To all of these volumes Dr. A. W. Ward, master of Peterhouse, Cambridge, adds introductions giving various matters of biographical and critical interest. As the two daughters of Mrs. Gaskell have assisted him in these notes the edition has some claim to the title of "definitive."

A single volume in the Newnes-Scribner thin-paper edition contains De Quincey's "Autobiographic Sketches," "Confessions of an Opium-Eater," "The Daughter of Lebanon," and "Suspiria de Profundis." There is a good photogravure portrait of the author.

Four new volumes conclude the Scribner pocket edition of George Meredith. They contain "Lord Ormont and his Aminta," "The Amazing Marriage," "Short Stories," and "Poems."

Kipling's short story, "They," has been issued in book form by Doubleday, Page & Co. With large type and printing on only one side of the leaf, the result is a respectable little volume of eighty pages. The illustrations by F. H. Townsend are disappointing. We doubt whether any one can successfully illustrate this delicately imaginative and elusive tale. Certainly the commonplace children whom Mr. Townsend presents do not suggest the sweet and shy creatures of the House Beautiful.

Kipling's "Puck of Pook's Hill" has appeared in Scribner's "Outward Bound" edition of the complete works.

To be remarked in the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* is the sketch, with portrait, of the late Stephen Salisbury of Worcester, Mass., and his eminently public-spirited family, now (as he died unmarried) practically extinct. Three lists also are worth mention—one, supplementary of genealogies in preparation; another, in continuance, of registered passengers from the British Isles to this country at the opening of the nineteenth century; and a third, just begun, of strangers coming to Dorchester, Mass., 1767-1789, without obtaining approbation

from the town meeting to remain, as required by law. This last is curious because the majority of the "not wanted" seem entirely respectable. The present number contains the index to volume ix. of the *Register*.

Mark Twain's career as a magazine contributor covers a great many years, and collections of his shorter pieces have been made at intervals throughout that period. Nevertheless, the latest volume of the kind, "The \$30,000 Bequest and Other Stories" (Harpers), though most of the sketches are recent, takes the reader back in places to the old *Argosy* days. Notice of copyright in one instance is dated 1872. Thus the story of the double entanglement occasioned by the burlesque and the real reviews of "Innocents Abroad" is found between the same covers with "Eve's Diary" and "A Double-Barrelled Detective Story." Mark Twain's longer discursive books are his best anthologies, but there is much of entertainment to be found in this collection.

A revised second edition of Dr. Robert Ostertag's "Handbook of Meat Inspection," issued by William R. Jenkins, has appeared in abundant season for the awakened interest in animal food products and their quality. The authorized translation is by Dr. Earley Vernon Wilcox, veterinary editor of the *Experiment Station Record*, while Dr. John R. Mohler, chief of the pathological division in the United States Bureau of Animal Industry, contributes an introductory sketch of the history and present status of meat inspection in America. In this the system of government inspection in the slaughter houses is praised, but some of the changes in the way of extended scope of examination suggested in the same article have actually been embodied in the new law.

The Macmillan Company has added "Coventry Patmore's Poems" to its list of standard one-volume editions, and will so bring many more readers to a poet about whom the worst to be said is that he called his chief work "The Angel in the House." An excellent photogravure portrait of Patmore shows the high arched brow of which one reads so often, and the half-humorous, half-introspective eyes. Basil Champneys contributes a biographical introduction, written in clean, sober style—a genuine addition to the volume, as it is impossible to understand the poems, especially the "Odes," without some knowledge of the writer's life. Mr. Champneys points out that "the strictures passed respectively on the earlier and later work are at first sight contradictory. Those on the 'Angel' are, for the most part, accusations of triviality or commonplace; those on the 'Odes' of a transcendental mysticism, unintelligible to the ordinary reader." It might be added that both the earlier and later works benefit considerably from being brought into close juxtaposition in a single volume. The reader is more impressed by their unity of purpose. He sees in both the same effort to marry heaven and earth: in the "Angel" to raise human spousals into a prelude and symbol of the eternal, in the "Odes" to lower the eternal down to human comprehension.

It would be a pleasure to speak well of P. Rámanáthan's series of lectures which have been published as "The Culture of the

Soul Among Western Nations" (G. P. Putnam's Sons). Mr. Rámanáthan, Solicitor-General of Ceylon, a gentleman eminent for his character and culture, was invited to this country last winter to lecture on religion, and the result is the present volume. Much that he says is eminently true, and there are spiritual lessons which the West may still learn from the East, but we are inclined to think that whatever profit is possible from such an interchange of ideas would come best from an honest study of India's older books and not from the present preachers of the Vedānta. We cannot but think that Mr. Rámanáthan shows more the influence of Christianity upon India than any contrary influence, when he makes the ancient faith of his land to consist primarily in *bhakti*, love. And again he seems to us to be led into doubtful paths for the sake of persuasion when he discovers in the Psalms anything akin to the Upanishads. Nevertheless, the little book may be recommended to those who wish to become acquainted with the higher religious life of present-day India. They will find little to surprise or repel them; a good deal to attract.

The Paddock lectures for 1905-1906 at the General Theological Seminary, New York, were by James Haughton Woods, instructor in philosophy at Harvard, and are now published under the title "Practice and Science of Religion" (New York: Longmans, Green & Co.). Mr. Woods pursues the comparative method in the search for the ground common to all religions, and endeavors to bring religious facts into an historical and psychological classification. He bases his argument upon the work of ethnologists such as that of the brothers Sarrasin in Ceylon and Miss Fletcher among the Sioux, and classifies religious faiths according as the judgments they imply are individual, collective, or universal and normative. Under the first division he considers primitive beliefs not strictly religious, under the second ancestral systems, and in the third he includes various forms of mysticism, of the Vedānta system and Buddhism as well as Christianity. Mr. Woods's conception of the function of religion finds expression in the following sentences:

Our religion is the larger life we feel within us, a part of ourselves, struggling with ourselves, the perfection of ourselves, to which we may always turn with passionate interest. This larger self, seemingly within us, yet ever just beyond our reach, this it is that men have tried to represent in their conceptions of their gods.

A review of the considerable literature called forth in Germany by the 500th anniversary of the birth of Philip, Landgrave of Hesse, reveals the fact that the contribution of the American student, William Walker Rockwell, is the most important. *Festreden* and *Festschriften* have appeared in great numbers, and some valuable studies of the relation of Philip to education, particularly in the matter of the founding of the University of Marburg. The first volume of a repertorium of political archives relating to the Landgrave has been issued by the Marburg archivist, Dr. Küch (Leipzig: Hirzel). On the basis of a paragraph in this volume Köhler has sought to show that Mr. Rockwell went too far in his apology for Philip in the matter of the bigamy, but the reference is too obscure

and uncertain to be of great weight. A thorough biography of Philip is still a desideratum, as Mr. Rockwell's study is specifically of the marriage and the relation of Luther to that question, the interest centring chiefly in Luther.

Recent discussions of the date and circumstances of origin of Luther's most famous hymn, "Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott," seek to confirm the opinion expressed by Heine in the celebrated passage in which he calls the poem "the Marseillaise Hymn of the Reformation." Heine says, "A battle hymn was this defiant song, with which he and his comrades entered Worms (April 16, 1521). The old cathedral trembled at these new notes, and the ravens were startled in their hidden nests in the towers." Friedrich Spitta, brother of the writer on Bach, has published an elaborate monograph bearing the title of the first line of the hymn, in which he seeks to overthrow the arguments advanced against the date of 1521. No new archival matter has been discovered, and the question turns on precarious speculations as to indications in the hymn of the reformer's situation and mood. Much of Spitta's labor is expended on an endeavor to prove that the line, "Gut, Ehr, Kind, und Weib" could have come from Luther as early as 1521. A briefer essay ("Ein' Feste Burg," by H. Groessler) also agrees with Heine, and fixes upon Oppenheim as the village in which the hymn was written, and April 15, the evening before Luther's entry into Worms, as the precise time of its composition. Appeal is had to the earliest biographers, but no documentary evidence is advanced. To the suggested parallel with Luther's remark that he would enter Worms though there were as many devils there as tiles on the rooftops, a German critic replies, "Dagegen war die Welt für Luther immer voll Teufel." The one fixed fact in the discussion is that the celebrated hymn was first printed in 1529. The arguments of Spitta and Groessler seem to have carried some conviction, for we note a one-act drama by Nithack-Stahn entitled "Luther in Oppenheim," based especially on Groessler's hypothesis.

The centennial of the birth of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow will be celebrated on February 27 under the auspices of the Cambridge Historical Society. Prof. Charles Eliot Norton is chairman of the committee in charge, and with him are associated President Charles W. Eliot, Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, Prof. Bliss Perry, and Thomas Wentworth Higginson. At the public exercises the principal address will be delivered by William Dean Howells.

An Ibsen memorial wholly in the spirit of the great dramatist is announced by his publishers, the Gyldendalske Boghandel og Nordiske Forlag of Copenhagen, in the form of a new popular edition of the works, called the "Mindeudgave" (Memorial Edition), soon to be issued in fifty parts at 30 öre a part, or not quite \$4 for the whole subscription. In spite of the low price, which is only half that of the first popular edition published in celebration of the seventieth birthday of Ibsen, the mechanical execution of the work will be in keeping with the dignity of the author. A valuable feature of this new issue is the editorial supervision of Dr. Johan Storm, of the Uni-

versity of Christiania, which will include a careful collation of all earlier editions and the uniform use of the orthography finally chosen by Ibsen. The last play, "Naar vi döde vaagner," and several poems not printed in the preceding edition but issued separately, will be added. The publishers announce that the size of the edition will be limited to the number of advance subscriptions.

Wilhelm Raabe, the German novelist, has just celebrated his seventy-fifth birthday; and the German press has been recalling with satisfaction the recognition his works have met. The wisdom they have so often contained is punningly called *Raabeweisheit*, or, literally, "Crow Wisdom."

The sale of a copy of the third edition of "The Passionate Pilgrim" in England for £2,000 has just become public, although the book actually changed hands in July or August last. The copy is the one described by Sidney Lee as belonging to John E. T. Loveday of Williams-cote near Banbury. It was originally bound in rough calf, with five other rare tracts of contemporary date. The volume was recently broken up and each of the pieces bound separately. Of the first edition of "The Passionate Pilgrim," 1599, two copies only are known, one in Capell's collection at Trinity College, Cambridge; the other in the Christie-Miller Library at Britwell. The title reads, "The Passionate Pilgrime. By W. Shakespearc. At London. Printed for W. Iaggard, and are to be sold by W. Leake, at the Grey-hound in Paules Churchyard. 1599." Of the second edition no copy is known to exist, nor can the exact date be determined. Besides the copy of the third edition, which has recently changed hands, only one other is known, in Malone's collection in the Bodleian Library. The Malone copy has the title-page in duplicate, one with, the other without, Shakspeare's name. The Loveday copy has this earlier title with Shakspeare's name as author. From a literary point of view the book can have but scant value, though it is of great bibliographical interest. It was, of course, unauthorized, and the only portions actually by Shakspeare are two sonnets (numbers 138 and 144 of the series, as published in 1609), and three excerpts from "Love's Labour's Lost." The remainder of the book was by other hands, much of it has been pretty positively identified as by Richard Barnfield. To the third edition Jaggard added from Heywood's "Troia Britanica," the translations in verse of two of Ovid's Epistles, though he still left the title page reading, "By W. Shakespearc." Heywood took offence at this and in his "Apology for Actors," published in 1612, complained of Jaggard's conduct. Probably on account of this complaint the title was reprinted and Shakspeare's name omitted.

Following the example of Lord Amherst, the Duke of Sutherland has announced, through Sotheby, the sale of the Trentham Hall library on November 19. This library is extensive, but does not boast many rarities. It has, however, the scarce third folio of Shakspeare and several first editions, including those of both parts of Spenser's "Faerie Queene."

The books, autographs, and book-plates

of the late George M. Elwood of Rochester, N. Y., will be offered at public auction November 12 to 16 by the Merwin-Clayton Sales Company of this city. The collection includes presentation and association books, Aldine, Elzevir, Plantin, and other early imprints; missals, old Bibles, editions of "The Dance of Death," early English plays, privately printed books, and editions of Walton and Cotton's "Complete Angler"; autographs of Colonial governors, members of the Continental Congress, officers of the Revolution, war of 1812, and civil war, Presidents, cabinet officers, and American and English authors, actors, and actresses; and American, Canadian, English, French, early and modern German, and other foreign bookplates.

The number of women who matriculate and become candidates for degrees at German universities is steadily increasing. The Frankfurter *Zeitung* reports that during the summer semester the total of this contingent was 211, as compared with 140 in the winter and 137 in the preceding summer. Of these women 108 are students of medicine, 66 of philosophy, 22 of mathematics and natural sciences, 10 of economic sciences, 4 of law. The bulk of these are naturally found in the South German universities. Leipzig is the only university in the north that matriculates women. The other universities admit women only as *Hospitanten*, and of these there was a total of 1,268, as compared with 1,050 a year ago. In Russia, too, the academic status of women is improving. For the first time in the history of the Empire women are now permitted to attend the lectures in the different faculties of the University of St. Petersburg, as also in the Polytechnic Institute of that city. Switzerland has for years been the Eldorado of the woman student, and the numerical strength of this contingent has steadily grown. During the summer semester just closed there was a total of 2,193 women in the Swiss universities. In the academic year 1900-1901 it was 1,429; in 1894 it was 420. The gain is attributable chiefly to the Russian element. Of the 2,193 women now enrolled no fewer than 1,518 are Russian, or nearly 75 per cent. of the whole number. The *Zeitung*, in commenting on the attendance of women in the European universities, declares that none of the fears entertained a generation ago, when the first timid attempts were made by women to gain admittance in time honored institutions, have been realized. The university woman has not materially affected academic life or endangered the supremacy of men in the professions.

The authorities of the city libraries in Berlin have been making some interesting experiments with the purpose of determining the hygienic conditions of books that have been used a great deal by the people. With the dirt gathered from such books, some of which was known to include tuberculosis bacilli, experiments were made on guinea pigs. In the case of books used but two years, no result could be noticed, but the refuse collected from particularly soiled books, that had been in circulation from three to six years, did produce an effect. Attempts to destroy the bacilli by sterilization through formalin vapors failed; but the books themselves suffered

to such an extent that many were practically spoiled. In view of this fact the city authorities have decided to abstain from further disinfecting experiments. In conjunction with the City Medical Society and the Police Department, it has now been decided periodically to examine the public libraries and to destroy those books which have been used so much as to make them a danger to public health. Such books must be destroyed, not sold for old paper.

A SOBER LIFE OF WHITMAN.

Walt Whitman: His Life and Work. By Bliss Perry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50 net.

What with Mr. Binns's able but slightly rhapsodical biography, Mr. Traubel's shirt-sleeve Boswellianism, Mr. Carpenter's apostolic revelations, and other less notable contributions, we are having a little too much of Whitman. The Germans have found in him a Teutonic philosopher, and soon this discovery will be added to the current of our belated homage. It might seem an unfortunate hour for Mr. Perry's entrance upon the field, yet all this Whitmania, as it has been called, really increases the timeliness of so sober and well-considered a biography as the volume now before us.

Mr. Perry's work is modest in compass, but shows throughout that he has studied the documents with care and patience. It is, if anything, too well documented, for in reaching after unprinted letters and in ferreting out Whitman's ephemeral notes, he has sometimes failed to take full advantage of the more easily accessible and more essential material. After all, Whitman's "Specimen Days" is, and must always remain, the great mirror of his life, one of the most extraordinary pieces of self-revelation in the English language. Mr. Perry, in his laudable search after novelty, has not given quite sufficient prominence, either critically or biographically, to that prime document. But in general the narrative portions are well told and properly balanced. In particular we may note that he does not make nearly so much of Whitman's romantic episode in New Orleans as does Mr. Binns, keeping thus to the sober side of conjecture. He quotes in part the famous letter to Symonds ("My life, young manhood, mid-age, times South, etc., have been jolly bodily"), but rightly exonerates Whitman of bestiality, points to the purity of his later years, and utterly repudiates Symonds's—and others'—interpretation of "Calamus."

Much the most important sections of the book deal with sources, and here Mr. Perry has a field almost entirely his own. No one before him has treated this subject with anything like the same fulness. We are, in fact, commonly inclined to regard Whitman as a wholly isolated phenomenon, as a bolt out of the clear sky, whereas he was deeply rooted in his age and surroundings. In tracing the formal derivation of the "Leaves of Grass" Mr. Perry has shown particular ingenuity. The association of Whitman's rhythms with the prose-verse of Blake, with Tupper's sprawling lines, with the Bible, and with various Oriental poems, leaves little or nothing to be desired. To quote, for example, such a passage as this from one of Blake's Prefaces is to throw a

strong light on the processes of Whitman's impressionable brain:

When this verse was first dictated to me I consider'd a Monotonous Cadence like that used by Milton & Shakespeare, & all writers of English Blank Verse, derived from the modern bondage of Rhyming to be a necessary and indispensable part of the verse. But I soon found that in the mouth of a true Orator, such monotony was not only awkward, but as much a bondage as rhyme itself. I therefore have produced a variety in every line, both of cadences & number of syllables. Every word and every letter is studied and put into its place: the terrific numbers are reserved for the terrific parts, the mild & gentle for the mild and gentle parts, and the prosaic for inferior parts: all are necessary to each other. Poetry Fetter'd Fetters the Human Race!

Mr. Perry shows how widely disseminated this easy doctrine was in the fifties and sixties, and how naturally it imposed itself on Whitman's liberty-loving and untrained mind. The veritable *trouvaille* of the book is Samuel Warren's "The Lily and the Bee," which was published in England in 1851, promptly republished by Harpers and reviewed in *Harper's Monthly* of November, 1851. The rhapsody describes a day and night passed in the Crystal Palace, but its real subject, avowed by the author, is "Man—a unity":

"In dusky, rainless Egypt now!
Mysterious memories come crowding round—
From misty Mizraim to Ibrahm—
Abraham! Joseph! Pharaoh's Plagues!
Shepherd Kings! Sesostris!
Camshyses! Xerxes! Alexander! Ptolemies! Antony!
Cleopatra! Caesar—
Isis! Osiris! Temples! Sphinxes! Ohelisks! Alexandria!
The Pyramids.
The Nile!
Napoleon! Nelson!
—Behold, my son, quoth the Royal Mother, this ancient wondrous country—destined scene of mighty doings—perchance of conflict, deadly tremendous, such as the world has never seen, nor warrior dreamed of.
Even now the attracting centre of world-wide anxieties.
On this spot see settled the eyes of sleepless Statesmen—
Lo! a British engineer, even while I speak, connects the Red Sea with the Mediterranean: Alexandria and Cairo made as one—

A unit unperceived,
I sink into the living stream again!—
Nave, transept, aisles and Galleries,
Pacing untired; insatiate!
Touchstone of character! capacity! and knowledge!
Spectacle, now lost in the Spectators; then spectators in the spectacle!
Rich; poor; gentle; simple; wise; foolish; young; old; learned; ignorant; thoughtful; thoughtless; haughty; humble; frivolous; profound!

In form and style this strikes us as one of the really remarkable literary parallels. There needs but a touch of genius to fit the lines to stand with the most characteristic of Whitman's.

And the passage from this to the sources of Whitman's philosophy is easy and direct. Here again Mr. Perry has done good service in pointing to the poet's derivation from New England transcendentalism, from German romanticism, and (*ab Jove principium*) from Rousseau. He might with profit have pursued these investigations to closer quarters, for he had here the opportunity and, we assume, the knowledge to make a genuinely original contribution to American letters. More specially, he might have insisted on the largely, but not entirely, indirect relation of the American to the German Romantics. Whit-

man was in his own desultory way a reader of the Kantian philosophers. How welcome would be a comparison of his egotism with Fichte's and his nature-cult with Schelling's, to name the two points of contact that first occur. It is not strange that Germany to-day is finding its own in Whitman.

In his closing chapter of critical estimation Mr. Perry, as was to be expected, strikes a note of just appreciation while avoiding the flatulent extravagance of Mr. Burroughs, Dr. Bucke, and the other professed Whitmanites. Possibly he goes a step too far in calling Whitman "the most original and suggestive poetic figure since Wordsworth," unless we give to the words "original" and "suggestive" their strictest meaning. The corrective to such apparent exaggeration may be found in the apt coincidence of some verses of Whitman's found on the same scrap of paper with Keats's ode "To Autumn." In more specific criticism Mr. Perry's keenest *aperçu* is in showing how "Whitman's mind passes immediately from the individual to the mass," and so misses the whole range of intermediate relations of men in the family and in society. Altogether the volume will probably take its place as the sane and authoritative life of Whitman for many years to come.

STUDIES IN HISTORY.

The Canadian War of 1812. By C. P. Lucas, C.B. New York: Henry Frowde. \$4.15.

The title of this book gives a very adequate clue to its contents. The War of 1812 might equally well be considered from the standpoint of Great Britain or of the United States, but Mr. Lucas views it as a struggle wherein the only laurels to be won were gathered by the Loyalists of Upper Canada. They alone were fighting for their hearths and the right to live under the flag of their choice. For England the war meant another burden which must be assumed at a time when she was crushed by taxation and straining every nerve in her mighty struggle with Napoleon. It could bring her neither glory nor profit. For the United States it was a disputed issue in politics which bred sectional discord and carried New England to the verge of secession. Canada, on the other hand, suffered deliberate invasion, and her people were given a chance to show whether or not they would submit to annexation by the sword. In some such light as this it is that Mr. Lucas regards a contest which embraced three distinct elements.

We take some pains to define the exact scope of the volume, because the author works within rather narrow limits. For example, his account of the events which caused the war would seem inadequate in a book that dealt with the contest as a whole. Even when we consider the avowed restriction of aim, it appears strange that Mr. Lucas should not have given the same attention to antecedents which he gives to the Treaty of Ghent. "The war party in the United States," he says—"the anti-English party to whom the men of Massachusetts were so strongly opposed—had a definite programme, illustrated in speeches and proclamations, and, as the British commissioners at Ghent roundly

declared, notorious to the whole world, though not explicitly avowed by the government. That programme was to conquer and annex Canada." What this work lacks is a chapter of twenty pages or so on the state of feeling in the United States during the period when Henry Clay talked of negotiating peace at Quebec or Halifax. Mr. Lucas says nothing about the wholesale seizure of American shipping by Napoleon, despite which Madison's Government went into a war with England, though incidentally helping France. Neither does he touch upon the spirit disclosed by Simcoe a short time earlier when he was expecting an invasion from Wayne. Of course, every man is entitled to write his book in his own way. We would only make it plain that Mr. Lucas plunges into an account of hostilities along the Canadian frontier without furnishing his reader with such data as would explain the state of feeling on either side of it. A party in the United States sought to seize Canada. The people of Upper Canada remembered their Loyalist extraction. So much Mr. Lucas tells us. But all the interesting details of recrimination are left out.

A little is said of the combats at sea and of the attacks upon Washington, Baltimore, and New Orleans. Otherwise the book is in the strictest sense "an instalment of Canadian history," as Mr. Lucas calls it. The sources, in the main, are official dispatches. Slight use has been made of autobiographies, vindications, and ephemeral literature, like Hull's "Memoirs," Wilkinson's "Memoirs," and Armstrong's "Notices of the War." The narrative, so far as it deals with Upper Canada, is full and satisfactory. The same can hardly be said of the treatment which Lower Canada receives. That the sons of the Loyalists should defend themselves from attack was natural enough, but the psychology of the French Canadian on this occasion is much more interesting. Here Mr. Lucas offers no considerable assistance. Apart from a brief notice of the fight at Chateauguay, and some account of Prevost's movements on Lake Champlain, the allusions which he devotes to Lower Canada are few and perfunctory. He does indeed say that, "when, on the declaration of war, the militia was embodied in the Montreal district, a serious riot took place at Lachne, which was only put down with the aid of regular troops," yet what it meant in terms of political disaffection we are left to guess. The name of Plessis is not mentioned in the index, and we have discovered it nowhere in the text, but the importance of his services to the movement was inestimable. In 1813 the Crown granted him, as Bishop of Quebec, an annual allowance of £1,000, an official recognition of what he had done to preserve the loyalty of the *habitants*. Mr. Lucas quietly passes over one of the largest questions which is suggested by the war of 1812, namely, the attitude of the French Canadians, and the grounds for their attitude. Apropos of Chateauguay, he observes: "Hitherto the cause of Canada had been mainly in the keeping of British troops and settlers of British birth; but at Chateauguay only French Canadians were engaged, and this fight proved to demonstration that the war was a national war for Canada." This statement by no means ex-

plains the complicated situation which existed in 1812 on the banks of the St. Lawrence. Moreover, Mr. Lucas's sketch of military events in Lower Canada is less distinct and thorough than might have been desired.

We have now exhausted our list of strictures. For the rest, Mr. Lucas's story of the campaigns in the Niagara peninsula and along the Great Lakes is excellently told. He has warm praise for a patriotic militia, but insists upon the sovereign value of regular troops as a nucleus around which the citizen soldiery can rally. In summing up the lessons of Queenston Heights he says:

There was equally good fighting material on either side of the Niagara River, but, while the spirit and discipline of the Canadian militia were beyond all praise, those qualities were absolutely non-existent on the American side. The reasons are not far to seek. The citizen soldier is at his best when he has his back to the wall, fighting for his home; when he has at his shoulder to steady him a good type of trained regular soldier; and when the general in command is more than a general, personally attracting the sentiment and patriotism of those who are under his lead. All these conditions were present on the Canadian side, all were wanting on the American.

This passage will convey some impression of Mr. Lucas's style, but it must not be inferred that because he praises the conduct of the Canadian militia under Brock he holds a brief for the subjects of George III. His tone throughout is discriminating, and though admiration for the courage of the Loyalists may be said to dominate the narrative as a whole, it does not lead to special pleading on their behalf or wilful detraction from the merits of their opponents. No one who has had Mr. Lucas's connection with the Colonial Office could be expected to feel regret that "the Loyalists and their descendants fought for their own and kept their own." But such an animus as of old marked James's "Military Occurrences" is wholly absent from this admirable volume.

History of the "Bucktails." By O. R. Howard Thompson and William H. Rauch. Philadelphia: Eclectic Printing Co.

The record of the "Bucktails," officially known as the Kane Rifle Regiment of the Pennsylvania Reserve Corps, thoroughly entitles it to a history of its own. The regiment was distinctive for other reasons than its nickname. It was, for instance, never regularly mustered into the Federal service, save by order of the Secretary of War, but was mustered out. It served the United States Government for two months when only in the employ of Pennsylvania, and was afterwards held merely by the State muster, which provided for a transfer to the United States service that was never made. Comprising many riflemen from the wilder parts of Pennsylvania, the regiment early earned the reputation of being a hard fighting organization, as is attested by Confederate officers as well as by its Federal commanders. The "bucktail," which each soldier pinned to his cap, was not provided for by an army regulation, but is an excellent illustration of the value of a distinctive badge or part of a uniform in creating *esprit de corps* in a military or-

ganization. Thanks to it, this regiment was known throughout both armies. Campaigning in Maryland in the State service, before entering the Federal, the Bucktails had their first serious engagement at Dranesville in December, 1861. At Mechanicsville, Gaines's Mill, New Market Cross Roads, and Malvern Hill, they fought and bled. So, too, they took part in the valley campaign of 1862, served with Pope at the second battle of Bull Run, and then at Antietam and Fredericksburg. At Gettysburg they lost a colonel who was the brother of Bayard Taylor, and they wound up their extraordinarily full service by campaigning under Grant in the Wilderness.

The volume before us has been compiled on behalf of the regimental association with obvious industry and touching affection for this notable organization. Unhappily its authors were plainly inexperienced both in the art of bookmaking and of writing history. Hence, it does not add much to the growing collection of valuable regimental histories. For the Bucktails' sake their notable service should some day be put into a more readable and significant form. Had this book been prepared by a trained editor, there would have been no necessity for the thirtynine "corrigenda" entered at the end, and for many other errors not noted by the compilers. It is especially regrettable that when strenuous efforts were made to complete the roster of the regiment, the results were in no way tabulated. As to the total number of killed and wounded, the deaths from disease, the loss by desertions, etc., the reader is left in ignorance. The historian who would ascertain these facts must look for them elsewhere.

Dixie After the War. By Myrta Lockett Avary. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

In a previous volume Miss Avary gave us a Southern woman's view of events at the time of the civil war; she now repeats the process for the even more painful years the South passed through after the war was over. The book is largely a collection of anecdotes, scraps, and cuttings, grouped under appropriate chapter heads, and a good deal of the material is fresh and entertaining. The point of view throughout is feminine, which explains a certain note of overstatement or intensity that adds to the emotional, if it detracts from the historical, force of the book. A Southern officer once observed: "Woman's is the aftermath of anguish. It has taken a long time to reconstruct Southern women. Some are not reconstructed yet. Suffering was stamped too deep for effacement. The Southern woman and her loved ones lacked food and raiment; her home was burned over her head. And women could only sit still and endure while we could fight back."

The volume abounds with anecdotes. The young ladies of Richmond, after the military occupation, adopted a veil that completely screened their faces from observation. This was hard on the younger Northern officers, and here is how one of them, wittily and gallantly, entered his protest: "Mary Triplet, our famous blonde beauty, then in the rosy freshness of early youth, was walking along when the wind took off her veil and carried it to the feet of a

young Federal officer. He bent, uplifted the vagrant mask, and, with his cap held before his eyes, restored it." Indeed, the Richmond ladies were most inflexible; is it not told of one of them that she walked the whole way from Petersburg to Richmond, twenty miles, for fear the oath of allegiance would be administered to her if she boarded a car?

Occasionally we are afforded a glimpse of matters of greater political importance than these. As, for instance, this impression of Lincoln at the time of his flying visit to Richmond a few days after the occupation of the city:

There was something like misgiving in his eyes as he sat in the carriage with Shepley, gazing upon smoking ruins on all sides, and a rabble of crazy negroes hailing him as Saviour! Truly, I never saw a sadder or wearier face in all my life than Lincoln's.

A little judicious pruning, a little more care for style, a little more regard for accuracy in historical detail, would have made of this a really good book; even as it is, it presents with vivacity a picture that gives a strong, if somewhat one-sided, impression of notable events. The illustrations are good, and it would be difficult to resist the charm of the pictures of several Southern women of the war period here reproduced.

RECENT FICTION.

The Subjection of Isabel Carnaby. By Ellen Thorneycroft Fowler. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company.

The brilliant Isabel's "subjection" applies to her state and not to the process, which has been thoroughly accomplished before the book begins. Those who knew and delighted in her in the earlier novel will be glad to find that, though in theory an abject wife, she has lost none of her power or her desire to shine for all. As her sponsor, the author, says, "She was too true a woman to flirt after she was married: and she was much too true a woman not to want to do so." The story, however, does not deal with Isabel's flirtations or abstainings therefrom, so much as with a matchmaking adventure of hers, and with the large crowd of consequences that followed, bringing, first, woe, and subsequently, weal, after the author's usual optimistic fashion.

Her fashion is in no danger of founding a school, for Miss Fowler is not imitable. The combination of fun with brilliance is her own absolutely. Her ceaseless sense of the incongruity of congruities, and vice versa, makes an effect as of punning with ideas. Gilbert does this, but Miss Fowler does it with a feminine difference. She glorifies the illogical. She is, moreover, by a strange anomaly, a deeply religious writer with a fervor and faith which manifest themselves not only in orthodoxy, but in cheerfulness. Whatsoever tragic or melodramatic episodes may occur are beneficently free from gloom. And if her faith makes her hopeful, her grounding in Scripture gives her a style and a resource in imagery possible only to the intimate friends of the best literature. There are a few excellent little sermons in the book, and many evidences that the writer thinks her thoughts in the language of David and Paul.

A religious temper and an exuberantly

merry temperament should and do furnish merits enough to float a story quite as full of emptinesses as its predecessors—so far as mere story goes. Indeed, having flown higher in incident than they, it has gone correspondingly deeper in absurdities, welcome, likable absurdities. It is a boon to have within reach such sayings as twinkle on every page:

The pronoun which we place before a verb makes all the difference to the verb we use. For instance, "I speak the truth," "You are unwarrantably severe," and "He makes himself detestably disagreeable," are really in essence the same verb adapted to fit the various pronouns.

There are two things which every man or woman that ever was born believes, about himself or herself: namely, that he or she has a strong sense of humor, and is a small eater!

A man will do anything that a woman asks as a favor, and nothing that she advises as the wisest course.

These are a few of her many portable conveniences. Another, "It is man's place to rule; and the minute that he lays down his sceptre, woman snatches it up and hits him over the head with it—as he richly deserves"—embodies the prevalent attitude of the book upon the relation of husband and wife. It is exemplified by all the married folk in the story; in the case of Fabia the illustration may be called a caricature. A counsel of this sort of perfection is not, however, likely to be widely mischievous in America. There is small menace of contagion in the example of Janet, who, on her husband's return from a fourteen months' unexplained absence, not only volunteers not to question him, but adds, "As long as you tell me that you have been well and happy I am content."

The Heart that Knows. By Charles G. D. Roberts. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

Another novel of the season from a popular American writer, which reads discouragingly like a pot-boiler, another disappointment for the reviewer who ardently wishes to find goodness in what is pretty sure to be widely read. Here is plenty of material for a really powerful story, but no life in the actual product. We imagine the author sitting down (between a college lecture and the composition of a Nature Article) to the fabrication of a plot which should be properly compounded of sea adventure and heart interest. No fault is to be found with the resulting structure, as a structure. Things happen: there are stirring scenes at reasonable intervals. There is a promising diversity of *personæ*, taken at their face-value. The scenario is moving.

A beautiful girl in a Northern coast village is deserted on her wedding morn by a man who should have been the unrecorded hero of a quiet domestic romance. This initial event is due to the machinations of a village adventuress, who by forgery persuades the honest groom of his bride's infidelity. Not without local precedent the girl has ceased to be a maid somewhat before the hour when the church should have set its seal upon a solemn betrothal. Ignorant of any cause for her desertion, she lives to give birth to a son who even in youth dedicates his life to revenge upon his mother's betrayer. He goes to sea, and searches the corners of the earth in vain for traces of his unworthy father. The

pursued has changed his name, and a close intimacy between him and the pursuer has sprung up before the fact is discovered. The son, still driven by his sworn purpose, tries to nerve himself to the deed of righteous vengeance, but "the heart that knows," the filial instinct, discerns the blamelessness of his intended victim, and the avenger's hand fails. Explanations ensue, and there is a return of the two wanderers to the lonely mother who waits in the far Northern village to welcome them. Substance here for a lusty melodrama, or, in a powerful hand, for a really moving interpretation of human experience. In fact, the tale leaves a dispiriting impression of tenuity and tameness. We have a right to expect better things than this from Mr. Roberts or nothing at all. Ten years ago he was recognized as one of our promising poets. Since then, we may suppose, he has proved too "magazinable" for his good. He should now be in his prime; but what he does fails to fulfil, and threatens to destroy, our hopes of him.

Moon-Face and Other Stories. By Jack London. New York: The Macmillan Co.

These stories present Jack London at his shallowest, but by no means at his worst. Everything in them, even their brutality, is subordinated to a trivial ingenuity of plot. With the exception of the longest of them, "Planchette," they are not dull; but they do not reassure us that this writer is what he was hailed to be when first he flashed upon our ken: a second Kipling. We would suggest as a sub-title, "Diversions of a Literary Bounder."

The Face of Clay. By Horace A. Vachell. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Mr. Vachell will be recalled as the author of "Brothers" and "The Hill," the latter published but a short time ago. "The Hill" was one of the best stories of school-boy life ever written. "The Face of Clay" is, as such things now go, what would be called a very good story. It has dignity as well as interest. Notably, though it has to do with a group of artists, it does not make copy of the cheap and silly aspects of the so-called "artistic temperament." It does not err, as "The Incomplete Amorist" has recently erred, in making a cat's-paw of the homely slighted shepherd's trade. What compromises the seriousness of Mr. Vachell's tale is its melodramatic quality, felt at the outset, and pretty well usurping the attention toward the end. Our villain's machinations, our hero's triumphant virtue, cast their shadows too far before. The whole affair is too patently composed according to a known recipe. This has been true of some of Mr. Vachell's other work. What "The Hill" lacked of reality was due to the neatness with which the punishment fitted the crime, and virtue drew its salary. This amenity, we suppose, tends distinctly to elevate a novel to that envied shelf where the "ten best-sellers" inhabit. But who of sensible years wants to read that kind of book a second time? "The Face of Clay" is, we fear, on its first and last legs.

The Gentleman Ragman. By Wilbur Nesbit. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A Middle West town, an editor, a Virginian, a feud, a detective—the words sug-

gest the most hackneyed ingredients of fiction. But though they indicate the material of Mr. Nesbit's story, they give small hint of the treatment. The narrator is a boy in an editor's office who tells the tale in boy language; the detective is another boy, eaten up with the zeal of Gaboriau and his ilk; the Virginian is temporarily thrust into the profession of ragman, while seeking to evade the painful necessity of shooting an hereditary enemy; the journalist is the funny man, and helps in the end to furnish forth the double wedding. The self-exiled Virginian, contriving to get tangled in sundry social matters of the town, plays knight-errant to a damsel in distress, and the two boys attach themselves to him as faithful squires in many laughable adventures. An ample native Americanism in man, woman, and boy is unfolded with full measure of native American humor in the language of the country, resulting in a fabric inexpensive but entirely wholesome and clean.

The House of Islâm. By Marmaduke Pickthall. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This Oriental story is in effect a "cock and pye" novel of adventure done into Mohammedan. It has the attractions and drawbacks of all writings of its school for their respective admirers and repudiators. On the whole, it is to be welcomed as a variant and a poetic variant upon similar affairs conducted in France, England, the Netherlands, Virginia, and countries (usually ending in *a*) not on the map. The adventures cluster about the pilgrimage of a certain saintly old Shems-ud-din to the Holy City to place under a Frankish doctor's care a beloved daughter who is sick unto death. "Thou hast let the girl grow between thee and the Praiseworthy; wherefore the Almighty slays her, as one breaks the small branch of a tree, that He may see thee," his friend tells him. "The right is with thee, O Hassan, but—O my pearl of pearls!" The grave purpose of the pilgrimage and of the sojourn in the city does not preclude entanglement with a deal of secular adventure, seeing that the retinue embraces elements ranging from half-tamed brigands with pronounced tastes for gore and stolen ammunition, to fanatics ready to do any violence for religion's sake. The story is drenched in the atmosphere of Oriental wile—politician pitted against saint, buyer against seller, and one religion against the other. The stir and turmoil abate not from cover to cover, beating always about one central point of repose—the fine old scholar and saint. It is he who holds the story together, and even his hold is slender, the impression being less of a novel than of a book of deeds and of manners. With the Oriental landscape and customs, and with the workings of the Oriental mind, its guileless wiles and its motiveless subtleties, the writer is obviously quite at home. The geography, architecture, and figures are in admirable proportion; the characters stand out and live; the style is swift, pictorial, amiably cynical, fitting its theme.

Holyland. Authorized translation of Gustav Frenssen's "Hilligenlei," by Mary Agnes Hamilton. Boston: Dana Estes & Co.

"Holyland" is one of those books that

owe success to appearance at the right moment. The spirit of investigation may have destroyed the fictitious fabric of theological systems, but it has not destroyed religious faith. This is apparent in the attitude assumed by modern German scholars and in the treatment of the religious motive in fiction. The religious message of the book is contained in the story of the life of Christ, written for the common people by Kai Jans, and bequeathed to the woman he loves. The author assures us in an after-word of the German original that this story is based upon the works of the great Biblical scholars of his country. But whether this popularized version of the New Testament has the convincing and suggestive strength needed to make of Hilligenlei a Holyland in something more than name, is by no means proved. The characters which the author has grouped about the hero, in whose struggles and hopes he may have embodied experiences of his clerical life, are well on the way to work out their own salvation; they even speak of having found their Holyland long before they become acquainted with that manuscript. For each has his own conception of the meaning of the word.

Another element of success is the erotic side of the novel. Erotic problems play such a prominent part in modern German literature, that even the average reader is no longer shocked by passages that have been censured by critics far from conservative. For this very reason the book is not likely to appeal to the Anglo-Saxon. In the author's conception of love the spiritual element is entirely absent; and some of the situations in which he pictures his characters lack refinement. But most of the German readers who have become admirers of Frenssen through this, his latest work, were captured neither by the religious nor the erotic element. The book is filled with a consciousness of Germanic strength and sounds a patriotic keynote which never fails to find an echo in the multitude.

With the exception of a few passages which bear evidence of struggle with the style of the original, the translator's painstaking work has been signally successful.

Afghanistan. By Angus Hamilton. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$5 net.

Angus Hamilton, the author of the volume entitled "Afghanistan," is a serious student of Central Asian politics. His latest book is the result of patient, laborious study, and investigation of the modern historical, political, and geographical conditions of the buffer state between India and Russia. The book is heavy reading, for Mr. Hamilton is not concerned with the usual traveller's picturesque account of the strange manners and customs of a strange country. He gives us statistics on trade routes, railways, trade movements, trade values, duties, products, population, systems of government, strategic communications, minute descriptions of towns and cities, tables of weights and measures—such data as appeal to the man who wants a thorough working knowledge of Central Asian affairs.

The main subject of discussion in the book is the growth of railway systems to

and in Afghanistan. Until recently Russian Turkestan was at a disadvantage from being too remote from its base of supplies. European troops to reach Central Asia had to travel the long route from Moscow to Baku, thence over the Caspian Sea by a twenty-four hours' passage, and then to the end of their journey by the long Trans-Caspian Railway. This tedious journey is now a thing of the past. The Orenburg-Tashkend Railroad makes the continuous trip from St. Petersburg to Tashkend, 2,400 miles, and joins the southern-central Russian depôts with the bases in Central Asia. Such an advance is, of course, a decided help to Russia in pushing southward. This route, be it noted, is in the direction of the shortest line to India. Were there no international difficulties, as at present, the line could be carried from Kushk, the present terminus of the Murgab Valley division in northwestern Afghanistan, to Herat, the key of India, thence to Kandahar on the southern boundary, and to New Chaman where it would join the Indian system of railways. With this line completed the Anglo-Indian traveller could shorten his journey by seven days' travel via Calais, Berlin, Warsaw, Baku, Merv, Kandahar, thence into India. He would thus avoid those bad dreams—the horrors of the Red Sea and the monsoon. But for the time being the scheme is an idle dream. Russia will devote herself to strengthening her advantage along the Northern Persian and Northern Afghan border by bringing her railway resources to the edge of the glaciis, and, incidentally, by controlling all trade from the north.

As Herat, the key to India, is the most obvious objective of Russian railway policy, Mr. Hamilton gives careful attention to that city and to the western border of Afghanistan. His account of Herat and of the Herati is not optimistic. Herat, quite in contrast with Vambéry's brilliant account of it, is described as having declined from its quondam opulence. It is no longer the great central trade mart between India and Persia. The Herati, too, have been so dulled by misfortune, pestilence, and famine, that they are willing to surrender unconditionally to the highest bidder—to Russia. They have been intimidated by Russia's impressive show of strength in Central Asia. Mr. Hamilton's view of the situation in Herat, as well as in the whole of Afghanistan, is summed up thus: "Russia is really the supreme and dominating factor in Afghanistan, not only along the northern, eastern, and western frontiers, but throughout the kingdom."

As Kandahar is a rich trade centre, Mr. Hamilton advocates a railway to it, both for commercial and strategical purposes. Such a line would, he asserts, offset Russia's schemes of aggression. Substantially, Mr. Hamilton's view is that every advance made by Russia in the Middle East should be measured equally by England in the South. It cannot be denied that the author makes a plausible argument, but it can be argued with equal force that such schemes do not insure the desired integrity of British India. Recent writers, notably Prof. Goldwin Smith and F. G. Abbott, editor of the *Calcutta Statesman*, take another view. If disintegration occurs, they argue, it will come largely from within the country. Professor Smith urges that

"no race can forever hold and rule a land in which it cannot rear its children." Mr. Abbott sees that sincere coöperation between the natives and the English is the solution of the troublesome question. In only one State—Baroda—has this sincere coöperation been successfully tried. In connection with the political status of Afghanistan Mr. Hamilton writes entertainingly of Amir Abdur Rahman, and of his son, the present ruler, Amir Habib Ullah. In his final chapter he traces in detail the various Anglo-African relations. His account of Sir Louis Dane's recent mission to Kabul shows how fruitless was England's endeavor to gain the master hand in Afghanistan. Mr. Hamilton is sanguine enough to write concerning the mission "that the subjugation of Afghanistan to the interests of India is incomplete." As a matter of fact it is evident to everybody, as well as to Mr. Hamilton, that the purposes of British policy in Central Asia have received a decided check. The one British statesman who opposed sending the mission, and who thereby showed sound political sense, was Lord Curzon—to whom Mr. Hamilton, by permission, dedicates his volume.

Historic Bibles in America. By John Wright. New York: Thomas Whittaker.

The author of "Early Bibles of America" and "Early Prayer Books of America," the Rev. John Wright of St. Paul, has just published what may be called a companion volume to the former "Historic Bibles in America." In the earlier book, published in 1894, a number of Bibles printed on the American continent were described, and a large amount of interesting material, bibliographical, as well as biblical, was brought together. In the new book, "Historic Bibles," Dr. Wright describes a number of Bibles (some few printed in America, but many foreign editions) which have at some time belonged to people more or less famous, and which are now in American libraries, public or private. Some of the Bibles described are of value and interest themselves, but many others have only their "association" interest.

We learn that George Washington's family Bible (Baskerville's edition, Birmingham, 1772) is now owned by Christ Church Parish, Alexandria, Va., to whom it was presented by George Washington Parke Custis in 1804. Washington also owned a copy of the folio edition of Brown's "Self-Interpreting Bible," Hodge & Campbell, New York, 1792. This was the first Bible printed in New York. Washington's name heads the list of subscribers. The Bible described by Dr. Wright as the "Bassett-Washington" Bible, on account of its having belonged to Ella Bassett, widow of Lewis D. Washington, should have been called Mary Washington's Bible. There is no reason to doubt that it originally belonged to Mary Ball Washington, the mother of George Washington, from whom it descended to her daughter Betty, who married Fielding Lewis. Dr. Wright apparently was not aware that the family record which he quotes (which is on a blank sheet, wafered into the book with sealing wax) is probably in the autograph of George Washington. The first entry is

the record of the marriage of Augustine Washington and Mary Ball, on March 6, 1730-31. The second entry is of the birth of George Washington, "Born ye 11th Day of February, 1731-32, about 10 in the Morning & was Baptised the 5th of April following." The eleven days which were stricken out of September, 1752, made the eleventh day of February, Old Style, the twenty-second, the day we celebrate. This valuable and interesting volume is no longer at Mount Vernon, as Dr. Wright indicates, but is now offered for sale by a well-known firm of booksellers in New York city.

In his preface Dr. Wright says that he has been twelve years collecting his notes regarding the Bibles described, and that the ownership of some of them as noted by him may not now be correct. This is the case with the most valuable specimen of the first edition of John Eliot's Indian Bible, the famous Hardwicke copy. This book long ago left the Kalbfleisch Library, to which it is here credited, having been acquired about ten years ago by Marshall C. Lefferts. At the disposal of the Lefferts collection it was purchased by E. D. Church, who now also owns the fine Barlow copy of the first edition of Eliot's New Testament in Indian, having the autograph of William Herbert, which Dr. Wright describes as being in the library of C. S. Bement of Philadelphia.

The quarto Bible having the imprint "London: Printed by Mark Baskett, Printer to the King's most Excellent Majesty; and by the Assigns of Robert Baskett, M.DCC.LII.," for which \$2,025 was paid at the sixth McKee sale in 1902, is now owned by George C. Thomas of Philadelphia. This is supposed to be one of the small edition surreptitiously printed in Boston by Kneeland & Green for Daniel Henschman, as related from hearsay by Isaiah Thomas in his "History of Printing in America." As the printing of Bibles was a monopoly, Thomas explains that by inserting the London imprint the Boston bookseller Henschman hoped to be able to dispose of his Boston-printed counterfeit at a larger profit for himself than by importing books printed by the licensed printer. The counterfeit New Testament in duodecimo, which, according to Thomas, was printed for Henschman and other booksellers by Rogers & Fowle in an edition of two thousand copies shortly before the Bible printed for him by Kneeland & Green was published, has not yet been identified. It also contained a London imprint. Thomas says further that "privacy in the business was necessary," and that "few hands were intrusted with the secret." If some bibliographer will bring together and compare a number of old Bibles and Testaments which are known to have been in the possession of New England families about the middle of the eighteenth century, some interesting facts as to these counterfeit editions may be brought to light.

The Knowledge of God and its Historical Development. By Henry Melvill Gwatkin, M.A. New York: Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. Two volumes: \$3.75 net.

Professor Gwatkin published a volume of sermons not long since under the title "The

Eye for Spiritual Things," which were of the best type of English preaching. The discourses were chaste, dignified, scholarly, and truly spiritual. Evidences of the same pleasant culture and reverent piety are not wanting in the more ambitious undertaking now appearing as the Gifford Lectures for 1904 and 1905, yet with the work as a whole one must confess to disappointment. The lecturer set before himself the very considerable task, both of examination of the principles on which theistic doctrine rests, and also of a historical survey of the principal forms of belief in God. His work is a philosophy of religion and a history of theism combined in one, and neither as a philosophy nor as a history is it satisfactory. Omissions of important themes and inadequate treatment of others were inevitable to an attempt to cover so wide a range within the allotted time.

As an example of insufficient treatment yielding no definite result may be cited the lecture on the Knowledge of God in the Old Testament, which opens the second volume. Of the forty-six pages not a few are taken up with the handling of critical matters, in which the author leans toward conservative opinions, while recognizing the need of criticism and the certainty of many important critical conclusions. But even if one does not stumble at the assertion of the prevalence of an ethical monotheism before the time of the conquest, nor at the suggestion that the doctrine of a future life was familiar in Israel, "if only as an Egyptian belief," he will claim the right of protest to find no clear conception in Dr. Gwatkin's pages of the Hebrew contribution to the knowledge of God, or of the development of theistic belief in Hebrew religion. At one point we read that "the truths of God are not impressed on common mortals by cold reasoning and dry-astid antiquarianism, but only by the enthusiasm and self-sacrifice of men who live by the truth, and count all other things as loss if they may gain truth." Here we seem to be in sight of a reasonable account of Israel's faith, but there follows only a plea for the historicity of Abraham, while the truths of God which were impressed by the enthusiasm of Amos and Hosea are not expounded. Similar incompleteness and lack of ability to bring essentials into the clear might be remarked in the lecture on the religion of the New Testament, and indeed are characteristic of the entire treatise. The defect is doubtless incident to the largeness of the subject, but it is serious nevertheless.

Dr. Gwatkin would appear to be most broad and tolerant in many respects, but his manner toward Roman Catholics is sometimes offensive, as when he says that "the high priest of irreligion calls himself the vicar of Christ," and refers to the Roman Church as "the most degraded of all the sects."

Demosthenes against Midias. By William Watson Goodwin. Cambridge University Press. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2.20.

The oration against Midias throws light on Athenian politics and manners, and is, in the main, an extremely able and brilliant specimen of the orator's powers. "For Scholars," as Professor Goodwin re-

marks, "it has a unique interest as the only existing argument in a case of *προβολή*" (*probolé*). The upshot of the case might also raise some nice questions as to the psychology of the pleader and the ethical standards of his profession.

While the particular incidents that gave rise to the case wear an antiquated air, Midias is himself a type which may appear, with Protean variations, in any democracy. He might have flourished and bullied under the Tweed régime, in New York, or more recently in St. Louis. His methods are strikingly modern. His aim, however, was not so much peculation as political office and partisanship to shield private fraud and revenge. Wealthy, overbearing, arrogant, he managed by ingenious chicanery and powerful friends to evade the penalties of his frequent outrages. A picturesque witness of the enormity of these outrages is the disfranchised arbiter whom Midias had crushed and ruined in revenge for an adverse judgment, and who, while appearing before the court at the summons of Demosthenes, is legally disabled from opening his mouth. This dumb and ruined man is an incident in the long quarrel which culminated in the *probolé*, a casual victim in the legal feud whose windings are described in the speech.

The immediate occasion of the procedure known as *probolé* was this. At the highest festival of Dionysus, Demosthenes, while acting as *choregus* for his tribe, and presiding at a function on which he had spent lavishly from his own purse, was struck in the face by Midias repeatedly, with his clenched fist. The occasion, the place, and his official position made the person of the *choregus*, as it were, sacrosanct; and the mob of bystanders, enraged at the insolence of the assault, shouted, "Prosecute him! Don't compromise!"—an eminently Attic scene, more civilized and urbane, at any rate, than a lynching. Encouraged by this wave of popular sympathy, Demosthenes, the day after the festival, brought his grievance before the Assembly, holding special session in the Theatre. In spite of the strenuous efforts of his friends, a vote of *probolé* condemning Midias was unanimously passed. Such a vote of censure was only a preliminary step, a *præjudicium*, carrying moral weight, but leading in itself to no penalty. After a considerable interval, Demosthenes proposed to follow up this verdict, before a regular court; and the speech which Professor Goodwin has edited was prepared with this view.

Nothing in the oration on the Crown is more dignified, more forcible, and illuminating—more worthy of the large discourse of Burke, than the closing passage which elucidates the sanctity of the law and the majesty of constitutional government. "The laws," he says, "are but letters inscribed on brass or stone. It is you judges who give them force by your verdicts, and who, in turn, depend on them for safety." But the final issue of the case is an anti-climax to the weight and splendor of such sentiments. Repeatedly, in the course of his plea, Demosthenes dwells on the duty of a good citizen to pursue the criminal and to vindicate the laws for the sake of the commonweal. "Others have compromised, have said a long farewell to the laws and to the righteous indignation which a citizen should feel for their violation;

others have yielded to the persuasion of money, have come to terms privately, and have dropped their suit. I, on the contrary, will do none of these things. I have been approached repeatedly with large offers, with entreaties, with cajolery, even with threats. If I yielded, I should feel that I had deserted my post. I should become defendant instead of plaintiff, if I am not purged from this outrage by your verdict." He asks, accordingly, for a penalty of death, or confiscation of the estates of his opponent.

After all this eloquence, Demosthenes does the very thing he has denounced. We learn that, as our editor expresses it, yielding to the urgency of friends, "he decided not to bring his suit into court, and accepted half a talent as a gift from Midias." This, certainly, is a bewildering fiasco. It may be quite true, as Professor Goodwin urges, that the orator was influenced by a sense that his public career was in peril, that he could not afford a victory over an adversary so sinister and powerful; he may have thought that he could better serve the State by using his voice in the counsels of the Olynthiac Oration than by a private triumph over such an opponent. It may be true also that this small sum was honestly due him for previous loss and damages, though Weil and Holm, among others, take a harsher view of the spirit of the transaction. But if the compromise was defensible, what becomes of the lofty arguments of the speech? He forges a thunderbolt white-hot with a fine, moral indignation, and then the bolt is suddenly laid away to cool.

Professor Goodwin's notes have all the brevity, point, and helpfulness which are naturally to be expected from the editor. Many of the annotations touch on questions of the uses of the moods which the author has made his own especial province, or upon questions of Attic Law, in which he is peculiarly at home. The appendices furnish a highly valuable apparatus—an Historical Introduction to the case, treatises on Public Services performed by individuals, and also on Peculiar Forms of suits under the Attic Law. The latter especially discuss and sift all the available evidence as to certain moot points, applying to them the light afforded by Aristotle's "Constitution of Athens." The searching dissertation on the process of *eisangelia* (impeachment), for example, explains the safeguards which in the fourth century would have prevented the repetition of that mad and tumultuous action of the Assembly which, though withstood for a single day by the firmness of Socrates, resulted in a sentence of death pronounced on eight generals, without trial or hearing. This monstrous proceeding, a pure outbreak of mob feeling under stress of domestic bereavement, was entirely alien to the spirit of Attic Law. Although litigious and even waspish, the Athenians were distinctly law-abiding. In spite of recurring civil disorders, they were on the high road to the moderation, the fixed processes, the law and order, of civilization.

As this speech was never delivered, it naturally lacked complete revision. Its arrangement is also pretty certainly not that which the writer would finally have adopted. The editor leans heavily on the

authority of Σ, which he has revised for his purpose, using the facsimile in the Harvard College Library. In §41, line 4, he has discovered that Σ has *ποίησθαι* only, not *τοῦτο ποιήσθαι*, as generally stated (Dindorf, Weil, Blass, King.) For this reason he adopts the reading *ἃ μὲν ἂν τις . . . ἐξαχθῆναι*, omitting *τι* before *πράξαι*. This is an obvious improvement. In §203, our editor follows the MSS. in reading *νεμείσθε* and *ἐμβήσθε* instead of the infinitive. Finally, the breathless sentence which runs its mazes through §215 and §216 is at least extremely vivid and picturesque in its details, and, perhaps, even in its effect of breathlessness. It is quite likely, as the editor says, that Demosthenes would never have allowed it to stand; and yet there is a possibility that (if the reading of the poorer MSS. is adopted) this very haste and involved expression may have been designed.

If there is any criticism to be made upon this work, it is that an editor so accomplished did not give a little more freely of his ripe learning and scholarship. A few phrases and passages here and there would bear commentary which are passed over in silence. Restraint is, of course, praiseworthy—restraint in an elder scholar is peculiarly admirable. But, after all, this book is for the student, and no one will ever accuse Professor Goodwin of "sowing from the sack." If we are to have the boon of the "Agamemnon" from the same hand, it is to be hoped that the publishers may concede a generous body of notes proportioned to the peculiar fitness of the editor and to the difficulty and beauty of the play.

On the Spanish Main: or, Some English Forays on the Isthmus of Darien. With a description of the buccaneers and a short account of old-time ships and sailors. By John Masefield. With twenty-two illustrations and map. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$3.50.

This is a book made up from many books, of which Dampier's "Voyages," Esquemelin's "History," and Burney's "Buccaneers of America" are perhaps the best known. It also has some chapters on the primitive ships and sailors of the modern world, entertaining to experts, but sometimes difficult for the landsman to follow. It is, in consequence, a hodge-podge of everything relating to the Spanish main, into which fable may be presumed now and then to have made its way, without materially impairing the basis of fact. The map and illustrations are good, but the narrative is not consecutive and orderly enough; it is too much made up of episodes to serve as a systematic history. The writer's style, too, is marred by attempts at fine or "picturesque" writing, which is out of place, and far from good. It may be, for instance, that that great buccaneer, Morgan, when he was engaged in endeavoring to arrange with devout New England deacons to fortify a West Indian island as a pirates' "refuge and sanctuary," "chuckled to himself," but to picture him as "agonizing" about the Spanish Inquisition with earthquake and "eclipse" is to do an injustice to the English language, if not to the simple, straightforward cut-throat himself.

English writers have been generally care-

ful to discriminate between adventurers who held regular commissions from their sovereign, and buccaneers who had none. Drake and Hawkins belong, according to them, to a wholly different class from Morgan; Dampier to still another. They also distinguish between buccaneers and ordinary pirates (*hostes humani generis*), on the ground that the buccaneers had a common enemy—Spain. They point out that the English, Dutch, and French adventurers who ravaged the Spanish Main did not prey upon one another. Spanish historians, however, do not follow them, but regard not only Morgan and Oxenham and Mansveldt, but Drake and Raleigh, as having committed acts of undisguised piracy. It must be confessed that the English view is not wholly satisfactory. The real reason why Englishmen, Dutchmen, and Frenchmen made common cause in the Caribbean against Spain was merely that all treasure was Spanish. Had the Panama route been French, and had the treasure ships been bound for France, and Cartagena and Nombre de Dios been possessions of the French King, it would have been in spite of that king's beard that the capturing and pillaging and slaughtering and sacking would have gone on. Of course, it will not do to make a test of the way in which war was carried on. Pillage and sack, fire and sword, enslavement and ransom, were all part of lawful warfare in the seventeenth century, and the leaders of the buccaneers were in so far no worse than many a regular commander, on sea and land. In the last resort, to get at the status of any of the adventurers whose names are so inseparably associated with the Spanish Main, we must ask whether they were commissioned by a regular government; if they were, they were *ipso facto* distinguished from the buccaneers, who were not commissioned at all. Spanish historians may be pardoned for not being able to get so much satisfaction out of the distinction as we do.

A superficial distinction may be drawn, as we have observed, between buccaneers and later pirates like Kidd, from the fact that the former made a common enemy of Spain, but we doubt whether this sensibly improves their standing. That they were really pirates, with no common aim but plunder and debauchery, is shown by their failure to effect any permanent establishment anywhere. With the right sort of leader and any settled discipline and government, they might have easily wrested cities, provinces, or islands from Spain and become founders of a Caribbean empire, where some one of the enemies of Spain would have been glad to protect them. But their enterprises never attained or aimed at any political end; their expeditions conclude in a division of booty, and the solitary leader who seems to have had great organizing capacity evidently had only his own private advantage in view. He was a thrifty man and ended his career as Sir Henry Morgan, governor of Jamaica, noted for the severity of his measures against buccaneers. The account of his life, given here, is very illuminating.

The history preserved in Mr. Masefield's pages, and in the books from which he has drawn it, is chiefly valuable as being the only account we have of the actual life and customs of a community making a business

of piracy. To a boy it is a book of excitement and adventure; to a student of history a curious illustration of how thin the veneer of civilization is, and how easily and completely, the restraints of law and police rule removed, the predatory and homicidal instincts reassert themselves. The Anarchist of to-day, who thinks that the only thing which interferes with peace on earth and good will to men is Government, would have amused the buccaneers greatly. When they got beyond the reach of the law they got what they wanted, and what it was we know very well. As a matter of fact they reduced anarchism to a system. When forced to do so they worked hard as wood-cutters and hunters. When they got a good boat and plenty of firearms and gunpowder, they threw off the evil restraints of government and killed, robbed, and ravished. So far as we know, they were much as other men in nature and disposition. But they had a great opportunity and improved it gloriously.

Principles and Methods of Taxation. By G. Armitage-Smith. London: John Murray.
The Taxation of the Liquor Trade. Vol. I. By Joseph Rowntree and Arthur Sherwell. London: Macmillan & Co. \$3.25.

In the thick of the discussions of tariff reform and the taxation of land values, at least a few Englishmen have found time for other questions of finance, as the volumes now before us testify. Mr. Armitage-Smith's "Principles and Methods of Taxation" is a small work of 195 pages, which undertakes to give a concise account of "the British system of taxation and the principles upon which it is based." In order to do this, however, the author considered it necessary to dip into such topics as public debts and expenditures, general theories of taxation, and the financial systems of France and India; with the result that his treatment of his main subject is painfully brief, altogether superficial, and almost wholly unprofitable.

Chapters four and five deal with national taxation in Great Britain, and chapter nine treats of local taxation. From these the general reader may derive some profit, but the careful student will glean substantially nothing. Upon such important and interesting subjects as the income tax and the death duties, the author is particularly disappointing. One wonders, too, what he could have meant by saying that the modern income tax "has been evolved from the earlier poll tax" (p. 63). For Prussia, of course, this statement is true; but in England an interval of one hundred years separated the last poll tax from the first income tax. The American reader will wonder also at the statement that Massachusetts employs the income tax for local purposes only (p. 162). Further criticism of the book is needless; it is a hopeless task, in a volume of this size, to combine an adequate account of British taxation with numerous excursions, at random, into the general field of public finance.

Far different is the verdict upon Rowntree and Sherwell's "Taxation of the Liquor Trade." This is the first volume of a more extensive and successful study than any English or American writer has yet made in the field which it covers. Leaving the taxation of beer and spirits for a sub-

sequent volume, the present instalment of the work treats of license taxes upon dealers in intoxicating liquors. While concerned chiefly with the English publican, the authors have made a careful study of license taxes in the British colonies and the United States, and for the latter country have given us the best available account of a subject which, in its fiscal aspects, has been wholly neglected.

Originally, the trade of the publican in England was virtually "free and unconfined." Light taxes were gradually introduced, in a more or less casual manner, and for the purpose of regulation rather than revenue. Toward the end of the eighteenth century the rates were slightly increased under the pressure of war expenditure; but they remained very low during the nineteenth century, as may be seen from the fact that the average cost of a license to sell spirits, which was £5 in 1800, was but £7 18s. in 1880, although population had increased out of all proportion to the increase in the number of licenses granted. Parliamentary enactments and the action of the licensing authorities had gradually restricted the trade and conferred upon licensed publicans a quasi-monopoly; yet no taxation commensurate with the enhanced value of a license had ever been attempted.

By 1880 the situation was little short of a "fiscal scandal." For twenty years the number of licensed dealers per 1,000 of the population had steadily declined, while the per capita expenditure on alcohol had risen from £2 18s. to £3 15s.; and it was too clear for argument that the publicans were enjoying a virtual monopoly conferred upon them by legislation. Accordingly Mr. Gladstone carried through a measure which raised the license duties some fifty per cent., placing them at substantially the rates that are now in force. This act increased the revenue immediately by fifty per cent., but our authors contend, and successfully, that it was absurdly inadequate then, and is scandalously so to-day. The highest charge, for dealers occupying premises having an annual value of £700, is but £60; and from this figure the duties taper down to £4 10s. for premises having an annual value of less than £10. Seventy-five per cent. of the public houses pay £25 or less, and only four per cent. pay more than £40. Meanwhile, since 1881, various restrictive measures have decreased the absolute number of publicans' licenses in the United Kingdom from 96,727 to 91,502, while population has increased by 8,000,000, and the national expenditure upon alcohol has risen from £145,538,000 to £168,987,000.

As the authors observe, "with 5,225 fewer public houses, there is an increased drink expenditure of £23,449,000." And finally, the conditions are made worse by the fact that the brewers, who more and more tend to become the same persons as the retailers, have been greatly enriched by changes introduced in 1880 in the method of taxing beer. A law enacted in 1904 provides for more adequate compensation for new licenses, but does nothing with established public houses, which are left in undisturbed enjoyment of the monopoly profits created for them by legislation.

To give point to their argument, Messrs. Rowntree and Sherwell have studied the

policy pursued by the British colonies and American States in their dealings with the liquor traffic; and are able to show that, judged either by colonial or American practice, the license charges in Great Britain are extremely low. In practically every colony the scale is higher than that prescribed by Gladstone's act of 1880, and in many of the American States it is strikingly so. Since the "high-license" movement which started in 1881, various American States have raised the minimum license charge to figures that far exceed the average British duty, and in some cases even the highest duty prescribed by Gladstone's act. In Massachusetts the minimum charge for a first-class license is \$1,000, as compared with a maximum duty of \$300 in Great Britain; and other commonwealths supply equally telling illustrations. In the 122 American cities having a population of 30,000 or more, the average charge for a license is \$735, as compared with the British maximum of \$300. In these cities the average rate of taxation is more than five times the rate in cities of similar size in Great Britain. As a natural result, the revenue derived from licenses is incomparably greater in the United States. New York city, with two-thirds the population of London, receives seven times as much revenue from this source; and thus the comparison continues through practically the entire list of cities. With this showing, it will be difficult hereafter for the representatives of the British publican to argue that he would be unfairly treated if the existing scale of duties were materially increased.

Our authors are concerned chiefly with the fiscal aspect of the license problem, and it is from this point of view that their performance must be judged. Tested by such a criterion, they have done their work well, and have left few loopholes for the shafts of the severest critic. The completion of their book will be awaited with interest. Of course, the British duties on beer and spirits offer no such shining mark for ardent financial reformers as do the absurd license charges established by the act of 1880; but they afford an admirable field for investigation and for the comparison of British and foreign legislation. It is work of this sort, rather than the writing of brief manuals upon "Taxation," that financial science really needs.

Canada: The New Nation. A Book for the Settler, the Emigrant, and the Politician. By H. R. Whates. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50 net.

Mr. Whates, who is a good observer and a lively writer, came to Canada at the beginning of 1905 as a correspondent of the *London Standard*, and spent five months in studying the emigration movement. He passed his time with working people, and sought to learn their views on social and political questions. Ostensibly he was an immigrant in search of work; really, he was a political Socrates, going in and out among lumber camps and wheat fields to see what the average Canadian is like, and how his mind works. The present volume falls into two parts. The first, entitled "The Emigrant in Canada," is largely a narrative of personal adventure with reflections interspersed, and represents in the

main articles which have already appeared in the *Standard*. The second, "An Analysis of Canadian Thought," deals with the relations of the Dominion to both the United States and England, discusses fiscal issues, and even contemplates such religious tendencies as have a bearing upon political destiny. Mr. Whates says of his chapters:

Their general tendency is to encourage the emigration of hardy young men with some capital, much intelligence, and determination of character. They are calculated to deter the indiscriminate emigration of people who find themselves crowded out of the English labor market by long endurance of defeat in the battle of life in great cities.

The French element in Canadian life receives somewhat less attention than it deserves. Mr. Whates did not allot a large part of his time to the East and has little comment to offer upon the relations of the races. For this subject one must go, in recent literature, to M. Siegfried. So far as immigration questions are concerned, Mr. Whates's book does not suffer materially from its neglect of the place which Quebec occupies in Canadian politics, but when it comes to an analysis of Canadian thought one feels a distinct limitation to the value of the author's views. Indeed, there are two limitations. Mr. Whates apparently knows nothing at first hand about the French Canadian, and, secondly, he was at pains to avoid the Canadian manufacturer. Of course, Canada is essentially agricultural, but the manufacturing class, from the control of wealth, has a considerable leverage. However admirable the reclamer of the wilderness may be, he has less political initiative than is possessed by the urban classes, who are dominated by the manufacturing interests.

Mr. Whates concludes that Canada is headed straight for independence—not necessarily for an independence which shall preclude connection, sentimental, or even nominal, with the British Empire, but which shall give her national self-consciousness.

Drama.

AN AMERICAN PLAY.

Many scores of American plays of different kinds have been produced since Royall Tyler's "The Contrast" was first played in 1787. We have had the old frontier drama, the Yankee plays—of the "Solon Shingle" type—war and slavery pieces innumerable, the romantic melodrama of the imaginary Wild West, the modern social comedies of Bronson Howard, Augustus Thomas, Clyde Fitch, and miscellaneous compositions of all sorts. In fact the hulk of American dramatic writing is considerable. But by far the greater part of it has been of a light, local, conventional, ephemeral or merely sensational character, without any general, not to speak of national, significance or any distinctively American atmosphere, motive, or spirit. Most of it has been completely worthless as a genuine reflection of human nature, and consequently utterly futile as drama. On that account such a play as "The Great Divide," by William Vaughn Moody—just produced in the Princess Theatre in this city—which is not only essentially American in concep-

tion, but deals in a bold, striking, and original way with the passions and prejudices which are among the conflicting elements in a vast and as yet unassimilated population, is particularly welcome. It at least demonstrates the possibility of a real national drama in the future. A certain extravagance in the terms of the problem to be solved betrays the inexperience of the author. He takes as his heroine a delicate and refined woman, representative of the best New England culture, and for a hero a rough Arizona miner, whose nature, fine in the beginning, has been brutalized by debauchery and drink. His scheme is to unite them through the agency of that great leveller, love. To do this he devises a scene—undeniably shocking in suggestion, in spite of tactful handling—in which the woman is threatened with the foulest outrage by three men, of whom the hero is one. In despair she promises to give herself to him, in marriage, if he will save her from the others. He does so, and then, after some profession of remorse, ruthlessly enforces his bargain, while consenting to legalize it. This is the first act; the two next show how he atones for his ruffianism by his patient service, his entire devotion, and resolute guardianship, until at last, after the birth of a child, the woman's heart, conquered by his virility, repentance, and doglike faithfulness, yearns for him and will not let him go. Plainly, there is much in this which is contrary to all human experience. The offence is too great, the conversion too radical, the forgiveness too superhuman. But the tale is unfolded with uncommon skill and plausibility, and the conflict of opposing wills, emotions, and natures creates a constant and cumulative dramatic interest rare indeed in a modern play. Mr. Moody's next drama will be awaited with eager curiosity. Already he has won a distinguished place among our younger poets, and there seems no reason why, as a playwright, he may not in the near future assume a position at least equal to that of the English Stephen Phillips. He is very fortunate in his present company which is excellent. The performances of Miss Anglin and Henry Miller in the leading parts, are particularly good.

Adelaide Ristori, on whose career we comment elsewhere, died at Rome on Tuesday. She was born in 1821, at Cividale, a small town of the old Duchy of Friuli. The daughter of obscure comedians, she played children's rôles at four years of age, and when twelve years old played soubrette and ingénue parts. Two years later she appeared in "Francesca da Rimini." When she reached the age of fifteen she entered the Sardinian stock company, and was taken under the protection of Charlotte Marchionni, the leading actress of the troupe, who gave her valuable lessons. In 1847 she married the young Marquis Capranica del Grillo, and for a time abandoned her dramatic career. She reappeared on the stage in 1849 at Rome, but it was not until 1850 that she regularly resumed her profession. In 1855 she took Paris by storm. Lamartine wrote verses about her, and the French Government tried to persuade her to join the Théâtre Français; but she declined. She visited England in 1855, Spain in 1857, Holland and Russia in

1860, and the United States in 1866. She made her debut at the French Theatre, New York, as "Mdea," and she played in Brooklyn, Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, New Orleans, Washington, Baltimore, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Louisville, and other cities. After a trip to South America she returned to this country. In 1880 she formed a company in Rome and made a final tour of Europe. In 1884 she made a farewell visit to the United States. She retired in 1885. Her eightieth birthday was the occasion for many festivities throughout Italy. King Victor Emmanuel went in person to her house to congratulate her, and mayors and other dignitaries of towns paid their respects to her. The gifts to her included a gold medal expressly struck by order of the minister of education.

Music.

Aus der Glanzzeit der Weimarer Altenburg.
Von La Mara. Leipzig: Breitkopf und Härtel.

"La Mara," the indefatigable writer of music books, and editor of the letters of composers, notably Liszt, has once more earned the gratitude of music-lovers by issuing a volume of letters by eminent persons, addressed to the Princess Carolyne Sayn-Wittgenstein, to whose influence it was owing that Weimar, in the days of Liszt, once more became as remarkable a centre of the higher life as it had been in the time of Goethe. It was she who persuaded Liszt to give up his brilliant career as pianist (thirty-nine years before his death) and devote himself thenceforth to composing, teaching, and conducting. It was she who provided a home for him at the Altenburg, which thenceforth became the rendezvous of nearly all the men and women famous at that time in the world of art and letters. Liszt's letters to the Princess, written during his temporary sojourns elsewhere, have been issued separately in four volumes. The present collection contains letters from Richard Wagner, Clara Schumann, Fétis, Berlioz, Gutzkow, Genelli, Dingelstedt, Hoffmann von Fallersleben, Schnorr von Carolsfeld, Alexander von Humboldt, Moritz von Schwind, Gustav Freytag, Varnhagen von Ense, Anton Rubinstein, Christian Rauch, Bogumil Dawison, Eugène Delacroix, Jacob Moleschott, Ludwig Richter, Gottfried Semper, Wilhelm von Lübke, Friedrich Vischer, Friedrich Hebbel, Carl Gustav Carus, Pauline Viardot-Garcia, Leopold Damrosch, Adolph Menzel, Alfred Meissner, Jules Janin, Paul Heyse, and many others.

Baron von Liebig once said to Liszt regarding the Princess Sayn-Wittgenstein: "I have never met her like! In one hour she can squeeze out of the wisest and wittiest savant all there is in him." The letters here presented to the world recall that remark. The writers all seem anxious to say something about themselves of real interest, and the result is that nearly all of these letters (249 in number, covering 441 pages) are worth reading. The secret of her popularity among men of genius is clearly revealed by two of her correspondents, Ernst Förster, and the eminent

painter Buonaventura Genelli. Förster was made happy by being asked to read to her the third volume of his history of German art before it went to press; and in one of his letters he says: "You explore the depths of a work of art with the enthusiasm of the creative artist and thus delight him even beyond the grave." Genelli expresses the wish that the best of his works might be in the hands of such genuine connoisseurs as herself and Liszt, who would not keep them, as it were, in a coffin; in that case he would be only too glad to burn the others, could he get them back.

It has been said that Liszt accelerated the popularity of "Lohengrin" by ten years by the essay he wrote about it. Copies of it were sent by the Princess to many of her friends, including Genelli, who wrote that it had aroused in him an incredible eagerness to hear the opera. "What an eloquent style, what a many-sided culture, what a noble soul, bold and free from envy, speak to us from every line! I doubt if ever an artist has thus entered the lists for another artist's works." Michael Angelo, he remarks on another page, "if he had been asked to write his opinion of Raphael, would doubtless have said something foolish, for he had asserted that Raphael was not really a genius, but simply a hard-worker. How contemptuously Cellini (whose one great achievement is probably his autobiography) speaks of the far superior talent of Bandinelli. Truly, it requires a great love and devotion *alla* Liszt to place the art works of others in the most favorable light."

After hearing "Lohengrin," Genelli makes the amusing comment: "Neither my wife nor I could perceive the least trace of lunacy in this opera, nor did we have the sensation, in listening to these strains, as if we were having nails driven into our skulls for three hours, as a local musician is said to have expressed his feelings in regard to this music." As for Wagner's own letters to the Princess they contain not a few characteristic touches. There are not many references to his health, but he signs one of them "Richard der Catarrhist." He laments his inability to come to Germany and live at Weimar. "How soon the few years allotted to us will be at an end, and how much we are likely to regret toward the close having spent our time among apes and dogs instead of with those who are dearest to us." When he had composed his Rhinemaiden music for "Rheingold" he was so pleased with it that he copied the themes in full and sent them to the Princess; they are reproduced in facsimile at the end of this volume—a marvel of calligraphy. There are interesting references also to the "Walküre." In one letter he says:

What fascinates me in great poets is always rather what they are silent about than what they say; indeed, the true greatness of a poet I learn almost more from his silence than from his words; this is what has made Calderon so great and dear to me. What makes me love music so unspeakably is that it preserves silence about everything while saying the most unthinkable things; strictly speaking, music is, therefore, the only true art, the others being mere attempts.

These samples must suffice to indicate the interest of La Mara's latest volume. We cannot refrain, however, from adding an amusing anecdote related therein about

Liszt. Being urged, one evening, to play at an unceremonious gathering, he exclaimed: "Puisque vous êtes si extraordinaire en toutes choses, je vais vous faire quelque chose d'extraordinaire—je vais vous jouer le Sehnsuchtswalzer en gants"; whereupon he sat down and played Schubert's waltz without taking off his gloves.

Three weeks earlier than last year, the musical season in New York was opened on October 8, at Carnegie Hall, with an operatic concert by Ruggiero Leoncavallo, one of the three composers who created the "veristic" school of Italian opera—works written with a dagger dipped in blood. There were eight Italian singers and an orchestra announced as that of Italy's leading opera house, La Scala of Milan, which proved to be quite inferior to that of our Metropolitan Opera House. The programme included a march, "Viva L'America," dedicated to President Roosevelt; an "Ave Maria," dedicated to the Pope, and excerpts from five of Leoncavallo's operas—"Chatterton," "Zaza," "I Medici," "Rolando di Berlino," and, of course, "I Pagliacci," the only one of his operas which has enjoyed a success. For critical hearers the interest of the occasion centred largely in the selections—the overture and a duo—from "Rolando di Berlino," the opera which Leoncavallo composed at the request and with the aid of the German Emperor. If we may judge by the specimens of the music heard on Monday, "Rolando" is pretentious stuff, adroitly written, like most of Leoncavallo's music, to bring out vocal effects, but barren of melodic or harmonic ideas. The concert as a whole was painfully monotonous, all the offerings being mere *Kapellmeistermusik*, such as almost any musician might write by the yard. The most individual offering was the "Ave Maria," which was written for the benefit of the earthquake sufferers in Calabria.

During the three seasons that the New York Philharmonic Society imported famous conductors from Europe, Wassily Safonoff attracted the largest and most enthusiastic audiences. His permanent engagement followed as a logical consequence, and he will preside over all the concerts of the coming season, the dates of which are November 16, 17, 30, December 1, 21, 22, January 4, 5, February 8, 9, March 1, 2, 15, 16. Among the soloists so far engaged are Maud Powell, who will play a new violin concerto by Sibelius, the Finnish composer of whom such great things are expected; Josef Lhevinne, who made such a sensational debut last year in a Rubinstein concerto; Burgstaller, who will assist in a special Wagner programme; Ossip Gabrilowitch and Hugo Heermann.

Vienna is to hear four new operas this season—Humperdinck's "Heirath wider Willen," Erlanger's "Der Polnische Jude," Schillings's "Moloch," and Zemlinski's "Der Trauerzug." In Paris, Paul Vidal, the new conductor who succeeds Taffanel at the Opéra, will produce Massenet's "Ariane" and two of his own operas—"Midas" and "La Fille de Rameses." Massenet's "Ariane" will also be heard at Brussels, where the list includes, besides, Strauss's "Salome," Messager's "Madame Chrysanthème," Berlioz's "Troyens," Debussy's "Pelléas et Mélisande," and Smetana's "Bartered Bride."

It has always been supposed that Brahms wrote hardly any letters. It now appears that he did write a considerable number. Those addressed by him to Herzogenberg and his wife are to be printed this autumn. There are a good many to his life-long friend, Joachim, which will make another volume. These letters will probably furnish interesting reading, for Brahms was often witty and entertaining.

Is Ernst Boehe the coming music man in Germany? He is a young composer, of about twenty-seven, whose name was prominent on concert programmes last year. His cycle, "The Wanderings of Ulysses," was first performed in Munich three years ago and made him famous at a stroke. Last season it had sixty-five performances in Germany, a record exceeding Reger's much-discussed Sinfonietta and equalled only by Strauss among the living writers.

Art.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art is exhibiting a number of recent acquisitions. Among them are the following bronzes: "The Sluggard" and "Needless Alarms," by the late Lord Leighton; "Peace," by the late E. Onslow Ford; "Eve," by Thomas Brock; "Tragedy and Comedy" and "Perseus," by Alfred Gilbert; and "Spring" and "The Age of Innocence," by Alfred Drury. The purchase of these bronzes is in pursuance of the new policy of securing important contemporary work. The museum has also received a set of electrotype reproductions of thirty-eight silver vessels, cooking utensils of a Roman general, found near Hildesheim in Germany in 1868, and now in the Royal Museum of Berlin. Sir William Van Horne has presented "A Spanish Dancer," a portrait of Carmencita, by William M. Chase.

A collection of works by William Holman-Hunt, gathered with the coöperation of the artist, is exhibited at the Leicester Galleries, London. The show opened last Saturday and will continue for six weeks. With the exception of "The Light of the World," which was recently exhibited in London and is now in the colonies, all the most famous works of Holman Hunt are shown. The City of Birmingham is lending "The Two Gentlemen of Verona" and "Christ in the Temple," and the Manchester Corporation "The Shadow of Death" and "The Hireling Shepherd"; besides which there will be the "Triumph of the Innocents," "The Lady of Shalott," the artist's portrait of himself destined for the Uffizi Gallery, and numerous other paintings and water-colors.

Signor Corrado Ricci, an authority in his sphere, who has, after much demur, accepted from the Italian Government the position of director of fine arts, announces a general catalogue of the entire art-patrimony of Italy. In each commune competent persons are to be charged with the critical description and history of artworks, their dimensions and state of preservation. Signor Ricci will himself publish a monthly bulletin like that already devoted to archaeological finds, with illustrations and exact information concerning new acquisitions, restorations, and dis-

coveries. Best of all, the money for these undertakings has already been appropriated.

The admirers of the painter Degas—he has his faithful more numerous out of France than at home—will regret to learn that his painting days are over. He is now almost totally blind, but the art impulse is ever strong within him. He has turned to sculpture, and all day long silently works at figurines as strange and living as the wonderful studies in perspective among ballet dancers which merited for him the name of Michel Angelo of shoulder blades. He never exhibited at the Salons; those who liked his work came to buy at his studio. One American collection is said to be rich in samples; and dealers have cornered more for the promising future.

The Art Club of Philadelphia will hold its eighteenth annual exhibition of oil paintings and sculpture from November 19 to December 16.

A large exhibition of works by the German sculptor, Reinhold Begas, is being held in Berlin under the auspices of the Society of Berlin Artists, in celebration of the artist's seventy-fifth birthday.

Science.

AMERICAN ELECTROCHEMICAL SOCIETY.

The tenth general meeting of the American Electrochemical Society was held at Columbia University on Monday and Tuesday. Among the papers read were the following: Henry S. Carhart, "Formula for the E. M. F. of a Helmholtz Concentration Cell"; Carl Hering, "Visible Migration of Particles Between Electrodes"; S. S. Sadtler, "Some Small Laboratory Appliances for Electric Fusion and Other Work"; J. W. Turrentine, "Copper Cathodes in Nitric Acid"; H. K. Tuttle, "Electrolytic Deposition of Gold from Bullion"; G. H. Cole and H. T. Barnes, "An Aluminum and Magnesium Cell"; Francis R. Pyne, "Melting Points of Some Cryolite-Alumina Mixtures"; F. B. Crocker, "The Decker Primary Battery"; E. F. Roeber, Ph.D., "Pyrometers, Theoretically and Practically Considered, with Remarks on the Definition of Temperature"; F. F. Schuetz, "A Thermo-Electric Pyrometer for General Industrial Applications"; P. B. Sadtler and W. H. Walker, Ph.D., "Double Decomposition of Zinc Sulphate and Sodium Chloride"; H. E. Patten, Ph.D., "Some Factors Affecting the Distribution Law"; Charles Baskerville, Ph.D., "Use of Ultra-Violet Light in the Laboratory and in Practice" (with experiments).

The president of the society, Carl Hering, was in the chair; and Prof. Charles F. Chandler made an address of welcome on behalf of Columbia. The members visited the Waterside station of the New York Edison Company, met at informal dinner on Monday night, and on Tuesday evening attended a reception to Sir William Perkin at the Chemists' Club. Some of the members were present at the dinner to Sir William Perkin on Saturday night, in celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of his discovery of coal tar dyes.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 8, opens with a description of the physical features of Servia, by Professor Adamović, having especial reference to the distribution of plant life. It is accompanied by a chart in seven different colors, corresponding to the vegetable regions into which the country is divided. Professor Sapper's account of Lanzarote, one of the Canary Islands, is largely devoted to the volcanoes and volcanic cones of which there is an extraordinary number on the island. An appreciative review of the reports of the Princeton University expedition to Patagonia closes with the remark that the late J. B. Hatcher's narrative of the expedition "was one of the best, if not the best, book treating of the geographical characteristics of Patagonia." There is also an extended notice of the recent report of John Hayford of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, on the geodetic evidence of isostasy and its bearing upon some of the great problems of geology.

The St. Petersburg Academy of Sciences has accepted the offer of the millionaire Rjabusinsky of Moscow, who promised to give half a million rubles to equip a scientific expedition to Kamtskatka. The expedition is to start early next year and to return two years later.

This week Houghton, Mifflin & Co. issue Volume VI. of "The Proceedings of the International Congress of Arts and Sciences" at St. Louis, September, 1904. This volume is devoted to Medicine and Technology. Among the contributors are Dr. Ronald Ross of Liverpool; Prof. Johannes Orth of Berlin; Dr. Kitasato of Tokio; Sir Lauder Brunton of London; Prof. Clifford Allbutt of Cambridge; Professor Liebreich of Berlin; Dr. F. S. Dennis of Cornell; Professor Thayer of Johns Hopkins; Professor Eschschrich of Vienna; Dr. Jacobi of Columbia; Professor Christy of California; Professor Pupin of Columbia.

Henry Holt & Co. have concluded a contract with Dr. Frank H. Knowlton, president of the Biological Society of Washington, for his "Birds of the World," edited by Robert Ridgway, curator of birds, United States National Museum. This book will appear in the new American Nature Series.

Finance.

OUR BORROWINGS ABROAD.

The attention of financial markets, in this country and abroad, has for several weeks converged on what may be called Wall Street's floating indebtedness to Europe. Ever since the New York Associated Banks, on September 8, reported a ratio of cash reserve to deposit liabilities below the percentage required by the National Bank Act, European markets have been in commotion over our bankers' manœuvres to draw on foreign capital. Loans in enormous sums were placed by Wall Street in London, Paris, and Berlin. Having placed such loans, the American borrowers proceeded to draw on the proceeds in the form of gold. The Bank of England, taking alarm, raised its rate of discount; the Imperial Bank of Germany followed,

This protective measure had no effect whatever. Wall Street was ready to pay the higher price. Our bankers continued to borrow; since the first week of September, they have engaged for import, chiefly from London, but partly also from Paris and Australia, no less than \$43,000,000 in gold. From the Bank of England's own reserve, something like \$15,000,000 has been withdrawn for export to New York; in addition to which, nearly all the gold arriving in London from the Transvaal, which usually flows automatically into the Bank, has been captured by our bankers. This has happened at a time when England's internal trade, like our own, was drawing heavily on the city bank reserves, and when export of gold to Egypt, whose cotton trade is at its height, was taking \$5,000,000 gold or thereabouts weekly from the Bank of England. The Bank of France, whose powers are more arbitrary, and which is apprehensive over a possible financial crisis in Russia, of whose public securities France is believed to hold \$2,500,000,000, refused to give up its gold. As a consequence, stock of gold in the English bank has fallen to the lowest figure reached at this time of year since 1893.

How was this remarkable "raid" on Europe's gold reserve made possible? That the motive was to repair the strength of our own banks, overstrained by demands from unprecedentedly active trade and excited speculation, is known well enough. But how did our bankers obtain such quite unparalleled command over Europe's supply of capital and stock of gold? The answer involves some interesting phenomena of present-day finance. Outside of Wall Street, few people are aware of the magnitude of international borrowings conducted on pure credit. Money borrowed in London, on the pledge of the best American securities, is a simple matter; but the so-called "finance bill" is not so familiar. A banking house, in high standing on all the markets of the world, does not have to pledge collateral. It may borrow abroad, and often does, on its simple note-of-hand, sums ranging in the tens of millions.

In 1900, America was a creditor of Europe on operations of this sort; the common estimate then was that our banking houses had advanced to foreign markets—partly through investment in European securities, partly through outright loans—no less than \$200,000,000. The wild "promotion boom" of 1901 reversed the situation; we were then believed to be owing Europe an equal sum. In due course that floating debt was entirely liquidated, largely through the sale of our stocks to our foreign creditors, at a heavy sacrifice, in 1903. In 1904, there was reason to believe that our international account stood at an even balance. To-day, many of the best-informed banking experts estimate that another debt of not less than \$500,000,000 has been contracted in Europe.

But again, how did our borrowers obtain such credits, and how could Europe spare them? On the answer to this question, not even practical bankers are agreed. Last summer it was conceded, however, both at home and abroad, that American credit on these foreign markets stood at perhaps the highest point ever reached. In part, this was a consequence of our abundant har-

vests, and our heavy export trade. The country's excess of merchandise exports over imports, for the first eight months of 1906, was not, it is true, as large as in 1901, 1900, 1899, or 1895; but it exceeded all other recent years, and its continuance was foreshadowed by the remarkable outlook for our crops this year. This factor is important, because this balance on the merchandise returns is expected to square accounts for our foreign floating debt. The "finance bill" borrowing is in effect the anticipation of what Europe must pay to us when our wheat and corn and cotton go abroad.

Beyond even this consideration stands the fact that the imagination of the European money-lender has undoubtedly been impressed by the long continuance of our great prosperity, and the promptness with which our financial markets recovered from the reaction of 1903. Nor should the practical observer overlook the fact that the extravagantly high rates bid for money on Wall Street, this year and last year, have made strong appeal to the profit-earning instincts of foreign bankers. Had they believed these abnormal bids to be a sign of financial rottenness, they would doubtless have held aloof. But having no such suspicion, they have insisted on heaping up fresh advances, to Wall Street speculators as well as to international bankers—this in the face of protest from the foreign borrowing community, and of active opposition by the Bank of England.

It may finally be asked, is there, or is there not, an element of danger in this situation? The answer to such a question must depend on circumstances. This much is clear, that the borrowing of such sums from Europe places our finances in a position more vulnerable to unexpected accident than they have occupied in many years. Debt of this sort is not always easy to provide for. Similar borrowings had been made, with the utmost confidence, in the course of the Wall Street speculative craze in the early months of 1901. Our foreign credit then, as now, was unimpeachable, and for similar reasons; and we used it to the full. The sequel was that the unexpected happened in three or four directions. Two great banking interests fell to quarreling, and the financial markets collapsed under their struggles. The corn crop failed, and our export trade declined \$100,000,000 for the year. The shock of President McKinley's assassination startled both home and foreign investors. Along with this, Europe, which had been watching our "boom" with complacent admiration, suddenly arrived at the conclusion that our promoting and speculating bankers had over-reached themselves. They recalled their loans; our money markets had to draw on their own already overstrained resources to provide the means, and a period of severe depression followed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, Francis Ellingwood. The Socialistic Philosophy. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Atkinson, Thomas Dinham. A Glossary of English Architecture. London: Methuen & Co. 3s. 6d. net
Bacon, Dolores. Crumbs and His Times. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1.
Baedeker's Northern Italy. Imported by Scribners. \$2.40 net.
Barbour, Ralph Henry. The Crimson Sweater. Century Co. \$1.50.
Barrett, Howard. The Management of Children. Dutton, \$2.

Barstow, Lewis O. The Modern Pulpit. Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.
Bell, Alexander Graham. The Mechanism of Speech. Funk & Wagnalls Co. \$1 net.
Bergin, Joseph Y., and Bradley M. Davis. Principles of Botany. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.50.
Bierce, Ambrose. The Cynic's Word Book. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1 net.
Blaisdell, E. Ward. Animal Serials. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1 net.
Brewster, William. The Birds of the Cambridge Region of Massachusetts. Cambridge, Mass. Brookfield, Charles and Frances. Mrs. Brookfield and Her Circle. Scribners. \$3.50 net.
Brown, Alice. The Country Road. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
Burrage, Henry Sweetser. Gettysburg and Lincoln. Putnam's. \$1.50 net.
Caird, Mona. Romantic Cities of Provence. Imported by Scribners. \$3.75 net.
Caldwell, George W. Oriental Rambles. Poughkeepsie: Published by the Author.
Carling, George. Richard Elliott, Financier. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Charaka Club. The Proceedings of the, Vol. 11. William Wood & Co.
Child's Calendar Beautiful. Arranged by R. Katharine Beeson. Scribners. \$1 net.
Coates, Mrs. Everard. Set in Authority. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Comstock, Harriet T. The Queen's Hostage. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Coolidge, Susan. A Sheaf of Stories. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
De Quincey's Autobiography. Edited by Tighe Hopkins. Imported by Scribners. \$1.25 net.
Edwards, A. Herbage. Kakemono: Japanese Sketches. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 18, 1906.

The Week.

The better sentiment of the South is voiced again by William H. Fleming, former Representative from Georgia. In our issue of July 5 we commented on his able and temperate address at the University of Georgia on "Slavery and the Race Problem in the South." He has now written to the *Augusta Chronicle* a letter in which he discusses race troubles. He not merely declines to condemn a whole race for the crimes of a few degenerates, but boldly criticises some of his fellow citizens who have inflamed the mob spirit. Mr. Fleming points out that Hoke Smith "openly proclaimed upon the stump his purpose to subvert a portion of the Federal Constitution on the suffrage question by a fraudulent administration of the proposed State law, and gave his audience detailed explanations of how this fraud was to be perpetrated." As Mr. Fleming says, if Hoke Smith could thus spit upon the highest law of the land, why should the mob be blamed for defying the law against murder?

We cannot explain Secretary Shaw's latest scheme for American banking, except on the supposition that the Secretary has confused himself with Providence. In Mr. Shaw's opinion, as enunciated at the recent convention of Kentucky bankers, "it would be both wise and safe to clothe the Secretary of the Treasury with authority to require banks to increase their reserve at certain times, when money is redundant, and to expressly permit the maintenance of a somewhat lower reserve at other times." The scope of this new financial Providence is pretty vague. The Secretary does, indeed, hint that only a "somewhat lower" reserve than the law's requirement should be expressly permitted at a time of stress; that is, he doubts whether even an all-wise financial minister could be trusted without limitation. But the point is, that the Secretary of the Treasury is conceived of as the man who will know at all times what is right and what is wrong, and who, if he be placed above the law, will employ his powers without making mistakes and without yielding to undue pressure. His very speech shows that Mr. Shaw has slight comprehension of the true meaning of the law which he proposes to supersede. He lays much stress on the fact that the severe penalties, prescribed for national banks which fail to maintain the reserve required by law, are discretionary with

the Treasury authorities. But he altogether ignores the fact that this discretion necessarily was left, in view of the fact that there are times—in 1893 and 1873, for instance—when, through no fault of theirs, maintenance of the 15 or 25 per cent. cash reserve by banks becomes impossible. In an unreasoning panic of depositors, the Government should keep its hands off. This is, however, wholly different from a provision that the Secretary may suddenly announce, when he sees fit, that no bank need any longer keep the legal reserve. As an illustration of the conservatism with which such arbitrary power as the Secretary proposes might be exercised, we have the famous case of September, 1902, when Mr. Shaw himself announced overnight that banks need no longer keep any cash reserve against their \$117,000,000 public deposits. This dispensation was so full of dangerous possibilities that the New York Clearing House promptly forbade the banks in its membership to make use of it.

Gen. Leonard Wood not only wishes the American garrison in the Philippines to be kept at its present strength of 20,000 men, but asks for more artillery. He wants also a squadron from each of the fifteen regiments of cavalry instead of four whole regiments, as at present. This does not seem to indicate great confidence in a lasting peace in the islands, particularly as there are fully 10,000 native troops to be drawn upon. Just at present, what the Philippine Government needs more than troops is something like a settled policy. Since 1899 there have been no less than six American governors—Lord Cromer has represented England in Egypt ever since the occupation—and the term of Gen. James H. Smith, which has just begun, will, it is understood, be of very limited duration. Indeed, Judge Magoon, who was recently appointed vice-governor, was heralded as the man who would follow Gen. Smith within a few months. But, after some vacillation, Judge Magoon was made ruler of Cuba; and no one knows whether the Philippine place is to be kept open for him, or whether some one else is being sought. There is apparently no one in the islands who is big enough for the position, and the supply of men in this country with anything like the requisite experience and tact is extremely limited.

The appointment of Professor Wallace Clement Sabine as dean of the Lawrence Scientific School is further evidence that, since the idea of an alliance between Harvard and the Institute of Technology has been dropped, the devel-

opment of scientific teaching at Harvard will be pushed with vigor. Born in 1868, Mr. Sabine is still—as academic honors go—a mere youth, not yet forty. His undergraduate course he took at the Ohio State University. Then, after several years of study at Harvard, he was appointed assistant in physics, and has since risen steadily to a full professorship. He has already made a reputation in architectural acoustics. In energy Mr. Sabine is as worthy a successor to the late Dean Shaler as the authorities of Harvard can hope to find. As a scientist, he has been more rigorously, and perhaps narrowly, trained than Mr. Shaler, whose specialty was the all-embracing subject of geology and everything else of human interest. As an administrator, Mr. Sabine has shown marked capacity. In his new position he will have ample opportunity for the exercise of all his powers; for within a few years the Gordon McKay millions will be available. With the income of this vast fund at command, the Scientific School of Harvard University may become the finest institution of its kind in America, and even in the whole world.

At the meeting of the Western Massachusetts Library Club, W. I. Fletcher of Amherst made a plea for more scholarly administration of libraries. During recent years the machinery of arranging and cataloguing books has been brought to great perfection; yet Mr. Fletcher would not have attention too largely directed to these matters of technical economy, or to elaborate classifications. It would be desirable, especially in our university libraries, if those who wish to study any particular subject could have the advice of some one versed in bibliography. This is the method in many European libraries, and gives life to the dry bones of the analytical catalogue. But, of course, the engagement of men familiar with what has been written in the different sciences and arts would greatly increase the expenses of administration. Still, this office can be effectively discharged by professors and tutors, if they will take the time for it. Probably more can be done for the best students by library "clinics" than by lectures or prescribed lessons in a text-book.

"The League of the Russian People" has issued what Americans would call a platform for the elections for the next Duma. It enjoins candidates to favor continued oppression of the Jews, by depriving them of the franchise, by excluding them from army and navy, and from the schools and universities, by

preventing them from receiving Government concessions, and denying them employment as ship captains, druggists, or journalists. This news lends special interest to a dispatch to the Berlin *Vorwärts*, to the effect that the Social-Democratic party and the General Union of Jewish Workingmen in Russia, Poland, and Lithuania, have recently been reunited. The schism thus healed arose in 1903. The principal cause lay in the peculiar conditions with which the workmen of the Pale were confronted, as members of a race exposed to exceptional treatment by the Government and to the enmity of their neighbors. But a deeper reason must have been the fear that even the triumph of the revolution would bring no absolute guarantee of fair treatment for the Jews. Indeed, it is still uncertain what part was played, during the Odessa massacres of 1905, by that large section of the Christian proletariat of the city which must surely have been under revolutionary influences. It is a fact that they offered practically no help to the victims; in any case, their fellow Socialists among the Jews could scarcely regard them as allies. The present reconciliation is probably, in part, a result of the terrible ordeal through which all the revolutionary elements in Russia have been passing. But we are inclined to see a still stronger influence in the close *rapprochement* that is being brought about between Jewish and Christian workmen. The London *Times* reports from Odessa: "The Christian labor organizations have issued a proclamation declaring that if there should be a fresh outbreak, they will defend the Jews to their last drop of blood."

France and Spain, which are both pushing an anti-clerical policy, illustrate capitally the right and the wrong way of agreeing to disagree. France has cut off all diplomatic relations with the Vatican, and although the tone of the bishops becomes more conciliatory, and the Government declines to dispossess the Catholic parishes summarily, no way appears to the compromise that is plainly in the air. In the end, we presume, some representative of the Government will confer with some emissary of the Pope. The present deadlock shows that it is unwise to dissolve a partnership by abruptly ceasing personal relations. There are usually outstanding matters that need discussion. Spain has realized this, and, though she carries forward the movement for secularizing marriage and education, and expropriating even the consecrated soil of Catholic graveyards, she does so in unbroken conference with the Vatican. Premier Dominguez evidently realizes that if it takes two to make a quarrel, it takes as many to patch one up. This

lesson might be studied to advantage north of the Pyrenees.

The anniversary of the peace of Portsmouth was marked in Tokio by serious disturbances growing out of the action of the street railway companies in raising the customary fare from three to four sen. This followed immediately on the merger of the three companies formerly operating independently in the capital. Cars were attacked, motormen were mobbed, and night traffic was brought to a standstill. According to the *Japanese Mail*, all the leading Tokio papers were in open sympathy with the rioters, and the influential *Kokumin Shimbun* urged that the street railways be taken over by the municipality. The rioters were mainly drawn from among the jinrikisha coolies, who have felt the competition of the street cars keenly, and who were in fact prominently concerned in the September disturbances of a year ago following the announcement of peace with Russia. The *Mail* speaks of the activity of the Soshi, elsewhere described as comprising the "higher ranks of the city's riff-raff." In Tokio they are organized in bands, presumably a relic of the old clan relationship, and may be regularly hired for political demonstrations or services of a more forcible kind, the price varying with the sanguinary nature of the enterprise. Thus it would seem that the national discipline and "efficiency" manifest themselves even in mob violence.

The English magazines for October have several articles bearing on the government of Egypt. The severest critic of Lord Cromer is Wilfrid Blunt, who recently published a pamphlet entitled "Atrocities of Justice under British Rule in Egypt." He returns to the attack in the *Independent Review*. His chief contention is that the government of Egypt should be nationalized forthwith in order to prevent further miscarriages of justice. As between natives, Mr. Blunt has no fault to find with the courts; he is, however, very hard upon Lord Cromer's policy of dealing with matters like assaults upon foreigners by natives, with such severity as to surround the army of occupation "with a sanctity which puts it above the law." In the *Contemporary Review*, Harold Spencer, who is far more favorable to Lord Cromer, also makes a strong argument for more self-government and for a policy which will take the Egyptians "more intimately into our counsels." The questions before Parliament, as the London *Tribune* points out, will be whether the unrest in Egypt is due to thwarted national development, and just how far the Pan-Islamic scare of last summer was owing to religious and race hostil-

ity, or to an attempt to head off any movement granting further self-government to the Egyptians. They, like other conquered peoples, obstinately refuse to worship a higher civilization or to be content with a government of foreigners.

The Chinese Government has given fresh proof of its new life by appointing a commission of inquiry into the best means of prohibiting the traffic in opium within the next ten years. In no other way could it more deliberately shame one of the civilized nations—England—some of whose newspapers and statesmen still talk of China as if it were a decaying nation over whose destinies they were by divine right the sole guardians. For it was England which deliberately fastened the opium curse upon China, pushing by force of arms upon an unwilling people a trade which grossly injured its *morale*. Before the Opium War of 1840 the Chinese had realized perfectly that this poison was ruining China, and had passed a law condemning opium-smokers to strangulation and dealers to decapitation. But England compelled China to legalize the opium traffic, largely owing to the influence of the Government of India, which, like its predecessor, the East India Company, was the chief beneficiary of the nefarious business. Many English statesmen, Bright, Cobden, Gladstone, and Lord Brassey, have roundly denounced this great crime. Of late, the Indian opium trade has languished, because the domestic cultivation of opium was encouraged by the Chinese, in the hope that if the import trade ceased to pay, England would no longer insist upon it, and China would then be free to deal with the home producer. In 1880, 14 per cent. of the total revenue of the Indian Empire came from opium; to-day it is only 7 per cent., and in cash value the trade has decreased from \$25,000,000 to \$11,475,000. Fortunately, Mr. Morley, the biographer of Cobden and Gladstone, now Chief Secretary for India, is animated by the same spirit which actuated them in their relations to the Eastern races. As far back as May 30th last he declared his willingness to cooperate with the Chinese Government, if it honestly wished to restrict the consumption of the drug. Whether or not a total prohibition of the use of opium is possible, it would be hard to say. Probably the commission of inquiry, particularly if it should have the cooperation of Sir Robert Hart, will recommend an attempt to diminish the use of the drug by heavy taxation, rather than by outright abolition. But whatever the results of the studies and experiments now to be made, this fresh proof of the renascence of China is a significant event; and Mr. Morley's act is a bit of historic justice which

must encourage all who fight the battle of the weaker peoples against the stronger.

The India Sanitary Report for 1904, just published in England, brings out the startling fact that nearly a million persons—938,010—died of plague in that year, the ninth since the beginning of the present epidemic. In every one of the nine years, save 1900, there has been an increased death-rate, there being 251,525 more deaths in 1904 than in 1903. The total deaths in India since the beginning of the epidemic have reached the enormous figure of 3,263,810. Naturally, the report devotes much space to the measures adopted in the effort, thus far futile, to check this dread disease. The campaign is largely directed against the rat as the chief means of transmission; and disinfection has been found to be of little use. But the work of enlightenment is difficult, for, as the report declares: "It is not easy to deal with a religious tenet that forbids the holder to leave an infected place, with a tenderness for animal life that will not sanction the destruction of a deadly serpent, with ignorance that is convinced that plague is introduced and festered by Government in order to reduce the redundant population, with suspicion that sees the disseminating agents in every disinfecting party, or with timidity that may be turned by an ill-considered action into fanatical frenzy." It is interesting to note that dealers in grain are nearly always among the first victims, and the mortality among them is particularly high. Perhaps their premises are unusually attractive to the rats. Wherever the rats are destroyed there is immunity, or comparative immunity, from the disease.

The subject of fatigue and rest is continually up for public and private discussion. Before the Physical Section at the last meeting of the British Association, Drs. Theodore Acland and Bevan Lewis had something to say in opposition to prevalent theories. They contended that change of occupation is not necessarily recreation, and that physical exercise is not a substitute for sleep. The toxic bodies produced by exhaustion of one set of centres affect centres which have been unused, so that the evil effects of an overworked brain are not counteracted by muscular activity. The same subject has lately been discussed by M. Féré, a physician at Bicêtre, who also challenges the popular doctrine that rest is secured by a change of work. The only remedy for fatigue is sleep. Stimulants may induce energy temporarily, but fatigue follows all the more rapidly. At the meeting of the British Association it was shown that there are marked individual differences in the depth and time of slum-

ber. Those who work by day get a maximum soundness of sleep in the early hours. Night workers begin by sleeping lightly, and the maximum soundness comes during the later hours. Neurotics have two maxima of sound sleep, one at the beginning, the other at the end of their rest. Between these extremes, their sleep is so light that it is easily disturbed, and insomnia may become habitual. The comparative soundness of sleep may be determined by the character of dreams. When the dreaming is fantastic and incoherent, sleep is deeper than when the imagination pursues a more logical and orderly course. It is unlucky, however, that excessive fatigue, for which sleep is the only safe remedy, often produces insomnia, thus making the remedy unattainable.

A reactionary view of the emancipation of women is taken by a clever German writer, whose *nom de plume* is Félicie Ewart. She complains that those of her sex who set out to compete with men in active life usually fail. In the study of medicine particularly, while they are diligent and ambitious, they are deficient in manual skill and incapable of applying the knowledge which they have acquired. In proof of this thesis, she asserts that during the last twenty-five years Germany has produced no distinguished woman-physician. She urges those of her sex who have professional ambition, to adopt work in which competition with men is not so keen, such as nursing the sick and the hygienic care of children, in respect to which Germany is surpassed by England and America. A writer in the *Rundschau* disputes the fairness of these statements; because women have had opportunities of professional study during a comparatively short period, and the number of them at the universities has been small. In Switzerland, for example, women have attained considerable eminence in the medical profession; and even in Berlin some have practised with success. Both the writers just mentioned advise women to be less ambitious in their ideals. Too many try to be "leaders, painters, singers, and piano-players"; but nature is not so gracious as to give many the talent for such pursuits. In Germany, as in this country, some women of high social standing have not hesitated to join the ranks of the *commerçantes* and of the wage-earners, and have won respect for their courage and industry. The matter of employment for women is also discussed by a writer in the *Independent*. He suggests that more women should make the care of the hair a specialty—not simply as hair-dressers, but as scientific experts in preventing baldness. But however limited the opportunities at present for the treatment of the outside

of the head, many women, we trust, will still make a specialty of furnishing what is needed for the inside.

While criticism has led theologians to take up the reconstruction of creeds, many of the laity have been driven by it into a kind of mysticism. J. Arthur Hill presents in the *Hibbert Journal* the results of psychical research as the promise of a new religion. His article is instructive as showing how a man may fall out of the frying-pan of the old theology into the fire of what—for the want of a more precise term—may be called neo-superstition. He is sorry to give up the cherished convictions of the Christian, and he is the sorrier because none of the ethnic religions can be substituted. But he turns to psychical research, because it is the only thing that has helped us to understand "what we call death." Mr. Hill tells us that the Society for Psychical Research has for twenty-five years been accumulating evidence which "tends to show" that a disembodied consciousness is not impossible. Thus his is a hope which rests upon a hypothesis, which is in turn supported only by another hypothesis. If survival after death is indicated by genuine evidence, and if communications from departed souls are possible, then we may receive some help towards the solution of religious problems. We do not think it probable that Mr. Hill's suggestions will meet with favor even from those who have parted with the old creed. Those who demand scientific demonstration will scarcely pin their faith to the data which the Society for Psychical Research publishes, nor to what Mr. Hill calls a new religion "such as F. W. H. Myers has foreshadowed in the epilogue to his great work." If Christ and the Apostles have faded away in a haze of legend and uncertainty, neither the believer nor the unbeliever is likely to be persuaded by the prophecies of the crystal-gazer or by the apocalypse of the medium. For even admitting the veracity of the spiritualistic disciples in relating their own experiences, what reason is there for supposing that their ideas come from disembodied spirits? The fallacy of the spiritualistic "demonstration of immortality" consists in assuming that there is a world of disembodied spirits (which was the very thing to be proved), and in then attributing to disembodied spirits the phenomena which are said to be present. The mysterious and usually foolish beings who are summoned from the realms of light or of darkness may attract the curious, amuse the credulous, and put money into the purse of the charlatan; but even the miracle of Joshua and the adventure of Jonah are more credible than the idle tales which we are asked to accept as scientific documents.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT BY COMMISSION.

After five years of government under a municipal commission in the city of Galveston, many enthusiastic Texans are saying that in this plan is to be found a remedy for what James Bryce called "the one conspicuous failure in the United States." In the eighteen years since that judgment was passed, however, there has come not only the gain of an aroused public conscience, but a changed view of the importance of the municipal government. Very significant has been the great increase in the mayor's power and responsibility, with the curtailed functions of aldermen. Nevertheless, the evils of our city governments have remained. The condition of our urban population, as it was in 1790, with only 3.3 per cent. of the inhabitants living in cities of over 8,000, did not invoke the constructive genius of the American constitution-makers. Hence the principal features of a form of government framed to meet the needs of a State were somewhat arbitrarily applied to a municipality. Thus the municipal-commission form of government appears to be revolutionary. It means the practical abandonment of a doctrine that is the very keystone of our Constitution—the division of powers.

The working of the Galveston Commission, as narrated by George K. Turner in *McClure's*, suggests the possibilities of the new idea. In the case of Galveston, it was born of the great storm of September, 1900. In the critical period following, the old form of government with mayor and aldermen was found to be worse than useless. A realization of this fact and the paramount desire to obtain concentration of authority and responsibility without hazarding everything on the choice of an all-powerful mayor, resulted in the evolution of the municipal commission. It was, to be sure, not entirely a novelty. The Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia doubtless pointed the way. The government of English municipalities offered models of the high centralization sought. The New England town selectmen presented examples of small bodies of responsible representatives chosen at large. But more than any existing form of government, the great modern business corporation, with its maximum of efficiency and its minimum of red-tape, served as an inspiration.

The Galveston Commission is a body of five men, at first partly appointive, but since 1903 elected from the city at large. It consists of a Mayor, or general manager, elected specifically for his office, and four managers or directors, chosen without designation. The commissioners apportion the departments among themselves, choose all the

other officers of the city government, legislate for the city, and are responsible for the enforcement and administration of the laws. A majority vote of the body is final. The mayor has no veto or appointive power; his authority is confined to his acts as presiding officer of the board, and his vote as a commissioner. The four departments are those of finance and revenue, police and fire, streets and public property, and waterworks and sewers. In the time of her great need, Galveston's call to the service of the city was answered by the choice of a board made up of five of her best-known citizens. Doubtless declared that the service of men of such high standing could not be obtained in ordinary times. Yet at the end of five years, four of the original commissioners are still in office, the one change being due to the death of Mayor Austin in 1905.

The measure of the Commission's success lies in its achievements, not in the character of its members. They found Galveston bankrupt; to-day her credit is above par, and a saving of one-third in the running expenses has been effected. Simply by more efficient methods of collection, a revenue almost as great as that recorded before the storm has been obtained from assessments \$425,000 smaller. Extensive public improvements have been carried on, and the city has at the same time assumed \$1,500,000 of the cost of building the great sea wall. No less striking has been the Commission's method of coping with social disorders. Galveston before the storm had the evil reputation of being the most "wide-open" city in the entire South. The Commission has succeeded in enforcing midnight saloon closing, has abolished gambling houses and policy shops, and has regulated the dance halls. The reformed police force is able to preserve better order than did a force one-third larger previously. Prior to the disaster, the city possessed no public sewerage system, and the streets were badly paved, and lighted only as the whim of the aldermen dictated. Under the Commission's administration, a sewerage system has been constructed, and the streets are better paved and lighted than those of any other city in the Southwest.

Of this record, the people of Galveston are justly proud; they believe they have solved the problem of municipal government. Nor has their success passed unnoticed in other cities. Houston has lived under a similar charter for two years. Three other Texan cities, Dallas, San Antonio, and Fort Worth, have already voted favorably, or are planning to vote, on the adoption of the new idea. Norfolk, Virginia, has a modification of the system; while, first of all Northern cities, Des Moines has appointed experts to report on the

feasibility of the plan. It remains to be seen whether, in the cities of the North, where party politics enter more largely into the question than in Southern municipalities, the same degree of success is possible. But that the system is worthy of a thorough trial, the record of Galveston renders beyond dispute.

BEAUTIES OF THE ART TARIFF.

It may occur to certain visitors to the Columbia University Library, where splendid illuminated manuscripts belonging to J. Pierpont Morgan are temporarily exhibited, to inquire: Why are these treasures of art in America, whereas Mr. Morgan's paintings, bronzes, enamels, tapestries, etc., remain in Europe? The answer is simple: the manuscripts are not in the eye of the law works of art, and come in free of duty, whereas the rest are included under the category of paintings and statuary and must pay 20 per cent. *ad valorem*. Now, the Morgan manuscripts include some ornamented by illuminators who were also esteemed painters, as was frequently the case in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Hubert van Eyck, one recalls, is a notable instance of such a double activity. And here the tariff displays one of its most delightful inconsistencies. The Philadelphia amateur who was fortunate enough to secure that peerless Hubert van Eyck, "St. Francis Receiving the Stigmata," had to pay handsomely in the customs for his enterprise, but a bibliophile who had the luck to land a manuscript containing a score of paintings by the same hand, of the same dimensions, and in the same medium, could parade his prize fearlessly before the assembled customs service. Mr. Morgan, as we have noted, has thus in a single breviary imported an entire gallery of Flemish art of the finest period without paying a cent. The thing should be looked to when the tariff is next revised; the native illuminators of America should not be exposed to the pauper competition of the Middle Ages and Renaissance. Meantime, we advise all collectors who come into the possession of small paintings to have them bound up and pleasingly accoutred as manuscripts.

Feeling that even a protective chain is no stronger than its weakest link, we are constrained to point out another oversight in the Dingley bill. Statuary is taxed its 20 per cent., but the most superb specimen of mediæval sculpture in metal or ivory that happens to be a book-cover escapes the duty. On the other hand, a beautiful wooden chest with sculptured ornament would apparently have to pay 35 per cent. as "house or cabinet furniture, of wood, wholly or partly finished" (Dingley act, paragraph 208). Supposing the case of two Donatellos, one of wood, the other of

bronze: the owner of the wooden statue would be penalized 15 per cent. for preferring the more perishable material. A similar discrepancy exists in the matter of drawings and prints. If one were the proud possessor of a drawing scratched on paper by Rembrandt's pen, the tribute to the Government would be the consecrated 20 per cent.; but if one bought instead an impression from an exactly similar sketch scratched on copper by Rembrandt's dry-point, that would come in free, because it was an etching and "printed more than twenty years at the date of importation." At many points we meet the same absurdity. One is mulcted heavily for bringing over a painting by Dürer or Holbein, but one may import freely the almost priceless books containing numbers of their finest designs.

Weak-kneed amateurs will doubtless be inclined to utilize the stupidity that gives this leeway to bad Americans who fancy the art of "abroad." The *Nation*, though no friend of any protective tariff, is a believer in consistency, and submits that, if collectors are to be penalized as such, and native art protected at all costs and against its will, the job should at least be done thoroughly. Obviously, any moral obliquity that attaches to a man who likes a painted Van Dyck portrait falls with equal weight upon him who happens to prefer an etched portrait by the same master. If either amateur should be asked to contribute to the support of the national Treasury, both should be subject to a common treatment. Why should the guilty man who buys the brush-drawings of Hokusai be made to pay handsomely for his taste, when the equally culpable lover of virtual facsimiles of these drawings in color-print or album goes scot free? The thing is not to be endured.

We have been pleading the enemy's cause with our usual candor in urging that the tariff on works of art should at least be applied with some intelligence, equity, and common sense; that it should not bear intolerably upon one class of collectors and spare others entirely. We desire to show that even on the strictest basis of protectionism, the schedules as they stand are full of glaring absurdities and inconsistencies. By the same token, it should appear that the art schedules need revision and equalization, quite apart from any general revision of the tariff, or from any special pleading for free art. We should, however, be less zealous in exposing these unstopped loopholes in the present tariff, were we not confident that any committee of any party that honestly explores the legislative monstrosity which the tariff on art, studies its theoretical confusion, and observes its practical maladjustments, will arrive at the inevitable conclusion that the only way to reform is to abolish.

CHANGES IN FOREIGN MISSIONS.

The enthusiastic meetings held at Williamstown last week, in commemoration of the centenary of American foreign missions, were a fitting recognition of a mighty work. It grew from small beginnings. That little band of Williams students who, a hundred years ago, devoted themselves to the evangelization of the heathen, builded better than they knew, in every sense of the words. Great changes have taken place, as well in the idea of the enterprise as in the methods employed for its success. For one thing, there has been a change in the conception of the non-Christian world. Unbelievers of alien races were once condemned by theologians to endless torment. To-day, it is the present, not the future, condition of the heathen which is most talked about. Missionaries themselves are willing to leave as problematic the destiny of those who never hear the gospel. Their chief energies are devoted to the work of extending the civilization of Christian nations. Their undertaking is now looked upon by many intelligent observers as a struggle of enlightened progress with dark stagnation.

In the popular mind also there is a wholly new idea of the missionary. The traditional picture in the Sunday-school books was accepted as a faithful representation. He stood decently clad beneath a palm tree, with a sun umbrella over his head and a book in his hand, surrounded by undraped savages who seemed to be in doubt whether to hear or to eat him. But the missionary of to-day is thought of as the representative of wealthy and powerful churches, who preaches the gospel by action as well as by word.

Within the observation of all, the qualities of the modern missionary differ from those of his predecessors. He does not, like Henry Martyn at Rajemahl, portray the flames of hell to the inquiring tribesmen, or bewail in carefully kept diaries his own guilt and the doom of those who are deaf to his entreaties. Nor does he, like Adoniram Judson, ask the hand of his future wife that "the heathens" may "be saved through her means from eternal woe and despair"; nor like Robert Moffat hear an inward voice call him persistently to the work of rescuing men from hell. He is less an inspired prophet than a man of affairs. There is now a tendency to prefer the enlightenment of the reason and the cure of the diseased body to the visions of the seer. This is largely because money has been provided for education, and for medical care, to an extent impossible in times when the missionary went out alone and poor.

Men like Mackay of Uganda and Jesup of Syria have given an intellectual impetus even to the savage African and

the indolent Oriental. And adventurous courage, similar to that of the earlier missionaries, is displayed by their successors who cut their way through the jungle, ascend fever-breeding rivers, and go unarmed among cruel fanatics and barbarous tribes. Missionaries are no longer merely ministers of the gospel who address the heathen in their native tongues. They are physicians as well as priests. They build hospitals and administer them. They establish printing presses and direct them. They are linguists who translate a whole religious literature into the imperfect dialects of primitive tribes. They are advisers at the courts of Eastern princes and instructors at colleges planted in regions of dense ignorance. They are often in advance of European and American traders, and find themselves, at length, opposing the vices of civilization on the one hand and those of barbarism on the other.

The missionary physician and the missionary ethnologist bring the results of their research to the learned societies of Europe and America. But there is less of that haste to baptize which was once manifested by the heroic Jesuit missionaries to the North American Indians. The new missionary may still have something to learn in the way of tact, but in general his methods are more tactful, careful, and gradual than those of a generation ago. Women are sent into the Zenana. Unsectarian societies attract unbelievers by offering them the comforts of civilization before introducing them to the principles of Christian doctrine. Missionary work has been organized and specialized. There is a "Students' Movement" which gets its recruits from the universities. There is an "Inland Mission" which has penetrated far into the Chinese Empire. During the last fifty years the American Board has expended \$30,000,000 in the missionary cause. The familiar objection that this money might better have been employed at home for the poor at our doors, is met in part by the founding of asylums, free hospitals, and other benevolent institutions in the very countries whence immigrants come to us. Besides, be it noted, the most generous supporters of home charities are often the staunchest friends of foreign missions.

A notable change in connection with this religious movement is seen in the method of its advocates when they appeal to their Christian constituencies for aid. The missionary sermon of the present resembles the address of a returned ambassador, rather than the exhortation of an evangelist; and the organization of a missionary board is the miniature of a foreign office. There are doubtless many who regret the apparent secularization of the cause; who still have visions of the *valle inferna*, if not of the *sempiterna flamme*. They would trace their present success to the

piety and prayers, and the baptism of blood, of laborers and martyrs. But even those whose faith is not ardent must read with admiration the story of missionary enthusiasm and heroism. They cannot fail to recognize in it a force in that wide evolutionary process which goes painfully onward towards the regeneration and federation of the world.

BISMARCK'S RETIREMENT.

The publication in Germany of the memoirs of the late Chancellor Prince von Hohenlohe, giving the inside history of the dismissal of Prince Bismarck, was bound to create a sensation. The whole Empire seemed to rock on March 21, 1890, when the announcement was made that the young Emperor had calmly sent over the side the veteran and masterful pilot who had launched and so long guided the ship of state. Germany without Bismarck? The thing seemed incredible, and the explanations which have since been furnished have been as varied as the colors in the spectrum. In Germany, the net result was a widespread belief that the Emperor was jealous of the Iron Chancellor, and, desiring to have things entirely his own way, had humiliated him in a moment of pique. That Bismarck himself held this view is known. Speaking in English to an American visitor at his home only a few months after his dismissal, the Chancellor said that he had been "literally kicked out of office," and he was unsparing in his denunciation of the Emperor and of the ministers to whom he attributed his loss of power. According to Von Hohenlohe, Bismarck declared to him that three weeks before he had not thought of resigning. "I ought," he added, "to have expected it, since the Emperor now means to govern alone."

Most of the defenders of Bismarck have based their case upon the ingratitude of the Emperor. The actual details have hitherto been more or less veiled in mystery. The Bismarck memoirs and letters thus far published bear lightly, if at all, upon his retirement from office. Not so the Hohenlohe memoirs. The writer of this important record arrived in Berlin on the day of the news of Bismarck's resignation. He speedily ascertained, so he notes in his diary, that the break between Emperor and Chancellor had been inevitable for weeks; that more than a month previously, the Emperor, angered by Bismarck's slights and the derogatory way in which the Chancellor had spoken of him to the members of the diplomatic corps, had discussed with Count Caprivi the latter's eventual appointment as Chancellor. A rumor of this conversation having reached Bismarck, the situation at once became impossible. To make matters worse, the Kaiser learned that Bismarck

had complained to certain diplomats of the Imperial policy in regard to the betterment of the working classes; while Bismarck was infuriated by hearing that other ministers saw more of the Emperor than he did himself. Finally, the Emperor, as Von Hohenlohe quotes him, declared that it had become a question "whether the Bismarck dynasty or the Hohenzollern should rule over Germany."

This statement and others the Kaiser made to Von Hohenlohe, when visiting him on April 24, 1890, and they were duly recorded in the diary now published. To the other reasons, the Kaiser added that Bismarck wanted a new law against the Socialists, and demanded the dissolution of the Reichstag, when that body refused to pass the bill. Besides, he wished to take energetic measures against strikers and all tumultuous assemblages. To this the Emperor replied that he did not "wish to begin his reign by shooting down his subjects"—certainly not until he had "investigated their complaints and done his best to remove their just grievances." All this now appears, we believe, for the first time, and places the Kaiser in so favorable a light that his strong protest against the publication of the Von Hohenlohe memoirs cannot be based on any feeling that harm has been done to himself. He may, however, feel that the charge, restated by Von Hohenlohe, that the break with Bismarck was due to a difference of opinion as to the advisability of a Russian alliance, will be injurious to him. Again, he may fear the publication—now threatened—of the third volume of the Bismarck memoirs, which is reported to be in a vault in the Bank of England. But the upshot can only be to strengthen his position, though making people regret that the conciliatory and liberal spirit he then displayed towards Socialists and the working classes has apparently left him.

As time has passed, the Kaiser has apparently more and more leaned towards Bismarck's original point of view in all that relates to dealing with the Social-Democrats. At the same time, the firmness and vigor which so astounded Bismarck and the whole Empire have stamped the Emperor as the most able of the Hohenzollerns. Bismarck had never dealt with such stern stuff; to offer his resignation to the old Emperor was with Bismarck a commonplace way of bringing William the First to his knees. There is a fairly comic instance in the published correspondence between them. As far back as May 4, 1875, Bismarck asked to be allowed to retire with the legal pension. The Emperor's reply is pathetic; the secretary who wrote the letter is to be put under oath not to reveal its contents; as for the Emperor, he is *tief*

erschüttert (deeply shaken). Doubtless, Bismarck felt certain that the mere threat of his resignation would bring the young sovereign to terms, as it so often had his grandfather. The bitterness of his disappointment certainly contained a large admixture of amazement.

The impropriety of publishing the Von Hohenlohe memoirs at this time is as yet hardly apparent to an observer at this distance; we confess that we cannot quite understand the need of the Kaiser's raging telegram to the son who permitted the book to come out, or the latter's dismissal from office. Even in his dispatch the Kaiser seems particularly piqued because the publication was made without his consent. It is a violation, he contends, of all decency to publish the "intimate conversations of a monarch" during his lifetime. Such things have, it is true, been rare; but no established rule of this kind has ever been recognized. Intimate conversations with Queen Victoria might or might not have yielded a sensation during her lifetime. In this case, aside from the Emperor's dignity, nothing else seems hurt, unless the memoirs contain something more startling than has yet reached this country. At any rate, thanks to the Kaiser's free advertisement, the publisher's fortune should be made, and multitudes will read one firsthand account of a famous historic quarrel of which otherwise they might have died in ignorance.

THE ABERDEEN QUATER-CENTENARY

The splendid solemnities of the last week of September at Aberdeen formed a grand review of four centuries of the history of the "happy hyperborean Athens." Within a very few years, Bologna, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dublin, Harvard, and Yale have celebrated their secular festivals. Breslau, Berlin, Leipzig, St. Andrews and others are speedily to follow. These celebrations are not, in mercantile phrase, a stopping of the wheels of university business for a merely reminiscent taking account of stock; they have come to be the occasion for a supreme effort to take some step forward in the endless march which universities must make to keep, not abreast, but well in advance, of human progress.

Of the four Scottish universities, all but Edinburgh (1583) date from the fifteenth century. St. Andrews is the oldest. Founded in 1411, she lacks but one brief lustrum ere she is entitled again to celebrate—and this time the fulfilment of half a thousand years of life and action. Glasgow followed next, four decades later. Last in that notable century came the College of St. Mary the Virgin, now King's College at Aberdeen. The Papal Bull authorizing its foundation was given on February 10, 1494-5, by Pope Alexander VI., at the instance of King James IV. The original parchment has happily escaped the vicissitudes of time and is still preserved in the muniment room of King's College. After premising the inestimable value of learning and the backward and even barbarous con-

dition of Scotland, the hull states that His Holiness proposes to establish in Aberdeen what is termed a *studium generale et universitas*, patterned after the examples of Bologna and Paris. The international and thoroughly democratic character of science and of academic life was a note that was sounded again and again by the orators of the celebration; but it is remarkable that virtually the same note is struck by the fundamental charters of the mediæval academic system of the Roman Church; and the hull just mentioned confers upon the graduates of the college the right to teach in any university of the world.

Aberdeen University as now constituted is the result of the merging of two distinct establishments: the one, King's College, founded by the Bishop of Aberdeen, the famous William Elphinstone; and the other, Marischal College, founded ninety-nine years later (1593), by George Keith, fifth Earl Marischal. The difference of origin of the two foundations is strikingly reflected in the two mottoes, both admirable, which were to be seen in all the glories of exquisitely illuminated typography on divers festival publications. The one is the motto, adopted in 1860, of the University of to-day, "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom," *Initium sapientiæ timor Domini*—universal enough, it is true, but distinctly ecclesiastical also, and thus fitly embodying the spirit of a Roman Catholic prelate, the pious Elphinstone. The other is the legend on the arms of the Keiths: "They have said.—What say they?—Let them say." Like the device of the Rohans, "Roi ne puis.—Duc ne daigne.—Rohan suis," it tells a whole story, no less laconically, and with a fine contempt for public opinion such as our universities might do well to emulate oftener than they do.

The first event of the programme of the week was the Commemoration Service in the University Chapel, King's College, on Tuesday morning, September 25. An old authority says that Elphinstone "caused build the magnifick edifices of the Colledge, Church, professors houses and gardens therein." The Chapel and Crowned Tower still remain, as the true avouch for that epithet "magnifick." A superb carved oak screen divides the chapel from the antechapel. The pulpit and the stalls of the nave and apse, and especially the canopies, are adorned with carving of a beauty so exquisite as well to bear comparison with some of the best in Ulm and Nuremberg. Before the steps of the chancel is the tomb of Elphinstone. On it lay lovely white flowers, and evergreens tied with ribbon of royal purple, a convincing example of the truth so well expressed by President Eliot, "Universities have long memories." At half-past ten the magistrates of Aberdeen and the officials of the university entered the chapel, the magistrates in their scarlet fur-faced robes and chains of office, the rest in their picturesque academic costume. The morning had dawned chill and gray and dull; but just before the service began the sun broke through, lighting up the decorated ceiling, the glorious windows of stained glass, the carvings, and the colors—bright or sombre—worn by the distinguished assembly, with a splendor and beauty such as few of us see in a lifetime and the most of us never. The service was simple, dignified, and impressive. Among those who had

leading parts were Dr. Iverach, principal of the United Free Church College; his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury, and the moderator of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland. The sermon from the text, "Their line is gone out through all the earth and their words to the end of the world," was fit for the occasion, reminiscent rather than hortatory. The famous "Aberdeen Doctors" and the well-known Irenicon of John Forhes of Corse furnished matter of mention, the Irenicon, in particular, as sounding "in an age of schism a signal note of ecclesiastical unity which our services to-day [witness the participation of the Church of Scotland, the United Free Church, and the Church of England just mentioned] significantly echo."

The proceedings of the afternoon were on a larger scale and more spectacular. They consisted, in brief, of a procession from Marischal College to Strathcona Hall; the formal reception therein by the Chancellor, Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, of the delegates; and the presentation to him of the letters missive brought by each delegate from the university or learned corporation represented. Marischal College is a vast structure of cold gray granite, that sparkled bright in the autumn sunshine and reminds one in its architectural adornment not a little of Milan cathedral. A circuitous line of march about an hour long gave to the multitude of Aberdonians who lined the streets a chance to see, together with a show of gorgeous color, the faces of men whose names, like those of Bryce or Becquerel, have long been celebrated. A fanfare of trumpets announced the start, and the arrival at the great hall was greeted by the strains of "Gaudeamus." The Chancellor, Lord Strathcona, and the Principal, Dr. Lang, welcomed the guests on behalf of the university, and the Lord Provost on behalf of the city. The delegations from the several countries then advanced, each to the music of its national anthem. Each delegation had its spokesman, who made a brief address on behalf of his colleagues.

The delegations were divided into three main groups: (1) Great Britain and Ireland; (2) British dominions beyond the seas; (3) Foreign countries. The Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford, Dr. Merry, made a graceful address for the first division, and Principal Peterson of McGill University, Montreal, for the second. The Americans advanced to the strains of "Hail Columbia." Their spokesman was Prof. James William White of the University of Pennsylvania. The Johns Hopkins was represented by Dr. Howard Kelly; Columbia by Arnold Hague; Yale by T. R. Lounsbury; Harvard by Ahcott Lawrence Lowell and C. R. Lanman; and the American Philosophical Society by Andrew Carnegie. Then came the men from Austria-Hungary, and for them Schipper of Vienna spoke, and in excellent English, while the delegate from Buda-Pesth, with concession to our ignorance of his native speech, brought his good wishes in stately Latin. It was, of course, the soul-stirring Marseillaise that thrilled us as the Frenchmen went up, led by Becquerel, who spoke eloquently in his own tongue. Perhaps half a dozen of them wore the striking costume of the *Institut*, the green-embroidered coat and breeches. The Rt. Rev. Monsignor

Fraser, representing the Vatican and the Scots College, brought to the Chancellor a medal from His Holiness. The receptions accorded by the vast assembly to Japan and to Russia were especially cordial. Not a few of the foreign delegates are well known in America by reason of their visits here, or of their lectures or writings. Such were our recent guests Hoeffding, the eminent psychologist, and Jespersen, author of notable works on English and on phonetics, who represented Denmark; such was the archæologist Lanciani, who spoke for the Italians; and such was Salomon Reinach, "the last of the great encyclopedists" as they call him in Paris, whose articles have often appeared in the *Nation*.

Crowded as the day had been, there still remained two events of interest, the banquet in the Music Hall, given by the Lord Provost, Magistrates, and Town Council of Aberdeen, and the torchlight procession of students. The decorations, the meats and drink, and the music, now from the organ, now from the band, now from the Male Voice Choir, and now from some very Scotch pipers, were quite beyond all praise. If his other qualifications were not more than ample, the Rt. Hon. James Bryce is himself a Scot; and so, who could more fitly propose the toast "Our distinguished visitors"? The Archbishop of Canterbury responded. It was noteworthy that His Grace, and the Chancellor as well, laid stress upon the service rendered by the University in training teachers for the simple elementary schools. In the procession of students in fancy dress the variety was interesting and amusing. Red Indians in full war-paint rubbed shoulders with sisters of mercy; a Spanish toreador, skeletons in trailing white flimsy, "darkies" and "maidens" galore—all added to the fun.

Simultaneously, although not strictly as a part of the University celebration, a reception was held at the Aberdeen Grammar School to commemorate its 650th anniversary.

On Wednesday, September 26, the principal events were the conferring of honorary degrees in the morning; the students' sports, and the reception by the University in King's College Library in the afternoon; and the students' hall in the Music Hall and the reception in the Art Gallery in the evening. The conferring of degrees took place in the Mitchell Hall, a noble room with a magnificent window of stained glass, which fills the whole end over the dais. After the introductory exercises the Promotor in Divinity presented to the Chancellor the eminent theologians, eighteen in number, each with a brief but graceful characterization. Each, as his name was called, ascended the dais, and while the Chancellor capped him with black velvet the sacrist put over his shoulders the brilliant Aberdeen hood, and with cordial greetings from the presiding officers and the audience, the new doctor returned to his place. Notable among the number were the Archbishop of Canterbury, Canon Driver, Professor Sayce, the Bishop of Ripon, and Professor Charteris. The procedure for the honorary graduands in law was essentially the same. Almost the very first was the Lord Chief Justice of England, Lord Alverstone. Lord Balfour of Burleigh, in his robes as a peer of the

realm; Becquerel, the physicist; Bryce in his Oxford robes, and Carnegie in the gorgeous purple which he wore as lord rector of St. Andrews at the Franklin celebration last spring—all received hearty cheering. The capping ended, the Chancellor delivered an address, emphasizing the close connection of the Scottish universities with the national life, and their stimulating influence on the schools of the country, and then, after mentioning Sir William Macdonald's great gift of a College of Agriculture as adjunct to McGill University, he urged the need of relating a still greater proportion of their work to the practical activities of life.

The imposing ceremonies ended, the company again assembled—this time at King's College library, where Lord Strathcona and Principal Lang received the guests for two hours. Professors were on hand to serve as cicerones—to the chapel, where an organ recital was given, to the library and the Senatus room, to St. Machar's Cathedral and so on. In the Greek room Professor Lanciani gave an illustrated lecture on his excavations of last spring at Ostia near Rome. Many were tempted just beyond the lawn, where a garden party was in progress, to the athletic field. Of the reception in the Art Gallery, and of the students' ball, which more than filled the evening, space fails me to speak.

The climax of the celebration was reached in the events of Thursday, September 27, the royal visit and the Chancellor's banquet. For the royal entry the streets were beautifully decorated. The King and his party appeared before the assemblage in the quadrangle of Marischal with royal punctuality at five minutes before the appointed hour of one. The salient features of the picturesque ceremony were the presentation of an address, the King's reply, and the formal opening of the buildings. The reverend Principal read the address, which began with a quaint old phrase, "We, the members of the University of Aberdeen, desire to offer our humble duty." The King wore the brilliant uniform of a field marshal with the Order of the Thistle, and the color and look of health were in his face, while the paleness of the Queen's was somewhat intensified by the deep black in which she was attired. The King, on receiving the address, made reply in clear and ringing tones, and, to the request of the Chancellor, who presented His Majesty with a key, responded with the brief proclamation: "I now declare these new buildings open." A fanfare followed, the royal party proceeded to inspect the buildings, and on their return the function was over.

Lord Strathcona's banquet was an undertaking no less bold than successful. The guests numbered some 2,460. The food was all prepared in London and brought in a special train, with 700 selected waiters to serve it. In addition to the "loyal toasts" (the King and the royal family), and the health of the Chancellor as our host, there were three others. Of these the first was the University of Aberdeen, proposed by Lord Balfour of Burleigh and responded to by the principal. The second was "Sister Universities and other Learned Institutions," proposed by the Rector and responded to by Professor Jackson of Cambridge and Professor Lanman of Harvard;

while the third, the "City of Aberdeen," was proposed by Andrew Carnegie, the Lord Provost responding.

CHARLES ROCKWELL LANMAN.
Harvard University, October 12.

Correspondence.

PRESIDENT JORDAN AND SIMPLIFIED SPELLING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One feature of the "Simplified Spelling Board" seems to have escaped notice in the *Nation* and elsewhere. So far as I know, the published list of members is merely nominal, the membership, as a whole at least, not having been consulted as to any acts of the board. It is a list of men who have expressed a general sympathy with such simplification of spelling as may be found practicable. The present writer, as a member of the board for a year or more, is responsible solely for a futile protest against the monstrous word "thru." This word, which finds no philologic defenders, has done much to impair the progress of the movement.

DAVID STARR JORDAN.
Stanford University, Cal., October 10.

RECENT BIBLICAL CRITICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read with much interest, in a recent issue of the *Nation*, a review of "James, the Lord's Brother." Will you kindly name some book which will give the conclusions of the best Bible criticism on the authorship and authenticity of the books of the Bible, their character and value as literature, and the attitude of modern scholarship and thought on the miracles of the Old and New Testaments, the Virgin Birth, the sonship of Jesus, the Resurrection, and all of those questions which have been the battleground for the controversy between Faith and Doubt? A. W. R.

Swainsboro, Ga., October 9.

It would hardly be possible to name any single volume which discusses with anything like thoroughness all of the questions suggested in the above letter. Possibly "The Use of the Scriptures in Theology" by William Newton Clarke (Charles Scribner's Sons) would be the nearest approach to it. Dr. Clarke's primary purpose is to exhibit the results of Biblical criticism in the construction of Christian doctrine, rather than to elucidate the criticism itself, but he conveys incidentally a considerable amount of reliable information as to the assured achievements of Biblical students, while to the general reader a fair and thoughtful presentation of the practical outcome of critical work is of distinct advantage.

For thorough study of the questions involved, both the "Encyclopædia Biblica" (4 vols., Macmillan & Co.) and the "Dictionary of the Bible" edited by Dr. Hastings (5 vols., Scribners) are indispensable. The former is the more radical, and in certain matters less trustworthy, but its articles are often of superior merit. Both of

these monumental works contain contributions on all important Biblical topics, and each is a library in itself. On Old Testament subjects the "Jewish Encyclopædia" (12 vols., Funk & Wagnalls) may be consulted to advantage. As to the authorship and authenticity of the several books of the New Testament, the recent "History of the Early Christian Literature" (Putnams) by Baron von Soden is of decided merit. Similar questions as to the Old Testament are considered in Canon Driver's "Introduction to the Literature of the Old Testament" (Scribners), and in less technical form in McFadyen's "Introduction to the Old Testament" (Armstrong & Son). For an insight into the higher criticism of the Old Testament and the best uses to which it can be put, there is still nothing better than the commentaries of Prof. George Adam Smith on Isaiah and the Twelve Prophets (2 vols each, Armstrong & Son). Paul Lobstein is the author of a treatise on "The Virgin Birth" (Putnams), and all subjects connected with the life and teaching of Christ find scholarly examination in Prof. Nathaniel Schmidt's "Prophet of Nazareth" (Macmillan & Co.), with which may be compared a book entitled "Jesus" by Professor Bousset (Putnams). The works of Weizsäcker (Putnams) and McGiffert (Scribners) on "The Apostolic Age" are two of the principal authorities on the work and writings of Paul. The literature of Biblical criticism is enormous, and in German is even more extensive than in English, and the books named must be taken as only a few of the more recent and important on the subjects indicated in the letter of A. W. R. For vigorous assertion of distinctive Christian faith in the face of criticism and with the modern attitude toward the miraculous, one might refer to Herrmann's "Communion of the Christian with God."

THE REVIEWER OF "JAMES, THE LORD'S BROTHER."

TEACHING LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial on "Teaching Literature" you seem to raise two questions: Can literature be taught? Is it worth teaching? Since the function of the teacher is to direct and assist students in their work, it seems clear that if literature can be studied, it can be taught; and also that if it is worth studying it is worth teaching. I would, therefore, shift the point of view from the teacher to the student, and ask, Can literature, especially English literature, be studied? and—since it unquestionably can be studied—Is it worth studying in college? Recalling the work I did in this subject at Harvard under Professor Child, I am convinced that nothing in the college curriculum is better worth studying.

Failure to get good returns results most often from directing the student's attention to the least important phases of the subject. History and criticism are all well enough, but they are not the main thing to be studied. If literature embodies the knowledge and wisdom of the human race—if it is, as Matthew Arnold called it, a "criticism of life"—then surely the thought expressed in literature should be the main object of study. The

important thing in studying an author is to find out, not when, where, why, or even how he wrote, but what he wrote. What is his thought? What message has he for mankind? This, as every student of literature knows, is no easy task. The teacher who directs such study will need a wide and exact knowledge of language and history, grammar and philology in their broadest sense. And the student of any really great author will find a task worthy of his best strength and effort.

But finding the meaning is not the whole of the student's task. This meaning must be "weighed and considered"—tested by the views of other writers, and by the student's own experiences until its truth or falsity is established—at least to the student's satisfaction. In this way, the thoughts expressed in literature become the student's own, and every truth accepted becomes a standard by which to try the conduct of life. Thus, character is developed and the true end of all liberal study is attained.

By this method of study, too, young persons learn to appreciate and love good literature. Appreciation is largely a matter of understanding. The school boy who tries to read a great piece of literature doesn't like it because he doesn't understand it—"doesn't see any sense to it." The teacher who has him study its grammatical or rhetorical qualities doesn't help him see the "sense to it." But the college student, somewhat more mature, will find out the sense and learn to love what before was mere "rubbish."

If the thought instead of the form, the soul instead of the body, of literature is to be studied, English literature would seem to have some inherent advantages for the English-speaking student, in that the language, the medium of expression, presents fewer difficulties. Every student of Latin or Greek knows how little attention is given in the classroom to the thought—how hazy the idea remains after the class translation. The minds of teacher and pupils alike are concentrated on the language. If a vague sense of the meaning is obtained, no use is made of it, and it is soon forgotten. The difficulties of getting the thought from a foreign language make such a result almost inevitable. In the study of English, however, no such hindrances are met with, and the thought naturally takes its rightful place in the student's mind.

True, English literature may be studied at home, especially a home of culture. So may calculus, but both would be studied at a great waste of time and strength. The teacher of English literature, who is worthy of his position, can give his students just as efficient help as the teacher of calculus can give his. Indeed, the services of the former are the more valuable, since from the nature of the subject taught his influence over the student is more potent and far-reaching.

From these and other considerations, I hold that it pays—and pays immensely—to teach English literature in colleges.

T. W. COWGILL.

Reno, Nevada, September 28.

Notes.

The "Reminiscences" of W. M. Rossetti have just been issued in London, and will no doubt soon be on the New York market. The two volumes are said to contain a full account of the Rossetti family and of the Pre-Raphaelite movement.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will soon publish "Fighting the Polar Ice," by Anthony Fiala; "Old New England Churches," by Mrs. Dolores Bacon; and "Glimpses of Italian Court Life," by Mrs. Tryphosa Bates Batcheller.

Bertram Dobell is about to complete his "Catalogue of Privately Printed Books," of which the first part was issued in 1891, and the second and third parts in the two following years. About 2,500 books will be described in the completed catalogue.

The Neale Publishing Co. has about ready "A History of Southern Literature," by Carl Holliday, Instructor in English in the University of Virginia. This book, which extends to nearly 500 pages, discusses the literature of the South as divided into six periods, the first from 1607 to 1676, the last from 1875 to 1905. Other books on the list of the Neale Co. are "Richard Hickman Menefee," by J. W. Townsend; "The Life of Doctor Samuel A. Mudd," edited by his daughter; "The Life of General Hugh Mercer," by Judge J. T. Goodrick, and "Morgan's Cavalry," by Gen. Basil W. Duke.

Yamanaka & Co. are preparing a volume by Kumasaku Tometa and G. Ambrose Lee to be called "Japanese Treasure Tales." It is to be a selection of Japanese stories which have been used frequently for illustration by Eastern artists and will be illustrated by reproductions from sword-guards.

James T. White & Co. are about to publish "A Conspectus of American History," which is described as "an exhaustive analysis of the entire subject of American biography."

Mitchell Kennerley is a late-comer in the publishing field, but he has already turned out several volumes of a distinctly pleasing character. His latest book, which we announced some time ago, is "Anactoria and Other Lyrical Poems" of Swinburne. Harper & Bros. also have a volume of Swinburne's "Selected Lyrical Poems," which includes his "Laus Veneris."

An illustrated edition of Edmund Gosse's "A Short History of English Literature" will be published by the Frederick A. Stokes Company.

To Crowell's Handy Volume Classics are now added Longfellow's "Tales of a Wayside Inn," with an Introduction by Nathan Haskell Dole; Lowell's "Fireside Travels," with Introduction by William P. Trent; Swinburne's "Poems," selected and edited by Arthur Beaty; Thoreau's "Maine Woods," with Introduction by Annie R. Marble, and Thoreau's "Excursions."

The Macmillan Co. has a new edition of the late George Birkbeck Hill's "Harvard College by an Oxonian."

Dr. C. T. Stockwell's "Evolution of Immortality" is issued in a fourth edition, revised and extended, by the James H. West Company of Boston.

The third volume of Putnam's excellent Knutsford edition of Mrs. Gaskell's works contains "Ruth." Dr. A. W. Ward furnishes the Introduction to this as to the other volumes.

A delightful little toy book is Houghton, Mifflin & Company's edition of "The Diverting History of John Gilpin," embellished with woodcuts by Robert Seaver. The pictures are quite in the vein of the poem.

A biography of Mrs. Craigie is to be published by T. Fisher Unwin. Any letters or other material relating to her life will be of service in preparing the work.

The last half-volume of the *Journal of the American Oriental Society* contains the translation, by Dr. L. H. Gray, of a Sanskrit drama (hitherto unpublished), and among other special papers a timely one embodying the recent decrees of the Chinese emperor, a translation of these in full being given by Dr. J. C. Ferguson. The vexed question of temple libraries in Babylon receives fresh treatment at the hands of Prof. Morris Jastrow, and Prof. D. C. Lyon contributes a study of the origin of the Hammurabi code.

Prof. Albert Schinz of Bryn Mawr contributes to the April-June number of the *Revue d'Histoire Littéraire de la France* a notable paper on the MS. of the first draft of Rousseau's "Confessions," preserved in the library of Neuchâtel. The writer's main endeavor, in which he appears to us to have been as successful as he is candid, is to show that the "Confessions," originally prompted by Rousseau's publisher, Rey, before "Émile" had seen the light and ushered in the height of persecution for its author, was begun in a spirit of scientific psychologizing, with a view to the frank revelation of the spiritual development of one man in connection with his career; and that when the early portion was taken up for revision at Wootton, the idea of an apologia entered in, and more or less definitely and consciously shaped the remainder. Professor Schinz's discussion embraces a careful comparison of the first and final drafts, with typical illustrations, and is rendered highly valuable by the textual reproduction of the original passage relating to the corporal punishment inflicted by Mlle. Lambertier on the lad of nine; of that regarding the famous ribbon theft; and, especially, of the discarded Introduction to the first draft. This feature makes the article one needful to be within reach of every student of Rousseau.

The second volume of the Report on American Manuscripts in the Royal Institution of Great Britain covers the period from August, 1779, to June, 1782. The last pages deal with Rodney's victory over De Grasse, but the fate of the War of Independence had already been decided. Among the interesting matters in this volume are papers relating to Capt. Spry and his accounts for works constructed on St. John's Island. There are also communications from Sir Henry Clinton to Washington in regard to Major André. When Sir Henry failed to save André's life, he did his best for André's memory, as we see from an account presented by James Rivington, of which the details are given in this volume. This account included £75 for the printing of 1,000 copies of a book entitled "Observa-

tions Upon the Trial and Execution of Major André, with the Whole Trial at Large," for distribution without the lines.

An edition of Edward Rowland Sill's Poems in a single inexpensive volume has long been a desideratum, and this want Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have now supplied. The compiler, William Belmont Parker, has arranged the poems as nearly as possible in their chronological order, and has enlarged the collection so as to include all of Sill's writings it is thought desirable to preserve. There may be some question about the additions, for in the case of a minor poet the half is commonly better than the whole; there certainly can be no intelligent question about the illustrations, which were far better omitted. However, the book is here, a thing to be properly grateful for, and he who wishes may enjoy the true and sweet poetic vein of one who in many ways may be regarded as a New England Lanier. There is in the work of both the same incompleteness, at times amateurishness, the same feeling of five powers never quite brought to maturity. Lanier now and then struck a higher, more piercing note than Sill, and he has the advantage of standing first in his own school, whereas Sill is dwarfed by insistent comparison with Emerson, Longfellow, and the others to whom he forms a kind of pendant. Sill's best-known poem is "The Fool's Prayer," which Professor Royce years ago started on the way to fame by quoting it in "The Spirit of Modern Philosophy." And the mood of that ballad shows Sill at his best. A few of his seriously planned poems—"The Venus of Milo" and "In Memory of a Musician," to name two that occur to the mind—are successful, but more often they seem but an echo of what we have already heard elsewhere. He is more himself and more satisfactory when, as in "The Fool's Prayer," we find a touch of easy *insouciance*. In his later years he began to indulge in what might be called a cross between transcendentalism and the humorous irony of *vers de société*. The result, quite charming in its way, may be seen at a glance by comparing "His Lost Day" and "Living" with Emerson's "Days."

It may not be possible to place Thomas Traherne quite so high among the religious poets of the seventeenth century as his discoverer and publisher, Bertram Dobell, would wish. Something, no doubt, must be allowed to the ardor of a literary explorer who suddenly comes upon a long-forgotten treasure. But for all that, these poetical works, which Mr. Dobell now offers in more accessible form, have a real interest of their own apart from their historical value as illustrative of the tradition which formed Vaughan, Crashaw, and Wither. One at least of Traherne's poems, "On News," has found a place in Mr. Quiller-Couch's "Oxford Book of English Verse," and it by no means stands above the general average of his excellence. But we confess that what interests us most in the present edition is the announcement in the Introduction that Mr. Dobell intends soon to bring out Traherne's "Centuries of Meditation." From the specimens given of these autobiographic and reflective paragraphs it would appear that Traherne was more accomplished in prose than in verse. Nor does Mr. Dobell's claim for him seem ex-

travagant, that in many ways he was in his ideas a curious forerunner of Blake and Wordsworth. It is most earnestly to be desired that the "Centuries" will receive such a welcome as to induce Mr. Dobell to add to his benefactions a reprint of Traherne's "Christian Ethicks." We confess never to have seen that rare book, but Mr. Dobell's generous quotations are sufficient to prove that "it is a work full of eloquence, persuasiveness, sagacity, and piety."

The inclusion of the Apostles' Creed in the "Book of Common Worship" prepared recently for use in Presbyterian churches is doubtless responsible for the brief in favor of the liturgical use of that symbol, entitled "The Apostles' Creed in Modern Worship," by the Rev. Dr. William R. Richards, pastor of the Brick Presbyterian Church of this city (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). Dr. Richards says that he was led to favor the creed through the "wish that there might be some great hymn of the church (to be said, not sung, for not all can sing), a hymn hallowed by age, and still the vehicle of man's present and living convictions, through which we all, adding our voices to the countless hosts of those who have gone before, might gratefully speak out our confessions to the world." He finds such a hymn in the briefest and most ancient of the Christian creeds, and remarks that it has grown in popular favor while other more weighty symbols, despite the authority of great communions, have passed into disuse. The reasons for this popularity he discovers in its definite historic and personal quality, its emphasis on devotion to the founder of the Christian religion. Some of the objections to the general use of the symbol are declared to be due to misunderstandings, which Dr. Richards endeavors to clear away; other considerations against its adoption in worship are said to be so slight as to be negligible. The author himself, though sympathetic with the doubting frame of mind, has no difficulty with any article of the creed, for he finds comfort in the assurance that Christ "descended into hell," and declares of the Virgin Birth, "This dear faith of the Church about the birth of Jesus seems to me most rational as a statement of historic fact." The book may be considered to represent the best that can be said in favor of the adoption of the creed by non-liturgical communions, though it by no means answers the objections raised against its use in the controversies over it in England and Germany.

One of the intellectual signs of the times in Mexico is the interest in Mexican history, shown by the great number of recent publications, particularly publications dealing with the history of the last century. A series of documents hitherto unpublished or rare, an enterprise sustained by subscription, has in two years reached its eighth small octavo volume. Some of these volumes are of direct value to the historian of the United States, as well as to the student of the history of Mexico proper. Such are the reminiscences of Gen. Santa Anna ("Mi historia militar y política, 1810-1874." By Antonio Lopez de Santa-Anna. Mexico. Librería de la Vda. de Ch. Bouret.) The volume is taken from a copy of the autographic memoirs concluded by Santa Anna while he was at Nassau in 1874, accompanied by the manifestos

and some correspondence of Santa Anna in 1864 and 1865, during the French intervention and government of Maximilian. Santa Anna gives his own account of his campaign in Texas and his capture at San Jacinto, as also of the political intrigues at Mexico City during the war with the United States. In a personal sense the most interesting parts of the memoirs are the concluding chapters, wherein Santa Anna tells of Secretary Seward's visit to St. Thomas and call upon him in 1865, of the schemers who beguiled him into a visit to the United States in 1866, and of his seizure by Juarez's orders at Vera Cruz. For a proper understanding of the internal state of Mexico during the war with the United States, much more, and vastly more accurate, information is to be obtained from another volume of this series, comprising letters written during 1845-1847 by José Fernando Ramirez, one of the moderates in politics at that time, who served for a short time as Secretary of Foreign Affairs at the beginning of 1847 ("México durante su guerra con los Estados Unidos": Mexico. Librería de la Vda. de Ch. Bouret). The comments passed in these confidential letters upon the Mexican politicians of the time, upon the state of society, and upon the evidences that representative government in Mexico was up to that time a failure, are those of a keen if pessimistic observer. The most interesting letter in the book is a frank one addressed to Gen. Santa Anna in June, 1846, setting forth the impossibility of reconquering Texas from the Texans, and likewise of resisting the United States if that nation should absorb Texas.

"Die Stadt des Lebens," written by one of the most gifted and popular of German authors, Isolde Kurz, and published by Cotta in Stuttgart, contains authentic and vivid descriptions of prominent persons and events in Florence during the period of the renaissance, extending from the middle of the fifteenth to the end of the sixteenth century. The volume begins with Lorenzo de' Medici, and closes with the romantic career of Bianca Cappello, giving a just appreciation of the brilliant traits as well as the less admirable qualities of this remarkable woman. Equally frank and fascinating is the story of the Bella Simonetta, whose loveliness was celebrated by famous contemporary poets and painters and even inspired Lorenzo the Magnificent to indite sonnets. The book gives an excellent historical survey of the revival and development of the arts and intellectual culture in which Florence took the leading part. The illustrations are fifteen portraits of the principal characters.

Fragments of documents of the highest importance for the history of the Athenian drama, preserved on pieces of Greek inscriptions of which some were cut about the middle of the fourth century, B. C., and some in later centuries, have recently been published with careful revision by Prof. Adolf Wilhelm of Vienna, the most brilliant and learned of living epigraphists ("Urkunden dramatischer Aufführungen in Athen," Vienna, 1906). These documents consist chiefly of lists of victors in the lyric and dramatic contests. In one set of records, further information is given, and the first preserved fragment testifies that in

472 B. C., Pericles acted as *choregus*, i. e., undertook the expense of providing the chorus for the "Persians" of Æschylus—the one great historical play which has come down from antiquity, and a play of special interest since its subject is the battle of Salamis, in which the poet himself had taken part less than eight years previously. While the name of Æschylus is on the first preserved fragment, an ingenious combination of arguments proves that eight poets at Athens had won victories in the tragic contests before him. This agrees fairly well with the traditional statement that tragedy was introduced formally and officially, at Athens, in 535 B. C., and that the first victory of Æschylus was in 484 B. C. When these inscriptions with regard to the dramatic contests at Athens were first published, scholars were inclined to suppose that they were the original records, from which Aristotle derived his information for his works on the presentation of dramas and on dramatic victories, but now the truth seems to be that two of these lists were based on his researches, while another was independent. Wilhelm's book contains many notable examples of certain information secured from but a few letters on a fragment of stone. The volume contains also elucidations of the lists of victors by the lamented Kaibel. Perhaps no other scholar is named in the work more frequently and courteously than Professor Capps of Chicago, who has done more than any other American for the exploration of this field. Scholars will be glad to have so authoritative a presentation of the subject, and will welcome the new light which Wilhelm throws upon a complicated and difficult matter. The book is not intended for beginners. The latest (October) number of *Classical Philology* contains an interesting article on one part of the subject by Professor Körte of Giessen.

"In these chambers died Oliver Goldsmith," is an inscription which the Benchers of the Middle Temple have placed on the wall of the room in Brick Court in which Goldsmith breathed his last. This memorial—of red granite and bronze—designed by Percy Fitzgerald, contains also the poet's likeness.

Prof. Oscar Levertin, who died in Stockholm on the 22d of September after only a few days' illness, at the age of forty-four years, was one of the notable figures in Swedish literature. He began his literary career in the early eighties, while still a student at the University of Upsala, and took a prominent part in the work of the young realistic school that grew up round August Strindberg. Beginning as a novelist, he soon abandoned temporarily prose for poetry, in which he rose to eminence; his latest poetical production, "Salomo and Morolf," a passionate and sombre epic, published a year ago, is already spoken of as a classic. As an essayist, Levertin was easily the first among contemporary Swedish writers, and as literary and art historian he occupies a very prominent place. Connected with the University of Stockholm since 1893, the last seven years as full professor, he drew large audiences to his lectures. His publisher, K. O. Bonnier, is quoted to the effect that he left material for six or seven volumes of belles-lettres and criticism, besides the large work on Linné, on which he was at work at the time of his death.

The annual report of Dr. John Shaw Billings, the director of the New York Public Library, is a document of more than local interest. Dr. Billings makes this summary of the work for the year ending June 30, 1906:

In the reference branches, readers and visitors numbered 216,428; 173,223 desk applicants consulted 778,652 volumes (corresponding figures for 1904-5 being 159,695 desk applicants and 615,454 volumes); 58,887 volumes and 121,332 pamphlets were received; 26,966 volumes and 8,913 pamphlets were accessioned, making the total number available for readers 684,512 volumes and 265,461 pamphlets, a total of 949,973 pieces in the reference department, which, with the 565,482 volumes in the circulation department, give a total of 1,515,455 pieces in the whole library. The print department now contains 56,835 prints; there has been little increase in the music, map, or manuscript departments. There were catalogued 33,865 volumes and 36,062 pamphlets; the number of cards written was 106,124, of slips for the copying machine, 33,161; the public catalogues in the Astor and Lenox reading-rooms contain now 1,321,600 cards; the official catalogues at these two buildings contain 936,419 cards; 1,664 periodicals are indexed number by number, for which 15,832 cards or printer's slips were written. Periodicals currently received amount to 6,053; readers of periodicals at the Astor branch number 30,551, and these readers called for 234,612 single numbers or pieces.

In the circulation department, the number of branches has increased from 31 to 35, volumes in the department from 476,597 to 565,482, circulation for home use from 3,691,500 to 4,752,628; 7 Carnegie branches have been opened (a total of 18); 1 is ready for opening, 5 have buildings under way, 3 have plans preparing; 3 new sites have been secured, making a total of 27 sites available for, or occupied by, Carnegie branches.

The library of the late Richard B. Sinton of Richmond will be offered at auction by the Merwin-Clayton Sales Company of this city October 24-26. It contains many books on Virginia, including some rare items.

The forty-fourth annual convocation of the University of the State of New York will be held in the Capitol at Albany, October 25, 26, and 27. The principal speakers are: Elmer E. Brown, recently appointed commissioner of education for the United States; Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University; the Right Rev. Monsignor Lavelle of New York city; George E. Merrill, president of Colgate University; George K. Hawkins, principal of the Plattsburgh Normal School; James J. Sheppard, principal of the High School of Commerce, New York city; Charles D. Larkins, principal of the Manual Training High School, New York city. On Friday morning Andrew S. Draper, the commissioner of Education, will address the convocation on the subject of examinations and academic funds. There will be a dinner on Friday evening, October 26, in conjunction with the annual dinner of the Hudson River Schoolmasters' Club.

The German Government expends the handsome sum of half a million marks per annum for the support of 970 German schools on the five continents of the globe. In non-German countries of Europe there are 96 of these schools, with a teaching force of 535 German instructors and 10,290 pupils; of the latter 64 per cent. are Germans. These schools are found scattered over all Europe, only Austria and Switzerland being exceptions. The United States also has no schools of this charac-

ter, but Central America has 3, with 18 teachers and 330 pupils; while South America has no fewer than 738 schools, with 1,090 teachers and 30,440 pupils. Here the percentage of German pupils is 87. Africa, although the seat of the German colonies, has only 43 establishments, with 127 teachers and 2,725 pupils; Asia, 18, 100 teachers, and 1,105 pupils; while Australia has 77 schools, 89 teachers, and 2,620 pupils.

We have before us the composition of a kindergarten schoolgirl of nine, consisting of sixty-seven words. There are nine instances of misspelling, two being "tale" for "tail" and "hare" for "hair," and one "biles" for "bells." On the other hand, the writer successfully coped with "thought" (as much in need of "simplification" as the proscribed "though" of the reformers), "children" and "fingers." These longer words must have been visualized or memorized; the monosyllabic failures were phonetic, as was "bonot" for "bonnet." This demonstrates what is a fact of common observation, that children and illiterate adults spell with incalculable indifference to the seeming "hardness" of our English orthography, and hit the mark with the eye where they miss it with the ear. An analogous state of things is to be remarked in the spoken vocabulary of the unlearned, which is full of surprises.

LITERARY BIOGRAPHY.

George Herbert and His Times. By A. G. Hyde. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.75.

Thanks to the beautiful life by Izaak Walton, and to the self-revelations in his own verse and prose, George Herbert is one of the most distinct and attractive personalities of the seventeenth century. Shorthouse, who wrote an Introduction for "The Temple," was much drawn to Herbert, and undoubtedly had him definitely in mind when forming the character of John Inglesant. The finely wrought description of the life of the Ferrars at Little Gidding in the same book has not only stamped on the general memory a picture of one of the main influences that shaped Herbert's career, but has also thrown an atmosphere of reality about the whole religious movement in which our poet played a part—such is the power of fiction. In coming to this theme Mr. Hyde has nothing new to add to our knowledge of Herbert's life or surroundings. But he has a cultivated style, is well read in the general field, and from common sources has put together a thoroughly entertaining volume.

It is proper to add, however, that in the matter of style his work is not free from the epithetic padding which almost always mars these books in which the purpose to be entertaining and "literary" openly predominates. Why, for example, after the work has already been alluded to several times, is it necessary to say "Grosart's large edition of Herbert's writings"? Or why, when Quarles is named, must he be characterized as "the well-known author, etc."? This *soft style* is the mark of a whole group of modern books to which Mr. Hyde's biography belongs. And, again, in the matter of reading it is evident that

Mr. Hyde is unacquainted with Professor Palmer's recent edition of Herbert's English Works. With those volumes before him he would have been spared from quoting, "At first thou gave" for *gav'st*; and he would surely have added certain essential considerations to his critical chapters. He does not seem aware of the fact that the date when Herbert became deacon, July 5, 1626, has been finally determined, and he misdates Herbert's ordination as priest.

There is, too, as is to be expected in the *genre*, a certain amount of beating about to find material which may excusably be called illustrative. But in the present case the result has been somewhat happier than usual. In particular, the account of life at Westminster School is acceptable, and shows from what stern discipline the best flowers of literature spring. The later experience of Coleridge and Lamb is a better known example, but the requirements at Christ's Hospital in the eighteenth century were mild in comparison with the rigor at old Westminster. Mr. Hyde has at his service also a chapter on Little Gidding, which ought to be read in connection with the corresponding chapter in "John Inglesant." Nor is a sketch of Donne's life entirely superfluous, in consideration of the great influence of Donne's poetry on the work of the younger man. On the whole, the narrative is entertainingly put together, and in summing up Herbert's character Mr. Hyde takes a middle ground between Professor Palmer's unjustifiable denial to Herbert of the epithet "holy" and the contrary view of him as a man totally withdrawn from the world. No better specimen of the book could be chosen than this paragraph from the "Conclusion":

His character, as presented by his more intimate writings, is that of a man of strong intellect and high ambitions, by no means unworldly or without human passions, perfected and humanised by disappointment, suffering, and self-subjection. With him the note of conflict, of perpetual warfare against natural bias and inclination, is everywhere present; he is the most militant, if not the most combative, of saints. And herein lies the seeming paradox of the association of his name with things of beauty, rest, and peace—with the quiet of country churchyards, the freshness of summer skies and mornings, the solemn stillness of the chancel and the altar. It is, however, the familiar paradox of the natural world. We do not perceive or understand the price paid for the apparent repose of Nature; that what seems to us an inert, effortless calm, is really the resultant of a thousand active forces; that our dreaming planet moves in a very whirlpool of dust and broken fragments of the cosmos; and that the peace of our fields, in more senses than one, is the outcome of "battles long ago."

The weakest part of the book, as in most books of the class, is that which pretends to deal with criticism. Donne's life is given at length, but the relation of Donne's poetry to Herbert's is left in the vague. There is no attempt to analyze Herbert's transference of the Elizabethan amorous style to religious use. There is no adequate comparison of Herbert with Crashaw, Vaughan, and the other religious poets of the day. There is, in short, practically no criticism except of the most amateurish sort. Mr. Hyde quotes at length the "Sweet Day, so cool, so calm, so bright," and comments thus: "It is, of course, an imperfect poem: some of the conceits are distinctly

unpoetical, and some of the words and phrases now out of date; but of its kind it is an imperishable gem, alike above criticism and praise." Where are the flaws? and why, one asks, is an imperfect and partly unpoetical poem above criticism? A little less condescension and a little more precision would be becoming in one who undertakes to criticise.

The Life of Alfred de Musset. By Arvède Barine. Done into English by Charles Connor Hayden. Printed for Subscribers Only by Edwin C. Hill Co.

What a volume of the plain and business-like *Grands Écrivains Français* is doing in this sumptuous and unrecognizable disguise—large paper, wide margins, uncut edges, and the like—is a mystery. The original is some thirteen years old by this time; and the curiosity which has produced the translation, seems as tardy as dilettante. Perhaps the solution of the puzzle is to be found in the reputation and character of the poet; for the biography is by no means one of the best of the series. The account of the liaison with George Sand, on which his life turns and which might prove an attraction for the desultory reader, is anything but satisfactory from any point of view. It is written in a semi-metaphysical, a sort of erotico-psychological vein, which serves but to muddle a set of facts that have to gain only by plain statement or complete oblivion. Nor is the translation itself, though well enough in general, such a masterpiece of English as to merit a setting quite so luxurious. In particular, it seems a decided mistake for the ordinary hand to try to render a poet in verse.

"Of hope I cannot sing,
Nor glory nor of bliss,
Nor yet of suffering.
The mouth a silent thing
To hear the heart, I wis."

This is what becomes of "La Nuit de Mai." But de Musset himself is the kind of writer who has a very particular attraction for the amateur of life and letters. His own literary nonchalance, his devotion to pleasure, his airs of gentility and knowingness, his brilliant youth, his absorption in an illusory and impossible passion, his final disenchantment and collapse—these features of his brief spasmodic being are naturally fitted to arrest the curious; while to the young and romantic—and the amateur is incurably a little of both—he is as good a subject for a cult as he ever was.

BOOKS ABOUT SHAKSPERE.

Dr. Harold de Wolf Fuller's monograph on "Romeo and Juliette," reprinted from *Modern Philology*, is one of the most notable of recent contributions to Shaksperian scholarship. It is based upon an examination of an obscure Dutch play written by Jacob Struijs about 1630. From a comparison of this drama with Shakspeare's tragedy and the earlier versions of the story Dr. Fuller finds (1) that large portions of the Dutch play go back to Boaistuau, or some translator of his French version; (2) that one significant incident finds its counterpart only in Brooke's English poem; (3) that Struijs and Shakspeare

have many points of agreement not found in any other author. Recalling Brooke's statement that he had seen the story on the stage, Dr. Fuller concludes that the Dutch version is derived from this lost English play, and that the agreements between Struijs and Shakspeare are due to Shakspeare having used the same source. By making allowances for the characteristically Dutch elements in Struijs and subtracting these, he presents the residue of the Dutch play as a plausible approximation to Shakspeare's immediate source. The argument is worked out with ingenuity and moderation, and though the conclusion hardly admits of mathematical demonstration, the author has brought it to a degree of probability which gives it a right to be regarded as the most likely hypothesis so far advanced.

The Poet Lore Company of Boston has issued a volume by Dr. F. W. Kilbourne on "Alterations and Adaptations of Shakspeare." The book consists of a series of descriptions of the various acting and operatic versions of Shakspeare's plays, from the Restoration to the beginning of the nineteenth century, with a general discussion of the literary tendencies displayed in these adaptations. The list includes nearly ninety different alterations, all of them bad, in the opinion of the critic. Of the thirty-seven plays of Shakspeare, only three—"I. Henry VI.," "Henry VIII.," and "Othello"—seem to have escaped the presumptuous attempts at improvement of the theatrical hacks of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The only cheerful element in this necessarily somewhat dismal treatise is the indication of the growth of reverence for the text of Shakspeare in more modern times.

Sidney Lee has reprinted through the Oxford University Press his article in the *Library*, "Notes and Additions to the Census of Copies of the Shakspeare First Folio." He takes occasion to make a few corrections of the Census compiled by him for the Oxford facsimile of the First Folio, and describes fourteen copies which have come under his notice since 1902. The total of known extant copies now stands at 172. Some interesting statistics are given as to the geographical distribution of these copies, the most significant fact being the steady migration to America. At present there are known to be on this side of the Atlantic sixty-two copies, as against one hundred and five in England; and Mr. Lee estimates that by the end of the next twenty-five years this ratio may be reversed. Last year saw the highest price yet reached in the history of Shakspeare Folio collecting, when Marsden J. Perry of Providence paid ten thousand pounds for a set of the four Folios. Of this sum Mr. Lee reckons that the copy of the First Folio must be assigned about three-fifths, or \$30,000. The largest number of copies known to have been owned by a single collector is now in the possession of H. C. Folger, jr., of Brooklyn, who has so far accumulated eight.

"Where Shakspeare Set his Stage," by Elise Lathrop (James Pott & Co.), is a pretty picture book. It is difficult to find justification for further commendation. The text professes to describe for twelve plays the localities in which Shakspeare laid his scenes, and the personal appear-

ance and general characteristics of the chief personages, to determine the exact period of the actions, and to mention the sources of the plots. The work is based upon personal visits to the supposed scenes, and upon what appear to be second and third-hand authorities. The statements as to sources are singularly untrustworthy, and the places described have often no real relation even to the nominal scene at the time of the action, and were rarely such as were pictured either by Shakspeare or by his audience. No harm will be done to readers who confine themselves to the illustrations, but the letterpress is capable of conveying many misleading ideas to uninformed youth.

STUDIES IN HISTORY.

In Olde Connecticut. Being a record of quaint, curious and romantic Happenings there in Colonie Times and later. By Charles Burr Todd. (The Grafton Historical Series, edited by Henry B. Stiles.) New York: The Grafton Press. \$1.25 net.

Historical Towns of the Connecticut River Valley. By George S. Roberts. Illustrated. Schenectady, N. Y.: Robson & Adeed.

The Connecticut River and the Valley of the Connecticut. Three hundred and Fifty Miles from Mountain to Sea. Historical and descriptive. By Edwin M. Bacon. Illustrated. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3.50 net.

Amid the many recent books devoted to the history and descriptive topography of New England, Connecticut and the river and valley bearing its name have no reason to feel neglected. Fast on the heels of Adams's portly two-volume history of Wethersfield, come three more books, all of interest—two of them covering identical ground, but so unlike in treatment that they call for somewhat careful examination.

Although Mr. Todd's volume is the first of a series, the purpose of which as stated by the general editor is "to collect and combine into a coherent whole these varied historical data," the impression grows, in looking over his pages, that the number of books producible through such methods might easily become illimitable. An easy and unconcerned stroll through several Connecticut towns, where traditions are richest, a few admirable anecdotes and historical reminiscences, with quotations from not unfamiliar sources—such is the spirit of these two hundred and fifty readable pages. An effect of incongruity and amiable purposelessness is heightened by the fact that several of these papers—all of which were originally contributed in a disconnected way to various journals—were written some years ago. The chapter, for instance, on the beginnings of a great railroad (the New York, New Haven and Hartford) dwells insistently on the circumstance that the year 1832, when opposition to the charter of the new enterprise began, was only fifty years ago. Severe self-editing would have removed this and several other like obstructions to the generally even course of some agreeable wanderings through Fairfield, Saybrook, Killingworth, New London, Groton, Lebanon, Litchfield, East Grauby, and other places, all of them

flavored with an excellent antiquity. Some of the chapters are distinctly padded with matter presenting no fresh historical suggestions, and offering no especial reason for their presentation. Such a chapter is "Connecticut's Declaration of Independence." Mr. Todd allows his passion for romantic appreciation to carry him back too far. All old books are to him ponderous and worn-eaten tomes, the early writers all ancient chroniclers, and the settlers are stern-browed.

Good stuff is the paper on the Whaleboat Privateersmen on the Sound, which has the promise of a volume in its few pages. Although "Mining in Connecticut" has some of the familiar phraseology of a twentieth century copper prospectus, there is not a page too much of the excellent description of the old revolutionary Newgate at Simsbury (near East Granby), converted from an abandoned copper mine into a prison, and long ago forsaken. The mysterious "Moodus noises" at Mt. Tom near East Haddam are more hinted at than described; the subject would have borne a fuller exposition. Mr. Bacon and Mr. Roberts in their books also fail to do justice to the once awesome phenomena of Moodus. Mr. Todd in truth has, not without adroitness, let his readers stop far short of satiety. It is all pleasing to read, but wants the importance of coherent narrative working toward some definite result—a book for the fireside and not for the historian's shelves.

Such a work as Mr. Roberts's "Historical Towns of the Connecticut River Valley" would be more usable, though possibly not so attractive, were it frankly built on more strictly cyclopedic lines. Its wealth consists mostly in the assemblage of anecdotes, and of certain of the vital historical facts appertaining to each of the towns, from Saybrook at the mouth of the river to Windsor, Vt., far from the head. Lancaster and Hanover above Windsor he omits altogether. It is not a book to read through like Mr. Bacon's, for it has only a topographical continuity without historical consistency. The mind does not jump contentedly from town to town, glancing here at a list of the early settlers, there at some local tradition, however charming, but gaining meanwhile no sequential effect of the development, social, political, or historical, of the whole valley. For this reason the cyclopedic or dictionary method would have brought out the distinctive features of this book more clearly. As it is, such a complicated story as the land grant difficulties in New Hampshire and Vermont, has to be distributed among the various towns mentioned by Mr. Roberts, whereas a clear and separate consideration of this important historical phase is given in Mr. Bacon's book. Praise is due the author, however, for what he has done toward preserving a multitude of ancient and passing anecdotes and legends, remembered by few, if at all, and losing accuracy, if not flavor, with each generation. In this respect his contribution to the minutest New England historical lore is richer than that furnished by Mr. Bacon, who evidently has been restrained by the limitation of space, yet is plainly as fond of his anecdote and ancient tale as the other chronicler.

The illustrations furnished by Mr. Rob-

erts are charming, and fortunately do not conflict with the embellishments in the other work, since they reveal more fully the detail of localities—old buildings, trees, monuments, interiors, even gravestones, household ware, and personal effects. All these illustrations are from photographs by W. Earl Weller, who has levelled his camera with the eye of a sympathetic historian.

The index confines itself too closely to names and omits many places and subjects; no references, for instance, are to be found to mines and mining—an essential and important feature of the valley's early history; nor are there any references to ferries, steamboats, railroads, or canals—all contributory factors to the evolving civilization of earlier days on the river, and touched upon incidentally throughout the volume. A more analytic index would have greatly relieved the congestion of the text, and served to reveal its riches.

By far the most important of this trio of books is Edwin M. Bacon's "The Connecticut River and the Valley of the Connecticut," a volume of some magnificence in its broad measures of type and numerous half-tones, illustrating the sweep of the fair stream for three hundred and fifty miles. As fond as Mr. Todd of the ancient tomes, or the owl in the coping, or our stern-browed ancestry—as saturated with local anecdote and tradition as Mr. Roberts, Mr. Bacon puts a masterly restraint upon his predilections. The proportions of the long stretch have been duly considered, and the narrative, not unlike the river which it portrays, runs consistently, though compressed within brimming pages, from cover to cover—a happy concurrence of literary ease and historical severity. Not content with stopping long enough to cover the requirements of each locality, Mr. Bacon has managed to bring these striking autonomies—of the various Connecticut sentiments—into a sort of homogeneity without doing violence to the individuality of each; while all is dominated by the central motive of the "Beautiful River"—President Timothy Dwight's own appellation—itsself. The differing attitude of the two books is well seen in their dealings with such a town as Wethersfield, Conn. Mr. Bacon devotes to it a scant three pages, and Mr. Roberts nineteen, inclusive of some vivid illustrations. Mr. Bacon seizes the two features of the town most salient to his historical perception—its aforesaid reputation for the culture of onions, and the Webb and Deane houses, in both of which Washington had been a guest, and the latter of which was the home of Silas Deane, Wethersfield's best known but not most honored son. Mr. Roberts, ignoring Deane, tells without hesitation of the first setting of a white woman's foot at this place on Connecticut soil, although the story has been held to be apocryphal. Mr. Roberts has also devoted three pages to the suicide, preceded by the murder of his wife and four children, in 1782, of one Beadle—a tragedy wisely forgotten when there are better things to commemorate.

We have dwelt upon the point of view held by each of these well instructed writers, not for the purpose of finding fault with either, but to show how rich and still unexhausted is the historical soil which

they have in diverse manner sought to till. Each book has its place, and was worth the doing. Mr. Roberts will appeal more to those who sprang from one or other of these rare New England spots, and who share his enthusiasm; while Mr. Bacon provides a more liberal feast for those who read fast and widely, and are grateful for so much mental food without danger of surfeit: a painstaking, but rapid survey of the Dutch occupation, the pioneer settlements and forts, the terrible Indian warfares, with their incredible exposures and "captivities," the story of the upper valley land grants, the foundation of Dartmouth College, and strategic formation of Vermont; then the river as a means of transportation and navigation; and lastly, a careful topography of the stream and its natural bounds. It is a notable story, picturesquely and feelingly told.

One observation arising from the perusal of the two larger books, for Mr. Todd's work is of another class, calls for expression. Although the present aspect and development of places like Springfield and Hartford receive some careful attention, yet it is noticeable that both Mr. Bacon and Mr. Roberts have found the past so alluring and have confined themselves so largely to it, that they seem to have ignored the actualities of the life that now is in these river communities. It is a fault to be generously dealt with in historians whose ways are ways of pleasantness.

Le Origini del Risorgimento Italiano (1789-1815). By Francesco Lemmi. Milan: Hoepli. (Lire 6.50.)

This is the latest volume in the excellent *Collezione Storica Villari*—a series which serves as a monument to the influence of Prof. Pasquale Villari, Italy's foremost historian in recent times. It covers important ground in a way which will be, for the general reader, at least, more satisfactory than that of either Cantù or Tivaroni. Signor Lemmi tells a plain tale, without rhetorical embellishment, and without passion. To be able to make such a tale plain is the best proof of his ability.

In an introductory chapter, he gives a description of the reform movement which, about the middle of the eighteenth century, unquestionably improved the condition of the Italians, but he is right in declaring that Joseph II., Leopold, and the other benevolent despots had solely in view the strengthening of their own power. If they stiffly resented the meddling of the Church in matters of state, if they aimed at making their subjects more prosperous and contented, if they furnished a mild and enlightened administration, it was because they hoped thereby to strengthen their own dominion. In politics, as in personal conduct, the motive often counts for more than the act; so these apparently liberal acts of the despots had no liberal motive, and they were not conscious steps on the road to representative government. On the contrary, by making the Italians more contented with their rulers, they tended to prolong the political enervation of Italy.

The great impulse came from outside—from the French Revolution; but even that, if it had remained on the outside,

might have failed to arouse the Peninsula. Fortunately for the Italians, the French were bent on forcing their political principles upon the rest of Europe. Bonaparte crossed the Alps, primarily to oust the Austrians; and, having achieved this end, he proceeded to Gallicize Italy. The human brain is like a pot of earth ready for seeds of any variety. The Italian brain, which had long lain fallow, eagerly received the Gallic Republican seeds, and quickly grew a crop. But when Bonaparte was metamorphosed into Napoleon, and Gallic Republicanism into Imperialism, the Italian Republican crop withered. The Italians perforce submitted to Napoleon's domination. They saw the north made a kingdom for his stepson Beauharnais, the centre set apart as a kingdom for his sister Elise, the south made a kingdom for his brother Joseph, and later for his brother-in-law Murat. And when calamity overtook him and he abdicated, their first impulse was to rejoice, for in his downfall they expected to find the opportunity for their own political hopes.

Signor Lemmi follows this evolution with the sureness of an expert detective. He has unusual ability in discerning essentials, and in condensing much material without desiccating it. He enables you to watch the fluctuations of sentiment in each district. He discloses the cross-currents of local or dynastic aspirations, which interfered with the orderly sweep of the political stream. You understand, for instance, why Genoa and Turin, or Florence and Rome, took their Gallic experience with very different emotions.

In dealing with debated points, which test the historian's judgment and fairness, Signor Lemmi is uniformly satisfactory. He shows up, with dispassionate moderation, Napoleon's perfidy towards the Venetians and Nelson's perfidy towards the Neapolitans. He discriminates between Napoleon's wisdom in abolishing the temporal power of the Pope and his indiscreet truculence (to use no harsher term) towards Pius VII. personally. Thoroughly Italian in his outlook, he sets truth before patriotism so honestly that you cannot doubt that the Italians in the Napoleonic era were hardly fitted to profit by independence, if independence had been granted them. But out of the turmoil of that period, when many of them became soldiers and many more became adepts in modern methods of administration, sprang the forces which were to make Italy independent, free, and united.

The plan of the series in which Signor Lemmi's volume appears does not permit footnotes, references, or bibliography, so that readers may often regret that he cannot give the sources of his statements. They may feel, sometimes, that the style might be livelier without forfeiting accuracy. But on the whole, the work is too sound and able to be seriously affected by minor shortcomings. It is the best in this interesting field, and well worthy of being translated.

RECENT FICTION.

On Newfound River. By Thomas Nelson Page. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The charming colored frontispiece por-

trait by John Edwin Jackson of Mr. Page's heroine puts one into the right mood for the story. A very pretty girl stands pensively by an open window into which Southern bloom is peering. Her flowered gown and the arrangement of her soft hair tell of days before the war, while the graceful hands, the delightful nose, and the fascinating tilt of the upper lip have the perennial attraction that belongs to all well-conducted heroines of whatever time or clime. Thus then in the story we meet what we expect, the Southern life of an earlier day: hot-tempered men and gracious women, trusty slaves, negro-hunting whites, the grocery-store-town-meeting, and the open-air court of justice. The love-story, however, is the thing and is young, Arcadian, rough-running, happily arriving. Mr. Page explains that it is a story enlarged; explicitly not a novel, but "a love story, pure and simple," and such it will be found, a delicate finished specimen of its author's art.

The County Road. By Alice Brown. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The thirteen stories that make this volume are excellent reading. Most of them are set in the kitchens and dooryards of New England houses; nearly all are enveloped in the young green of the spring, and every one deals with a human predicament. If in earlier stories Miss Brown has seemed ensnared in her own subtleties, she has now shaken herself bravely free. The note oftenest sounded is of the narrow inability of some one to understand some one else; and so the farmer's wife has a starved soul sickness, the farmer's son or daughter is held in leash by the mother, the old arithmetician is snubbed by his daughter, the wife wilts under the withholding of praise by her husband. But every instance is treated with a healthfulness which may well be called originality. Some one's common or uncommon sense always comes to the rescue. The balloon soars but comes home. There was once a kind of story classified as pie and piety fiction. Miss Brown's is pie and problem fiction, but the women do not stare at their own souls as closely as once they did, and the pie is well baked. There is no abatement of cleverness and there is an increase of rational motive, which both go to make a heartily agreeable volume.

Prisoners Fast Bound in Misery and Iron. By Mary Cholmondeley. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

This novel is first of all interesting. It has a veritable story, full of surprises, climbing steadily to the culminating point. By a chain of incidents, ingenious and original (even though they include a man hiding behind a screen in a lady's boudoir), an innocent man is so involved that he chooses to go to prison to shield the name of a woman with whom he is in love. She, lacking the courage to speak the self-incriminating word which would set him free, allows him to languish in chains for two years, and meantime is wooed successfully by the prisoner's elder brother, who is quite in ignorance of the blameworthy part of her connection with the affair. The complication is worked out with no little skill, and the chief actors, even those wearing a minimum of probability, are made

alive by their consistency with themselves. The weak, self-steeped heroine brings with her every appearance a thrill of dislike, which is itself a tribute to her reality. That her loves are purely circumstantial, and that her conscience operates only under high pressure from without, does not prove her an impossible creation. On the contrary, the most artificial thing about her is that she should be shown at last capable of a large affection. Even when she is regenerate it is hard to take any interest in her putative soul. It is in a way a new version of an old story. The man who loved greatly a small-souled woman, sees her reaching her greatest spiritual height under the influence of a rival incapable of a large love. The truth is that the devotion of Michael, who went to prison, oversteps the bounds of the reader's endurance. We know what happens just beyond the sublime. We want to quarrel with a man who says "I was yours to keep or throw away," in reply to a woman who has said of her later love, "I would not have kept *him* in prison for a day. . . . It's you I betrayed, Michael. I'm so thankful it was you and not *him*" (an equal obliquity in manners and grammar).

If the story, as said, mounts steadily, the reader, at least, is breathless much of the way under the suspense and under the cleverness. The ethical aspects are broad and deep. The prisoner bound in iron and the prisoner bound in misery are set in an austere parallel. The might of the moral law is never belittled nor its penalties made other than costly.

Michael and Magdalen, the pluperfects, are attractive, if of an unselfishness approaching the sin of suicide. The bishop, more touched with humanity, is preëminently engaging. In the delineation of the minors, the black-and-whites, and notably in the sentiments and reflections, are the same brilliant touches that marked "Red Pottage." With sharp characterization is united an almost ghastly cynicism in and among the loftiest counsels and aspirations. Not a bubble goes unpricked. A quite bewildering drench of flying spray from this watery disillusionment sprinkles the gasping reader. In nature, in heaven, in the divine law, the author thoroughly and largely believes. In human weaknesses she luxuriates bitterly. In love as an influence she has great faith, but love as a human relation she sets forth as a very one-sided and at its best a very queer affair. Witness the love scene between Magdalen and Everard. Was ever woman in this humor won?

Don-a-Dreams. By Harvey J. O'Higgins. New York: The Century Co.

Here is the life history of a visionary. He is a little boy in the first chapters, a little Canadian, son of a father who, "living up to that stern ideal of British parents which the race has brought to Canada," thoroughly misunderstands the child's dreamy temperament and treats him with a cold injustice, which the mother's sympathy fails to counteract. So little Don goes his own way, crying when he finds that Santa Claus is a myth, continually "making believe," to his own solace and to the exclusion of all practical education. No companion can equal him in

this game till a little girl comes his way, who thenceforth is the sharer at times, the object always, of his visions. From a boy make-believe he becomes a student day-dreamer; then a man idealist; last of all a visionary. And we leave him happy in his visions.

Half the story lies in Canada. The childhood phases are exquisitely drawn; the student life is an idyl touched with more or less extravagance of sentiment. Then our young hero goes to New York and dreams his adult dreams in the most sordid surroundings. Yet he never lets them go, never ceases, while toiling at the most distasteful work, to keep his spirit nourished on the things of the imagination. He all but starves; he outgrows the narrow faith of his people, he despairs for his girl playmate; like the student of old, "he is in debt, he is in love, he has doubts on the Trinity," yet he never forsakes his spiritual ambitions, or the inner glimpses of a world of unworldliness. What writer has sounded the New York note as well as this? "That immense jocundity, which sparkles in the clean air of Manhattan on such days, . . . all the bustling life of that thronged island which seems to catch from its sea breezes some of the recklessness that makes sailors so irresponsible, so apparently care-free, so good-natured." Don is an individual visionary in that he is no egoist. He does not dream sitting still; he carries his dreams into his efforts and can hardly wake even when he sees happiness coming toward him. He makes the blunders of an idealist, but they are blunders that endear him to his friends, who scold and then take care of him. It is a book of fine fibre in purpose and execution, romantic, touching, amusing.

Baedeker's Palestine and Syria. Fourth Edition, remodelled and augmented. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3.60 net.

Baedeker's "Palestine and Syria" is much more than a guide-book for tourists and travellers. It is a hand-book of the customs, the religions, the history, and the antiquities of Palestine, an important and necessary part of the library of the Bible student and teacher, and of the Oriental archæologist. The original hand-book, published in 1875, was the work of one of the most prominent German Semitists of that day, Dr. Albert Socin. In the third edition, which appeared in 1898, the Hebrew archæologist, Dr. Emanuel Benzinger, was associated with Dr. Socin. The latter died in 1899, and the present edition is the work of Dr. Benzinger, who now makes his home in Jerusalem. Each succeeding edition has compressed a larger amount of material in a smaller space. The present edition is a marvel of book-making. Although containing almost as many pages as the third edition, it is only about one-half as thick.

One entirely new section has been added to this edition of the guide-book, namely, Route VI, "Mesopotamia and Babylonia." That this region is now for the first time included in a guide-book is an evidence of the increased interest of tourists and travellers in out-of-the-way regions and of the increasing possibilities and conveniences of travel. The routes from Aleppo to Baghdad, by way of Urfa, Diarbekr, Mosul, and the Tigris, and

also by way of the Euphrates valley, are traced in this section, with notes on all points of interest, including the numerous ancient ruins on the way, and the chief ancient sites in Assyria and Babylonia. In the historical sketch prefixed to this section the editor has retained the now discredited date of Sargon, 3800 B. C., and has placed the Hittites in the country of Mitanni on insufficient evidence. But in general, here as elsewhere in this volume, the historical and geographical statements are reliable and up to date. Everywhere the editor has taken advantage of the most recent researches. Only eight years have elapsed since the appearance of the third edition, but it is precisely within those years that a number of the most interesting discoveries have been made in Palestine, Syria, and Babylonia. To specify more exactly in Palestine only, we have from this period the excavations in the Shephelah, at Gezer, Megiddo, and Ta'anach, the discovery of the painted tombs at Marissa, and the mosaic map at Madaba. The author does not seem, however, to have made use of the results of the recent German exploration of synagogues in Galilee, including the excavations at Tell-Hum. His statement (p. 252) that "the identification of Tell-Hum with Capernaum is as good as certain" is altogether too strong, in view of the fact that many of the best authorities to-day place Capernaum at Khan Minyeh.

We note that this edition, like the preceding, places the New Testament Emmaus at Kubeibeh, whereas the original guide-book of Socin inclined, we think more correctly, to Kolonieh. The changes in and about Jerusalem since the issue of the last edition, which have been numerous, are in general correctly noted, but by an oversight, we fancy, on page 67 Birket Isra'in is spoken of as though still in existence. Eight or ten years ago this was a large, dry pool, precisely as described in the text, but within the last few years the pool has been filled with rubbish, so that instead of being a pool "120 yards long and 41 yards wide," lying "69 feet below the Temple plateau," there is now no pool at all. In the notice of Beitin, the ancient Bethel, we read that "a little to the north of the village is a remarkable circle of stones which may possibly have had a religious significance" (p. 213). There is no circle of stones, but a very remarkable field of natural stone columns, 8 to 12 or 15 feet in height, and 100 or so in number, which look like artificial stone heaps, exaggerations of the "pillars of testimony" which abound throughout the country, wherever one first catches sight of a sacred place. On closer examination, however, one finds that these are in reality natural columns, the result of erosion. The editor makes no mention of the fact that Ramallah has now become a sort of summer resort for Jerusalem, with comfortable tent and house hotels, to which Jerusalemites and foreigners residing in Jerusalem repair for rest and refreshment at intervals during the hot season. While mention is made under Sidon of the place of discovery of the basalt sarcophagus of King Eshmunazar, in 1855 (p. 273), there is no notice of the much more remarkable discovery of Greek and Phœnician sarcoph-

agl by Hamdy Bey in 1887, and no indication of the place where they were found. Possibly other criticisms of the same sort might be added; but they are after all minor prints.

This edition maintains the remarkable standard already set, keeping abreast of information and discovery, and exceeding its predecessors in condensation and mechanical execution.

Personal Forces in Modern Literature. By Arthur Rickett. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.

To expect strict system or consistency in a volume of this kind, composed of a number of more or less independent papers, loosely held together by some abstract or general motive, would be to expect too much; it is enough if it be fairly interesting and suggestive. As a matter of fact, then, Mr. Rickett has included in his frame-work studies of diverse characters in such a way as to represent the several departments of letters in their ethical, or, as he would prefer to say, their psychological gradation—the "Moralist," who "exhibits his temperament as much by what he suppresses as what he expresses of himself," the "Scientist," the "Poet," the "Novelist," and finally the "Vagabond," who "flings himself unreservedly at the reader, whims, peculiarities, and all."

At the same time, however, that Mr. Rickett claims for his classification a merely psychological significance, the work itself seems to imply that literature in the narrower and more exclusive sense, as distinguished from letters or whatever is written, is mainly a matter of temperament; and as writing becomes more and more literary, it becomes at the same time more and more intimate and revelatory of the author. The tendency is to contract the idea of literature, to divorce it from the spontaneous expression of living truth, and to reduce it to the dimensions of an art or craft.

It is in the details of his several subjects, however, that Mr. Rickett is most entertaining. Without being actually profound, he is occasionally shrewd and suggestive, if not always quite accurate or just. Of Newman he remarks with an air of plausibility: "He had a very powerful and subtle intellect, and it alarmed him," though without noticing what must have struck every student of the Oxford Movement, his singular inaccessibility to ideas. Undoubtedly Newman had a very powerful mind, and his intellectual destitution may not impossibly be due to his dread of encouraging it. Of the same author Mr. Rickett remarks again no less paradoxically: "Literature was his enemy, because by literature he meant the anti-dogmatic principle—the principle which would convert religion into a sentiment, and therefore for him a dream, a mockery." Is not this rather what Mr. Rickett himself understands by literature—the poetic or artistic principle, the spirit of appearance and illusion? But at all events it is rather disconcerting, after such an utterance, to find him lost in wonder that "Huxley should have felt so high an admiration for Tennyson's work as a thinker and artist." Any one who remembers Huxley's addresses on the subject of religion, can hardly fail to

recall the part played therein by this same "anti-dogmatic principle," the effort to "convert religion into a sentiment" and the resemblance of this effort to Tennyson's inveterate disposition to poetize dogma, as notably in his "In Memoriam."

Drama.

IRVING AS MAN AND ACTOR.

Personal Reminiscences of Henry Irving.

By Bram Stoker. Two volumes. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$7.50 net.

"For my own part the work which I have undertaken in this book is to show future minds something of Henry Irving, as he was to me." So says Bram Stoker, in his preface to these two bulky volumes of personal reminiscences, and no one, after reading them, can deny that to this extent at least he has fully and ably accomplished his purpose. Of Irving, as man and manager—a personality potent, intellectual, indomitable, ambitious, honorable, tender, imperious, picturesque, and fascinating—he gives a most attractive and vital portrait; a portrait, moreover, whose truthfulness is not attested solely by the manifest sincerity of his own enthusiastic affection and somewhat fervid Celtic oratory, but by the plain record of indisputable facts, the wonderful sum of Irving's labors and accomplishments, the extraordinary position which he won for himself in the highest literary, artistic, and social worlds, the steadfastness with which he pursued high ideals, and the esteem and reverence in which he was held in the hearts of his friends and subordinates. In these respects the book is full, accurate, and interesting almost from the first page to the last, in spite of much matter that is not new or strictly relevant; but it will bring disappointment to all those who try to find in it any illuminating details of Irving's growth and development as an actor, any definition of the methods of the new school of acting which he is said, somewhat arbitrarily, to have originated (*vixere fortes ante Agamemnona*), any reference to his peculiar histrionic limitations, or the notorious defects and mannerisms of his style, or any attempt to discriminate between the comparative excellence of his different impersonations. With Mr. Stoker each new character is but an illustration of a new perfection. So many parts, so many masterpieces.

The attitude of Mr. Stoker, indeed, towards his chief is always that of a worshipper, although never that of a sycophant. A strong and clever man himself, good scholar, and noted athlete, he was dominated by Irving as by an hypnotic spell. He tells how, in the days of their first acquaintance, Irving's recital of Hood's "Eugene Aram"—an interpretation of weird and thrilling power—made him hysterical and demonstrated a bond of emotional sympathy between him and the actor, which ripened quickly into an intimate and lifelong friendship, of which this book is a monument, equally honorable to both. Rarely has a magnanimous chief had more loving or faithful service or any executive officer more justly earned the title of right-hand man.

Unquestionably Irving had genius—if not of the highest order—but he had in much larger measure that quality which is said to be allied to it—the infinite capacity for taking pains. Mr. Stoker's volumes are packed with instances of his indefatigable attention to even the minutest details of his comprehensive art. No labor was too excessive for him, no cost too great, in the execution of his plans. Although he had a large and capable staff, nothing was done without his personal supervision. Before undertaking a classic play he studied the principal authorities bearing upon the subject, and then formulated in his own mind the scene plan which he required. In preparing "Romeo and Juliet," after having employed the best available authority to design the costumes, he rejected them all, and supplied others, which he had himself collected from ancient books and prints. He consulted an army surgeon concerning the proper way of lifting wounded or dead men. He practised various poses at odd moments with personal friends. Days and nights he spent in drilling the supers for the frays between the factions of the Capulets and Montagus. When no satisfactory music could be procured he engaged Sir Julius Benedict to write it for him. All stage groupings were in accordance with his personal directions. In the famous church scene of "Much Ado"—which was never seen in its full perfection in New York—he went for inspiration to the cathedrals of Seville and Burgos, both for architecture and costumes; and in order that all might be correct, and no religious prejudice offended, he asked an eminent Roman Catholic prelate to supervise the accessories. It was during a visit to Morocco and the Levant that he studied effects for his Shylock, saying afterwards that he had never had any clear notion of what the Jew merchant ought to be until he saw him in his own habitat. Long before this he had begun to study from the life. His Digby Grant in "Two Roses," one of his earliest great successes, was a reproduction of that picturesque adventurer, the Chevalier Wikoff, well known in his day on both sides of the Atlantic. The mimetic ability which Irving showed in this impersonation was remarkable.

How comprehensive was his conception of any general effect is shown in an incident which occurred during an early rehearsal of "Macbeth." Sir Arthur Sullivan had written the incidental music and was present to lead the orchestra. In an important scene Irving stopped him. "It is fine as music," he said, "but for our purpose no good at all." Then he proceeded by means of swaying gestures, motions of the hands and arms, and queer vocal sounds to indicate the rhythmical effect that he needed. Sir Arthur, greatly to his credit, caught the idea, and there and then made the needed alterations. Again in preparing his spectacle of "Faust" he thought out the whole color scheme of the wonderful Brocken scene, in reference to the dominant note of his own scarlet costume, before putting the artists to work upon it, and he was the practical inventor of the striking tableau of poised angels in the last act. Another instance of his minute care and almost limitless ingenuity may be found in the devices by which he made his tall, gaunt

figure assume the semblance of the short and stout Napoleon in Sardou's flashy "Madame Sans Gêne." The details are too long to print. Suffice it to say that all kinds of tailor trickery were employed, that the furniture was built out of its proper proportions, and the tallest performers brought into contrast with the Emperor. All this, of course, has nothing to do with acting, but is significant as an illustration of skilful and conscientious stage management.

Without the help of Irving it is exceedingly doubtful whether any of Tennyson's dramatic pieces would ever have reached the footlights. The old poet evidently had the most unbounded faith in the actor, and let him cut and transpose at his own discretion. When "The Cup," a semi-mythical piece, was to be presented the problems of stage management were many. James Knowles constructed the stage temple of Artemis on the ground plan of the great temple of Diana, and Alexander Murray of the British Museum made researches among the oldest Etruscan designs upon which accomplished artists fashioned the costumes. In "Coriolanus" again Irving sought the aid of Alma Tadema. He ransacked London to find suitable stuffs for the costumes which he needed. In some plays he expended \$75,000 before the curtain was raised on the first performance. It is lamentable to think that the almost priceless accumulation of scenery and costumes, representing a quarter of a century of munificent and artistic management, was swept away by fire almost in an instant. This blow was the turning point in Irving's fortunes, and indirectly led to the anxieties and labors which shortened his life.

More than half of Mr. Stoker's work is devoted to the social side of Irving's life, and this part might have been shortened with advantage. A man may be known by his friends, but not necessarily by his acquaintance. But it is a fact that the social position of Irving is unique in the history of the stage. Neither Garrick nor Macready ever stood on such terms with so many leaders in politics, literature, science, and the arts. Neither of them, it need scarcely be said, entertained with such boundless liberality. But to his liberality Irving added the charms of a delightful address, a versatile and well-stocked mind, and most catholic taste. He elevated the stage not only as an art but as a profession. Prime ministers and archbishops, diplomats and professors, princes and potentates, poets, painters, sculptors, and authors of high degree, were proud to be in his company. Mr. Gladstone had his special corner on his stage, Browning loved to discuss Shakspeare with him, Stepiak wrote to him a notable commentary on "King Lear," Tennyson held him in so much reverence that he gave him a free hand in relation to his noble "Becket." Queen Victoria honored him, Lady Burdett Coutts loved him, and Presidents of the United States entertained him. All this and much more may be learned in Mr. Stoker's facile and interesting gossip.

But perhaps, with all his successes and glories, nothing so much became him in life as his manner of leaving it. Mr. Stoker tells, very pathetically, how, when shattered in health and strength and al-

most overborne by cruel mishaps and still more cruel mistakes, he, dying by inches, yet struggled on valiantly to recover fortune, serving the public literally with his last breath. Popularity he never lost, and wealth was pouring in upon him when death took him on the very threshold of honorable retirement and assured ease. Very pretty, too, are the stories of his lifelong love for the comedian Toole and the fraternal friendship between him and Ellen Terry. Mr. Stoker has indeed paid a tribute to his dead friend which is likely to keep him long in remembrance as the greatest manager and one of the most impressive actors of his time, a splendid host, a charming companion, and most virile man, one who not only achieved success, but deserved it.

On October 22 Viola Allen will appear at the Astor Theatre in an elaborate revival of Shakspeare's "Cymbeline," a piece which has not been seen in this city for a good many years. She will, of course, appear as Imogen, a character associated with the fame of some of the greatest actresses of ancient and modern times. Adelaide Neilson and Madame Modjeska both played it successfully. Jefferson Winter is to be her Leonatus Posthumus.

Music.

The list of singers for the coming season at the Metropolitan Opera House includes, in alphabetic order for each group: Bessie Abbott, Bella Alten, Lina Cavalieri, Emma Eames, Geraldine Farrar, Katbarine Flescher-Edel, Olive Fremstad, Berta Morena, Marie Rappold, Marcella Sembrich, Milka Ternina, Luisa Tetrizzini, Marion Weed, Luise Homer, Kirkby-Lunn, Schumann-Heink, Burgstaller, Burrian, Caruso, Dippel, Reiss, Goritz, Scotti, Van Rooy, Blass, Journet, Plançon. The conductors will be Hertz, Vigna, Bovy, Franko. Giacomo Puccini will visit America, in order to supervise the first Italian performance in this country of his "Madame Butterfly" and the first performance at the Metropolitan Opera House of his "Manon Lescaut." During the stay here of Mr. Puccini, his "Tosca" and "La Bohème" will also be interpreted. Another event of the season will be the first American production of "Salome," the much-talked-of work of Richard Strauss. Mr. Gunsbourg will superintend an elaborate production, as an opera, of "La Damnation de Faust," the masterpiece of Hector Berlioz. Mr. Gunsbourg adapted "La Damnation de Faust" for operatic purposes and directed the recent successful performances at Monte Carlo and in Paris. Other operas to be revived are Auber's "Fra Diavolo," Bellini's "I Puritani," Delibes's "Lakmé," Meyerbeer's "L'Africaine," and Wagner's "Flying Dutchman." The season begins on November 26.

At the new Manhattan Opera House, Oscar Hammerstein also promises to produce the Puccini operas, which shared the honors equally with Wagner's at the last season in London. Mr. Hammerstein's stars are Melba, Bonci, and Edouard de Reszke, unequalled as Mephisto and Leporello, which are to be his first rôles. When the

"Damnation de Faust" is produced at the new Manhattan Opera House, it will introduce to the American public M. Renaud, who is reputed to stand alone as a singer and actor of this rôle.

Walter Damrosch has secured Camille Saint-Saëns and Mme. Schumann-Heink as soloists for the first two concerts of the New York Symphony Orchestra. M. Saint-Saëns will make his local début in one of his own concertos—op. 89, which is based on Algerian airs. Mme. Schumann-Heink will sing Schubert's "Erlking" as scored by Berlioz. Other soloists to be heard at the Damrosch concerts are Mme. Gadsby, Mr. Rosenthal, Mr. Lhevinne, M. Barrere, and Mr. Schulz.

The dates for the New York concerts of the Boston Symphony Orchestra are November 8, 10, December 6, 8, January 10, 12, February 21, 23, March 21, 23, the time being Thursday evenings and Saturday afternoons.

Alexander Scriabine, the Russian pianist-composer, will come to America and play at the concert of the Russian Symphony Orchestra in this city on December 20. Born in 1872 at Moscow, he studied at the Conservatory there, under Safonoff and Taneyeff. In 1895 he gave concerts in Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, and in Paris, winning much commendation. Since then he has renewed his successes in other European cities. Pianists know Scriabine as composer of the prelude and nocturne for the left hand alone, which Lhevinne played here last season, and by several sonatas and other serious works. In the larger forms Scriabine has also written a good deal. One of his three symphonies has been played under Arthur Nikisch's direction, in Germany and in Paris. At the Russian Symphony concert of December 20, at Carnegie Hall, Scriabine will play his own pianoforte concerto for the first time in this country.

Another comprehensive biography of Wagner is in sight. It is by Dr. Max Koch, professor at the University of Breslau. The first volume is to appear this month.

Art.

THE MORGAN MANUSCRIPTS.

A selection from J. Pierpont Morgan's illuminated manuscripts is being shown at the Columbia University Library. The exhibition is of very high average quality, and has been attractively arranged and labelled by Dr. Vladimir G. Simkhovitch. Only a very summary enumeration of the forty-odd codexes shown is possible here.

Byzantine influences predominate in a Life of Christ, illuminated in France about 1100; a French Book of Hours of 1200, and the English Huntingfield Psalter, a remarkable work of art, executed about 1170. In the English manuscripts the tendency toward naturalism should be noted. The calligraphy and the decorative initials are full of vigor. One of these manuscripts, a thirteenth-century English Psalter, belonged to William Morris, who wrote an enthusiastic description of it. Of the other English manuscripts should be mentioned a text book of zoölogy and cosmography,

or a hestiar, 1170, with 106 grotesque miniatures; and a hymn book, written in Gloucester, about 1430.

The collection of manuscripts written and illuminated in France is very rich; the earliest being a codex of the Gospels written in the neighborhood of Tours in the eighth century, and the latest a French masterpiece of calligraphy and illumination of the end of the seventeenth century. Among other notable pieces are the Universal Histories of Jehan de Courcy and Orose—large folios, with superb illuminations. Both manuscripts were once the pride of the Ashburnham collection. There are also the enormous book about hucolic works and pleasures by Pierre de Crescences, and the familiar collection called "Les Dits des Philosophes," with forty miniatures of great artistic merit. The Italian manuscripts, chiefly of the fifteenth century, are unusually decorative and resplendent. One of them was probably painted by Attavante, another by Bentivoglio.

Many of the manuscripts belonged to royalty. A Bible, A. D. 1200, with 142 small miniatures, was the property of Philip II., whose arms are impressed upon the covers. A Book of Hours, with excellent miniatures, was the property of King James II. Other Books of Hours belonged to Louis XI., Louis XIII., and Philip Duke of Orléans—the Regent. A sixteenth-century Life of Christ was specially written for Francis I. The first miniature represents the French King accepting the book from the illuminator and presenting the latter with a purse.

Dr. Simkhovitch regards as the finest exhibit a hattered Breviary of Flemish workmanship, which he has identified as the product of the masters of the famous Breviary Grimani at Venice. He feels prepared to substantiate this interesting theory. Another example of one of the Grimani illuminators, Gerard of Ghent, is a small Book of Hours, the quality of which, judging from the exhibited pages, is more exquisite than that of the larger manuscript. In any case, we have to do with very nearly the best product of the Flemish illuminators, and with a work that has distinct and most interesting relations to the possibly overrated Breviary commonly ascribed to Gerard of Ghent, Memling, and other artists of lesser fame.

An exceptionally interesting and comprehensive exhibition of etchings, dry-points, and mezzotints by Sir Seymour Haden, including several proofs finished by the artist in water color, will be on view at Keppel's Gallery in this city until October 27. The hundred and seventy-six numbers of the collection include many rarities, chief among which are some of the artist's later mezzotints, executed within the last five or six years and never before seen in this country. Technically and in spirit these mezzotints are distinct from the artist's earlier work. They are pure mezzotint, without any underlying framework of etched line, such as gives structure to "Harlech Castle" and "The Breaking Up of the Agamemnon." Indeed, the lack of definition amounts at times to an uncertainty that suggests unsteadiness of hand. If there is any loss of the old sureness, however, it is a loss which the artist has accepted in the spirit of choice; he expresses through the general vagueness a deeper poetry of

gloom, a more sumptuous richness of suggested color, than can be found in all his earlier work. The surest and loveliest of these mezzotints is the "Evening Fishing, Longparish," with its repose of composition and mellow twilight.

In a recent number of the *Berliner Philologische Wochenschrift*, Herr Pomtow, who knows more about Delphi than any other scholar except M. Homolle, the conductor of the great French excavations there, gives a summary statement of the results of his studies on that site for several weeks last spring, chiefly involving changes in the identification of minor ruins, as of altars, bases of statues, and "treasuries." Then, with frank recognition and high appreciation of the achievements of M. Homolle, Pomtow proceeds to criticize in detail the work of the French excavators. In particular he makes two serious charges: (1) No competent architect watched the excavations, no satisfactory record seems to have been made of the places in which architectural fragments were found, and the building-stones have been moved from the places in which they were uncovered, so freely that an architect now finds his inferences with regard to them difficult and uncertain; (2) the publication of the results of the excavations is delayed, while many of the remains of antiquity which were uncovered are exposed to change, if not destruction, and the verification by other scholars of the statements of the excavators becomes each year more difficult. The remains of the temple of Athena Pronaia, which had been hidden for centuries, were destroyed a couple of years ago, before the excavators had published their account of the ruins, by a great rock rolling down from a foothill of Mt. Parnassus into the precincts of the same sanctuary into which, according to Herodotus, a great rock rolled at the time of the Persian invasion under Xerxes, in 480 B. C., frightening the Orientals from the seat of the Greek oracle. Other ruins are wasting under the influence of the elements. M. Homolle is now director of the Museums of the Louvre, and even if he were an Atlas his powers would be unequal to the task of giving a suitable publication to the results of the explorations at Delphi, in the intervals of his important and heavy duties at the museum. The situation is the worse because the French, supported by the munificence of an American, the Duc de Louhat, are engaged in excavations on the island of Delos, before giving a full account of their previous work. The tension of archaeological feeling has been rendered more disagreeable, since for several years visitors to Delphi were not allowed to photograph, draw, or measure any object, or even to make memoranda. Inconvenient restrictions are still imposed on most visitors. Never before, perhaps, has the question of the duty of the archaeological excavator to his peers been stated more distinctly than by Pomtow, and the air is likely to be cleared. Certainly many excavators of the old school thought too much of the museum-value of the objects which they obtained, and then scholars were too well satisfied with securing their own publication of what they discovered. Insufficient pains have been taken for the preservation of the ruins which have been brought to light. Archaeologists have obligations to future generations of scholars,

who may not be satisfied with accepting our measurements and estimates, and who surely will be glad of an opportunity to verify their predecessors' statements. Dörpfeld is wise in leaving part of the site of ancient Troy to be uncovered by later generations, who may have better methods and higher standards than the archaeologists of to-day.

Roger E. Fry's article "On a Fourteenth Century Sketchbook" is the most interesting contribution to the October *Burlington Magazine*. This book of thin boxwood tablets, bearing sketches in silver point, was evidently the property of a French miniaturist of the fourteenth century. The drawings include portraits, a Madonna and child, a joust, and a *bal-masque*, with the guests disguised as savages, recalling the tragic festivity that brought on the madness of Charles VI. These drawings are of high artistic merit, and notable for precision of line and considerable force of *chiaroscuro*. Mr. Fry believes them the work of the illuminator André Beauneveu, who is praised by Froissart, and whose works may be seen at the libraries of Brussels and Paris. The little book affords a practically unique commentary upon the preliminary methods of storiator. Other articles are "The Nation's New Raphael," "The Madonna of the Tower," by Herbert Cook, and an interesting survey of old masters in the National Gallery of Ireland. Of American interest, are the fine plate of an early Holbein, possibly the artist's brother Amrosius, bought, but not yet exhibited by the Metropolitan Museum, and a discussion of Pesellino's "Six Triumphs of Petrarch" in Mrs. John L. Gardner's collection, Boston. One may note, also, an editorial plea for a national gallery at Washington to be conducted by the Smithsonian Institute.

Science.

In the near future a new Norwegian expedition will go out for the purpose especially of investigating the little-known inner districts of Spitzbergen. As the *Rundschau für Geographie und Statistik* reports, the inland portions of King James Land are to be studied geologically and geographically. Preparations for this task have been made on an extensive scale by the leader of the expedition, the cavalry officer G. J. Isachsen. He is to be accompanied by eight specialists, who, with the exception of the physician, a Frenchman, are all Norwegians.

At the recent national convention of the German Otological Society, held in Hamburg, Professor Hartmann of Berlin furnished some statistics showing that a new hygienic problem has come to vex the school authorities, in the increasing deafness of the school children. In Stuttgart it was found that fully 32.6 per cent. of the school children had difficulty in hearing, and in Munich the percentage was 25.8, while in Lucerne it attained the maximum of 40.3 per cent. Other reports came from Marburg—the district, not the city merely—where the percentage was 28.4; in Zürich it was 10.8, and in Hagen 23.3. In each case the report was furnished by recognized specialists in otology. The effect of

this trouble on the progress of children is especially clear from the report of Dr. Bezold, in Munich, who showed that children hard of hearing do not accomplish what normal children do, the percentages in their disfavor being from 54 to 67 per cent., according to the degree of the trouble. School journals are beginning to emphasize the idea that the ear as well as the eye of the school population requires close attention.

Questions of heredity, atavism, the transmission of incurable taints, and consequent degeneracy and sterility, especially in their application to royal families, are now favorite topics of discussion, and the number of elaborate dissertations on these and kindred subjects is constantly increasing. Dr. Naegeli-Akerblom of Geneva, Switzerland; has recently published two critical treatises entitled "Willkür und Nachlässigkeit bei der Benützung Genealogischer Tabellen für den Beweis der Theorien der Erblichen Belastung und Entartung von Fürstenfamilien" and "Quelques Résultats de l'Examen des Preuves Historiques Employées par les Auteurs Traitant de l'Hérédité" (Geneva: Kündig & Fils). He examines the works of Paul Jacoby, Déjerine, Goehler, Ribot, Speyer, and many other writers, recognized and quoted as authorities in this province of scientific research, and shows that they are guilty of gross misstatements and historical inaccuracies, and that their conclusions are not warranted by the genealogical tables upon which the deductions are presumably based. He does not deny the existence of this tendency to degeneration, but proves that in many instances the families to which it is said to have been fatal still survive and are comparatively free from it.

The *Geographical Journal* (London) for October contains the second part of the article "Recent Survey and Exploration in Seistan," by Col. Sir Henry McMahon; "The Rivers of Chinese Turkestan and the Desiccation of Asia," by Ellsworth Huntington; "Journeys in Northern Nigeria," by Hans Visscher; and "Twenty-Five Years' Geographical Progress," an address to the Geological Section at the York meeting of the British Association for the advancement of Science. The leading article is "The Indian Ocean," by J. Stanley Gardner," being results largely based on the work of the Percy Slader expedition in H. M. S. Sealark, 1905. This contribution is illustrated by a large map of the Indian Ocean. There are also sketch maps of East Turkestan and Northern Nigeria.

Funk & Wagnalls issue two useful volumes in the little pocket pamphlets called the Standard Nature Series. One is "A Manual of Common American and European Insects," the other "A Manual of Common Butterflies and Moths." The colored plates are clearly printed and make a sufficient guide for the fields.

The latest contribution to the useful "Farm Library" (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is "Farm Animals," by E. V. Wilcox. Another volume in preparation is "Soils," by S. W. Fletcher. Other volumes to complete this library will be "Farm Equipment," "Field Crops," "Special Industries," "Farming as a Business," and "Fruits and Vegetables."

Finance.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RATE.

Confronted by the almost unprecedented large withdrawal of gold from the London market for New York within the past five weeks, the Bank of England at length, on Thursday last, took strong protective measures. It had already made some move in that direction. There are several things which the Bank can do to stop gold exports. One is to charge a high premium on gold in the form of bars, or of foreign coin, both of which the Bank of England holds in large quantity. A banker, trying to get London's gold for another market, prefers it in those forms. If its destination is New York, United States gold coin, which will pass at face value in this country, is his first choice; next, he will ask for bars, which go by weight, and in which loss by abrasion is relatively small. The least desirable form for his purposes is that which is most desirable to a London banker—British coin. This he can get in London only at face value, and wherever a sovereign is not full-weight, the New York importer loses, for he must melt it up and get what our Assay Office assigns as the bullion value.

The fact that the exporter of gold from London does not want British coin, while the London banker does, fixes the ordinary "selling price" of bars and foreign coin—that is to say, the rate at which they will be exchanged for English bank notes—at a lower price per ounce than that of the sovereign, which is fixed by law. When, however, a foreign market is sweeping up all the available gold in the London market, the Bank puts up its price for foreign coin and bars. This naturally makes the foreigner's operation more expensive. Two or three weeks ago, in pursuance of this obstructive plan, the Bank of England raised its "selling price" for such forms of gold to the highest figure reached in two decades. But the expedient wholly failed. Our bankers were determined to get the gold; they paid the higher price, and when the supply of bar-gold and American coin, even at that price, ran low, they took British sovereigns out of the Bank and shipped them.

Then it was that the Bank of England last Thursday raised its minimum discount rate to 5 per cent. This is an historic recourse, used, as the English say, in "reversing the foreign exchanges." All economic text-books have something to say about it; there will therefore be some interest in following out the nature and practical results of the familiar device on the present occasion. The Bank of England is, of course, one of the largest lenders of money in Lombard Street. What is called its "official discount rate" is the minimum at which it will lend at all. Before last week's meeting of the board of governors, the Bank's official minimum rate was 4 per cent., for short-time loans; other private London banks charged 4½. On Thursday, the governors announced a minimum of 5 per cent. That is to say, all that part of the borrowing community which relied on the Bank of England now had to pay so much more, or go to some one else. But if they went to other lenders, they increased the demand on an unchanged sup-

ply; therefore the open market rate had to follow the bank rate upward.

This open rate does not always follow the bank rate closely; if it does not, and if the situation is thought to require more drastic measures, the Bank does something which would scandalize Wall Street, and which would be tolerated, even in London, from no other institution than one in whose rectitude of purpose the financial community has implicit confidence. What the Bank of England does on such occasions, and what it is believed to be doing this week, is to come into the open London market as a borrower, take up all or most of the money offered at a less rate than its own official minimum, and refuse to re-lend it to regular borrowers, except at the higher rate. This, as the London bankers say, makes the Bank of England rate "effective."

How does the fixing of a high "bank rate" stop gold exports? The classic explanation used to be that the Bank, seeing its reserve, by withdrawal of gold through presentation of notes for redemption, reduced to too low a ratio to liabilities, holds back the notes from circulation, thus depriving outsiders of further power to draw on the gold reserve through note redemption. The protective machinery of to-day is not exactly that; but the same purpose is accomplished through refusing to give out the notes again except at a higher interest rate. This higher rate, effective both at the Bank and in the open market, has two further consequences. First, foreign borrowers, who have been raising capital in London to re-lend it, say in New York, find the operation unprofitable. Before the rate went up last week, American bankers could borrow at 4 per cent. in London and lend at 5 or 6 in Wall Street. But with London's rate at 5 per cent., no such inducement existed. Or, second, London bankers who had been lending at 4½, say in Berlin, money borrowed at 4 in London, would naturally call it home when the London bid went up to 5. As a consequence, the foreign exchanges would advance. Last week's rise in the bank rate caused an instant and violent advance in American, French, and German exchange on London. Each touched a rate at which it was no longer profitable to take gold from Lombard Street.

The Bank has been criticised, these past few weeks, for not taking earlier action in establishing a 5 per cent. rate. For London, however, 5 per cent. is very high; only twice in the past seventeen years has it been reached at this period of the autumn, and those two occasions were panic weeks. When the Bank names such a rate, it raises equivalently the interest charge which every English merchant has to pay; the rate on many mercantile loans is in fact made expressly contingent on the bank rate. This fact causes the bank directors to hesitate. Last week they could hesitate no longer. Forty per cent. reserve against deposit liabilities is the ratio which Walter Bagehot called the "apprehension minimum." He meant that, if it went much lower, public misgiving might result. Two weeks before last Thursday's meeting of the Bank, this ratio had been 42½ per cent.; one week before, it was 38½. Last week it fell to 35½—a ratio never touched at this time of year since the panic of 1890.

It was high time for the Bank to "turn the exchanges in its favor."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Abbott, Edwin A. Silvanus the Christian. Macmillan Co.
- Acton, Lord. Lectures on Modern History. Macmillan Co.
- Adams, I. Williams. Shibusawa, or the Passing of Old Japan. Putnam's. \$1.50.
- Anson, William R. Principles of the English Law of Contract. Henry Frowde.
- Attorney-General. Annual Report of the. Albany. Bacon, Dolores. A King's Divinity. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50.
- Beard, Charles A. An Introduction to the English Historians. Macmillan Co. \$1.60 net.
- Beecher, Henry Ward. The Life of Christ. Harpers. \$1.
- Brehner, Percy. Princess Maritza. T. J. McBride & Son.
- Brown, Hiram Chellis. The Historical Bases of Religions. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co. \$1.50.
- Buff, A Tale for the Thoughtful. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.
- Cable, George W. Old Creole Days. Scribners. \$2.50.
- Carleton, Will. Poems for Young Americans. Harpers. \$1.25.
- Chancellor, William Eastbrook. The Washington Word List. Macmillan Co. 20 cents.
- Church, Alfred J. The Odyssey for Boys and Girls. Macmillan Co. \$1.50.
- Conrad, Joseph. The Mirror of the Sea. Harpers. \$1.50.
- Conway, Martiu. No Man's Land. Cambridge: University Press. New York: Putnam's. 10s 6d. net.
- Cooke, Edmund Vance. Told to the Little Tot. Dodge Publishing Co. \$1.50.
- Crowell's Thin Paper Series: Tennyson's Poems; Shelley's Poems; Whittier's Poems; Burns's Poems; Browning's Poems; Longfellow's Poems; Hugo's Les Misérables, 2 vols.; Scott's Poems; Boswell's Life of Johnson, 2 vols.; Dumas's Count of Monte Cristo, 2 vols.; Cervantes's Don Quixote, 2 vols.; Carlyle's French Revolution, 2 vols.; Keats's Poems. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.25 per volume.
- Deland, Ellen Douglas. A Little Son of Sunshine. Harpers. \$1.25.
- Du Bois, Elizabeth Hickman. The Stress Accent in Latin Poetry. Macmillan Co. \$1.25.
- Fields, John Charles. Theory of the Algebraic Functions of a Complex Variable. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
- Ford, Sewell. Truegate Mogador. Scribners. \$1.50.
- Fraser, Mrs. Hugh. In the Shadow of the Lord. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50.
- Gaskell, Mrs. Ruth. Putnam's. \$1.50.
- Gray Mist. Harpers. \$1.50 net.
- Hampp, Sidford F. Dale and Fraser, Sheepmen. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. \$1.50.
- Hart, Lewis A. A Jewish Reply to Christian Evangelists. Bloch Publishing Co. \$1.50.
- Hearn, Lafcadio. Some Chinese Ghosts. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50 net.
- Hendrick, Frank. The Power to Regulate Corporations and Commerce. Putnam's. \$4 net.
- Hinbotham, Harlow N. The Making of a Merchant. Chicago: Forbes & Co. \$1.50.
- Hope, Anthouy. Sophy of Kravonia. Harpers. \$1.50.
- Howard, Bronson. Kate: A Comedy. Harpers. \$1.25.
- Huard, Charles. New York comme je l'ai vu. Paris: Eugene Rey.
- Hubbard, Lindley Murray. An Express of '76. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
- Hulbert, Archer Butler. The Ohio River. Putnam's. \$3.50 net.
- Hulbert, Homer B. The Passing of Korea. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$3.80 net.
- Hyslop, James H. Borderland of Psychological Research. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co. \$1.50.
- Inge, William Ralph. Truth and Falsehood in Religion. Dutton. \$1.50 net.
- Jackson, Gabrielle E. Wee Winkles and Snowball. Harpers. \$1.25.
- Johnston, J. B. The Nervous System of Vertebrates. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Sons & Co. \$3 net.
- Legends that Every Child Should Know. Edited by Hamilton W. Mabie. Doubleday, Page & Co. 90 cents net.
- Locke, William J. The Belovéd Vagabond. John Lane Co.
- Meakin, Annette M. B. Russia: Travels and Studies. Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$4 net.
- Mineral Industry During 1905. Edited by Walter Rentor Ingalls. Vol. XIV. Engineering and Mining Journal.
- Morasso, Mario. Il Nuovo Aspetto Del Mondo. Milan: Hoepli.
- Morey, William C. Outlines of Ancient History. American Book Co.
- Moss, Mary. The Poet and the Parish. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50.
- Murray, David. Japan. Putnam's. \$1.35 net.
- Opus Epistolarum Erasmi. Edited by P. S. Allen. Vol. I. Henry Frowde.
- Oxford English Dictionary. Edited by James H. Murray. Vol. VI. Henry Frowde.
- Panssen, Friedrich. Das Deutsche Bildungswesen. Lemcke & Buechner.
- Peixotto, Ernest C. By Italian Seas. Scribners. \$2.50 net.
- Pichon, J. E. Premières Notions de Vocabulaire et de Lecture. Henry Frowde.
- Plympton, A. G. Old-Home Day at Hazeltown. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
- Price, William Hyde. The English Patents of Monopoly. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50 net.
- Publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts. Vol. VIII. Boston: Published by the Society.
- Pullitzer, Walter. Cozy Corner Confidences. Dodge Publishing Co. 75 cents.
- Reed, Helen Leah. Brenda's Ward. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
- Rhoades, Nina. Polly's Predicament. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. \$1.50.
- Richards, Ellen H. Food Materials and their Adulterations. Boston: Whitcomb & Barrows.
- Richards, Laura E. The Silver Crown. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.25.
- Richmond, Grace S. The Second Violin. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1.50.
- Ritchie, Arthur. Spiritual Studies in St. Luke's Gospel. Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co.
- Saint Catherine of Siena. Putnam's. \$2.75.
- Schofield, William Henry. English Literature from the Norman Conquest to Chaucer. Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.
- Schwartz, Julia A. Ellnor's College Career. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
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- Shelley, Henry C. Literary By-Paths in Old England. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$3 net.
- Smith, Gertrude. The Beautiful Story of Doris and Julie. Harpers. \$1.30 net.
- Stockwell, C. T. The Evolution of Immortality. Boston: James H. West Co. \$1 net.
- Swete, Henry Barclay. The Apocalypse of St. John. Macmillan Co.
- Taggart, Marion A. Daddy's Daughters. Henry Holt & Co.
- Taggart, Marion A. Six Girls and Bob. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. \$1.50.
- Theodore M. Davis's Excavations: Bibân El Molûk. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
- Tomlinson, Everett T. The Young Rangers. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. \$1.50.
- Wade, Mary Hazelton. Indian Fairy Tales. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. \$1.
- Wade, Mary Hazelton. Old Colony Days. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. 75 cents net.
- Walpole, G. H. S. Personality and Power, or the Secret of Real Influence. Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co. \$1 net.
- Walsh, Walter. The Moral Damage of War. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents net.
- Walters, H. B. The Art of the Greeks. Macmillan Co. \$6.
- Watanna, Onoto. A Japanese Blossom. Harpers.
- Weikel, Anna Hamliu. Betty Baird. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
- Welcome Research Laboratories at the Gordon Memorial College, Khartoum, Second Annual Report.
- Wells, Carolyn. Dorrance Doings. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. \$1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 25, 1906.

The Week.

Among President Roosevelt's new appointments for the Cabinet, that of Mr. Cortelyou for the Treasury will probably excite the most interest. In that important post Mr. Cortelyou will necessarily be an experiment. That he possesses high executive ability, has been demonstrated in the other Cabinet offices which he has held. Whether he is fitted to grapple with the large questions of fiscal policy or expedient, which confront the head of the Treasury now and will probably be still more urgent and vexatious in the next three years, is another matter. Of financial training, in the sense in which the term is used among business men, he has had none. This lack of experience is not a fatal defect; Gallatin, for example, was one of our ablest ministers of finance. We cannot help feeling regret, however, that, at a time when the question of currency reform is coming to a crisis, and when the relations between the Treasury and the market have been complicated by Secretary Shaw's overstepping of the letter of the law, the new incumbent should not be a man whose experience and matured financial opinions would in themselves command unquestioned respect. As for the other appointments, that of Oscar S. Straus, as head of the Department of Commerce and Labor, is easily the best. Mr. Straus made an admirable Minister to Turkey; through his connection with the Civic Federation he has been brought into contact with labor leaders and labor questions. Of his broad view of commercial questions, there can be no doubt. Moreover, he can be relied upon to deal with immigration questions in a sympathetic spirit. But the best thing is that his appointment places in the Cabinet one of the foremost advocates of peace and arbitration in this or any country. George von L. Meyer will make a diligent Postmaster-General; but it is chiefly to his wealth and social alliances that he owes political prominence. The navy may suffer from the transfer of Mr. Bonaparte, an excellent secretary, to the Attorney-Generalship. Mr. Metcalf served on the Naval Committee of the House, but has otherwise no special qualifications as successor to Mr. Bonaparte.

The proposal to lend Government money on security of cotton—gravely set forth in a speech to the Bankers' Convention at St. Louis—we are inclined to regard as one of the first-fruits of Secre-

tary Shaw's recent policy. A few weeks ago the New York bankers wanted to import gold from London. The rate of exchange being then not quite low enough, if they paid interest on the money involved, to make the operation profitable, the bankers appealed to Mr. Shaw to lend them Government money for nothing. He promptly did so. There was no pretence that the Treasury was in any way benefited by the importation; there was no assertion even that the Government was restoring to circulation money withdrawn by its surplus revenue; for, by the terms of Mr. Shaw's arrangement, the loan of public money was to be repaid at once when the gold arrived. Now comes Charles J. Haden of Atlanta, with his plea to the bankers for loans of Government funds to move the cotton crop. "Why," Mr. Haden asks, "should we not call upon the Government for aid, as do the gambling-stricken banks when pressed by frenzied speculation?" In our own old-fashioned opinions about the use of public moneys, we can discover a dozen reasons why such a call should meet with refusal, the chief reason being that the placing of Government funds at the service of private business enterprises is demoralizing to all parties concerned. But Secretary Shaw is certainly estopped from using that argument.

The conviction of the Standard Oil Company, in an Ohio court, for conspiracy, is virtually a triumph for President Roosevelt, since the United States Attorney-General collected most of the evidence. The Anti-Trust law of Ohio makes every day of continuation in an illegal Trust a separate offence, with a possible fine of \$5,000. Such a penalty rigorously imposed would go far to restore the pretty well shattered hope that the fine is an effectual deterrent to corporate offenders. But the effect of such a verdict cannot be measured in dollars and cents. It represents the triumph of the law over the most dangerous and cynical of industrial corporations. We retain our belief that there is very limited help for present evils in mulcting those fictitious and fabulously wealthy personalities we call Trusts. We note that Jack the Giant Killer struck not at the pockets, but at the necks, of his foes. When we see a few high managers of criminal corporations wearing prison garb we shall be within hailing distance of real reform. We may at least rejoice heartily at the good beginning the law has made with the Standard Oil Company. If it is not difficult to fine its legal entity, there is probably some way also of getting at the real conspirators behind the charter.

"It is not possible to defend a rebate case in the present state of popular opinion." Thus the counsel of the New York Central, at the conclusion of the trial in which the railway was convicted of giving rebates to the Sugar Trust. Plainly, no defence was possible in that case. The offence was too flagrant; the proof too conclusive. The Central deliberately violated the law in the devil-may-care spirit of the sandbagger. Yet railroad officials wonder that there is a strong prejudice against their companies, and that Government ownership plans enlist the support not only of demagogues, but of sober men. We regard the conviction of the Central as one of the most important judicial events in years. It will call a halt on dishonest railroad managers the country over. Naturally, Mr. Hearst was quick to make use of the verdict in his campaign. He modestly appeared on the platform at Plattsburgh and read the dispatch announcing "his" victory. He was entitled to do so, for the Attorney-General has testified that his information and proof came from Mr. Hearst's lawyers. This public service must be written down to Mr. Hearst's credit. The incident shows plainly enough why it is that the cries of the agitator and promises of the demagogue no longer pass as unnoticed as the daily noise of the streets.

At the meeting of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, Professor West of Princeton spoke on "The Tutorial System," which was introduced a year ago in his college. He stated that at first the students regarded the plan with amusement and curiosity, and were rather shy of their new instructors, but that they have since learned to appreciate the advantages of supervision and direction in their work. They are pleased with the arrangement, which "is now becoming a part of the college tradition." During the year the library has been consulted as never before. There has also been improvement in discipline. Professor West's allusion to the previous state of things might give an impression that there has been a change from comparative barbarism to civilization: "No longer are there roving bands of students on the campus in the evening, but quiet reigns, and lights are seen in study windows." Anything which could have this effect in so short a time is amazingly beneficial. The mere introduction into Princeton of fifty young university graduates, most of whom have won distinction in some particular branch of learning, has been a stimulus to both professors and students. But as President Hadley of Yale, who

likes the plan, pointed out not long ago, it is undeniably expensive. The endowment required is \$2,500,000—a large sum to invest in any academic experiment.

Five hundred English teachers, divided into small squads, will begin an invasion of this country next month. They represent all grades, from the kindergarten to the university. This enterprise, like previous ones of the same kind, is engineered by Sir Alfred Mosely. His object is to familiarize English educators with systems which he regards as superior to their own. "The American boy," he has said more than once, "is far better fitted for the battle with the world than is the English youth when he leaves school." Sir Alfred Mosely adds the further explanation that "with Americans education is mostly along practical lines; with the English it is along the classical." Indubitably our educators have been less bound by tradition; they have more freely tried experiments, and naturally with studies that may be immediately useful in business or the trades. Without denying that these commercial courses are of some value, we may doubt whether they always supply a mental discipline equal to that of the classics which they replace. If stimulating the mind rather than directly imparting knowledge be the aim of education, the "practical" studies, with their appeal to the stomach, may easily be overdone. Our English visitors will, we trust, remember that in the eighteenth century and the first two-thirds of the nineteenth, Americans, even under the handicap of the studies which Sir Alfred Mosely distrusts, still managed to get on fairly well. The English observers may also discover that with such opportunities for material success as America offers, boys who are trained in the old classical curriculum, or according to the latest plan of our new schools of commerce, or who have escaped pretty much all formal teaching, still win their victories in the battle of life.

Dr. Pierre Janet of Paris, who is now lecturing to the Harvard medical students, has had a long experience in the wards of Salpêtrière, and is the author of a number of important works on psychology and nervous pathology. "Hysteria" is the subject of the present course—a subject upon which he has already published a formal treatise, as well as clinical reports of much value. It is to be wished that he might resume before American audiences the discussion of hypnotism and of dual personality which awakened intense interest nearly twenty years ago in his "L'Automatisme Psychologique." His explanation of certain obscure cases of "the double self," by supposing a disintegration of consciousness, is obviously open to criticism; but in his hands it furnish-

ed a conception of the real process involved, and in particular gave men of science a working hypothesis with which to approach further investigations.

That there are too many scientific congresses is the complaint of a writer in the *Revue Scientifique*. While isolation is a bad thing for the man of science, and while it is essential to his usefulness and reputation that he should at times compare notes with his colleagues, much time, labor, and money are wasted by the multiplicity of these assemblies. A concrete example of the incidental abuses is furnished by the same periodical, in its report of the Medical Congress at Lisbon. One of the chief evils was the diversity of language. The reports were distributed so tardily that members of the congress had no time in which to prepare themselves to speak. There were too many reports relating to the same subject, which gave rise to tiresome repetitions. Much time was lost in attending *fêtes* and other entertainments. Moreover, a number of eminent men failed to appear personally, and their papers were read for them by others. Yet the desire of attending congresses is keen, and it would be cruel to deprive even modest scientists of opportunities to be heard, or to prevent their hearers from manifesting the Christian graces of patience and long-suffering.

There is need of better education among the light-fingered gentry who cut pictures from their frames. That their taste is backward and their judgment doubtful has been recently shown in several instances. We have small patience with the adventurer who has just risked State's prison for the sake of a Meyer von Bremen in the Cincinnati Museum. To choose such a thing when better was to be had suggests an unhappy interference of sentiment with strict business. Even the successful abductors of the Gainsborough Duchess got, after all, only a more than dubious picture, even if their idea of commercial and advertising values seems to have been excellent. In general, however, picture-stealing can hardly rank as a fine art. Safe-cracking seems fairly an intellectual occupation in comparison. Evidently there are obstacles to conducting picture-stealing on a purely artistic basis. Commercial considerations must rightly rule. Moreover, the finest and most renowned pictures can hardly be stolen to advantage, being difficult to sell. Such considerations must excuse much that may seem crude in an essentially liberal occupation. To astute museum directors, the debased state of the picture-stealing profession affords an unexampled opportunity. Every museum should create at least one gallery

of paintings that can be spared. A deaf mute, preferably blind also, should be chosen as custodian, and upon the door-post might hang conspicuously a pair of shears.

Clemenceau's reorganization of the French Ministry calls for little comment, except for the assignment of the war portfolio to Gen. Picquart. This is one of those rare instances in which practical politics and poetic justice meet. In a sense, the appointment is a defiance not merely to moribund Nationalism, but to the more respectable Moderate and Clerical sentiment that was on the wrong side of the *affaire Dreyfus*. It is a gauge of uncompromising Radicalism, and will be hailed with expectant rejoicing by the Socialists also. Otherwise, the Cabinet remains much what it was. M. Briand retains the portfolio of Education and Worship, which promises that the Separation act will be carried into effect without faltering, and yet without bigotry or unnecessary proscription. No French Cabinet for many years has been complete without a Socialist member, and now M. Viviani accepts the newly created Ministry of Labor. M. Pichon, the new Foreign Minister, is Resident-General in Tunis, and has been associated with the colonial and diplomatic service in the Far East. A former colleague of Clemenceau's on *La Justice*, he presumably represents the progressive colonialism so deeply desired on the boulevards, tempered, however, by humanitarian and socialistic scruples. It may fairly be assumed that the Foreign Office will continue the present policy of conciliation with all and of positive friendship with England and Italy. It is premature to offer a forecast of the Clemenceau régime, but in general it may be said that it usually goes ill with a Warwick promoted to the throne. A man of statesmanlike parts, Clemenceau is evidently relentless towards the Reactionaries and Moderates. Having already shown himself, in the post-office strike, too much of an authoritarian to please the Socialists, his middle course will clearly be a difficult one to steer.

The British Admiralty, by turning out the greatest battleship ever seen, with turbine engines and the phenomenal speed of 23 knots an hour, has completely upset American and Continental theories that the turbines were unsuited to warships. Now the Admiralty announces that the three so-called armored cruisers building on the Clyde are not cruisers at all, but battleships, with as heavy broadside fire as the Dreadnought, and of four knots greater speed. Indeed, these three vessels will actually be seven knots faster than any American, German, or French battleships, as

a speed of 27 knots is confidently expected on their trials. Only one or two of our battleships can make 20 knots; the bulk of them average 17 under service conditions. In other words, the English designers have borne out the prophets who have been looking forward to the day when the distinction between the armored cruiser and the battleship would cease to be. Our Navy Department, which has been for a year planning to outdo the Dreadnought, finds itself compelled to readapt its plans in accordance with the designs of the new English battleships. As a sort of consolation, the American experts are trying to figure out that their twelve-inch guns are about the same as the British in size and ballistic qualities. From that there is but little satisfaction to be obtained, for the truth is that, by the revolutionary speed obtained for her new battleships, England has more than ever emphasized her naval superiority. No matter how much her naval rivals may strive to imitate her, England can always get ahead of them by her ability to build, equip, and send to sea a great battleship fully a year before a vessel started in any other country at the same time.

The United States is not the only country in which protection is steadily making life harder for the laboring man. In Germany the price of meat has gone up so much that thousands of people are no longer able to purchase any. When prices jumped a year ago, there was a great outcry. The only response from the Government was a statement from the Minister of the Interior that the trouble was temporary, due to a bad crop year. Nevertheless, the price of meat has continued to rise, so that there is genuine suffering. A beef steer which cost \$32.45 in Berlin in July, 1904, cost \$34.40 in July, 1905, and \$36.87 in July of this year. On the 29th of September last, the price had risen to \$41.75. The price of pork has gone up correspondingly. The Berlin *Tageblatt* proves conclusively that this is due not merely to the increase of population, as the Government has alleged, but that there has been a marked falling off in the possible supply. It points out that, instead of doing something to help the poor by making it easy to import cattle from abroad, the Government, at the bidding of the Agrarians, is doing everything it can to make importations more difficult. In 1895 the importation of Danish hogs was stopped. This was followed in 1900 by the prohibition of all imports of sausage and canned meats. In 1904, there was the edict against American hogs, and in the same year a ban upon hogs and ruminants from France, Belgium, Holland, and England. In the meanwhile, more stringent health regulations have made

it even more difficult to import cattle on the hoof. This year have come increased tariffs on cattle and meat. It is obvious, therefore, that the situation is getting worse rather than better.

While the Dutch are seriously discussing ways and means of averting ultimate absorption by Germany, now that hope of a direct successor to the throne seems to have been abandoned, the Belgians, too, are growing panicky in face of the Pan-Germanic movement. The French press in Belgium is greatly exercised over a plan recently set on foot by the German part of the population to secure legal recognition of their native tongue. In 1900 the number of German-speaking inhabitants was only 2 per cent. of the total; but the ratio may have increased somewhat since then. The claim is based on the constitutional right enjoyed by every Belgian to make use of his native language in his relations with the educational, administrative, and judicial departments of the Government. Admitting, however, their numerical weakness, the Germans declare that they will be content with an official recognition of their rights without seeking to have them enforced. The Flemish representatives in the Chamber, contrary to common expectation, have come out against the demands of the German-Belgians, possibly because they are convinced of the necessity of offering a check to German aspirations in general.

The head that wears a crown may be a very good head for business. In the attacks upon Leopold II. of Belgium, in his relation to the Congo Free State, fresh revelations continue to be made. Next to the notorious Abir Rubber Company, the most prosperous corporation in the Congo is the Kasai Company, in which the State, that is to say, King Leopold, owns half of the stock. The State exacts its tax from the natives in the form of rods of copper, shaped like a St. Andrew's cross, which the Government receives at a valuation of one and a quarter francs apiece. But these crosses are only to be purchased from the Kasai Company, to which the Government sells them at three and one-half francs apiece, and which in turn makes a handsome profit on the sale to the natives. In other words, the State receives three and a half francs for a cross which it takes back at one and a quarter francs, and in addition, as half-partner in the Kasai Company, shares in the profit on the subsequent sale of the copper. Compared with the King of Belgium, Abdul Hamid II. appears positively beneficent. The Sultan is the controlling spirit of a land company operating in the Mesopotamian valley, where it has been expropriating the richest sections. This is accomplished

ly manipulation of the water supply. The peasant "must make the best terms he can with the man who can at will cut him off from all irrigation. He sells his land for a song." In applying the latest Trust methods to high commerce it is evidently a distinct advantage to be a monarch of some sort. If with the royal functions goes the spiritual headship over faithful millions, so much the better. Thus the Sultan is under no compulsion from anti-Trust laws to vest the ownership of his land in a holding company, say, at Samarcand or Zanzibar.

In a book recently published, Dr. Binet-Sanglé tries to show that the Hebrew prophets from Samuel to Malachi were insane. Since certain critics doubt the historical reality of the patriarchs, it is almost reassuring to be told that the prophets actually lived even if they were mad. Of course, if the Oriental language and imagery of the Hebrew seers are taken literally, there are passages in their writings which are not conformed to the every-day experiences of Americans, or even of Frenchmen. Their visions may be interpreted as hallucinations, their denunciation of their enemies as violence, and their apprehensions of coming disaster as delusions. But upon such a principle, many modern poets might be consigned to the psychopathic ward, while Dante, Milton, and Bunyan would, like Jeremiah and Ezekiel, be put in the class of *aliénés*. In both ancient and mediæval times, genius and insanity were thought to be allied. Dryden expressed that idea in his famous epigram. Of late years such a belief has found support in the writings of Lélut, Moreau, Lombroso, Nesbit, and others, who contend that extraordinary mental ability is an evidence of a diseased brain. But there are strong general reasons for thinking it improbable that what goes by the name of genius is a morbid characteristic. While it has never been asserted that insanity is a mark of genius, it would seem that, if genius is a mark of insanity, there should be signs of high intellectual and moral inspiration among the great numbers confined in asylums. But with the exception of craft and cunning, qualities of an intellectual kind are singularly lacking in those unfortunates. Even the insane who can still reason, but whose premises are the result of delusion, seldom show even a spark of the divine fire. It is natural that all eyes should be directed towards conspicuous defects and aberrations in the character of men who have great intellectual and emotional endowments. But as one of the most eccentric yet most brilliant philosophers has said, such men are like Mont Blanc, which lifts its shining head above the clouds which darken its slopes.

NEW LIGHT ON EUROPEAN DIPLOMACY.

The real importance of the Hohenlohe "Memoirs," it now appears, lies in the exposure of German diplomacy about the time the Franco-Russian alliance was formed. Almost equally important is the explanation of German foreign policy for twenty years past as consistently anti-liberal, monarchical, and pro-Russian. Indubitable testimony bears out surmises in this tenor, and the general belief that France was befooled by Russia, and Austria and Italy ignored by the initiator of the Triple Alliance, receives striking confirmation. Ex-Minister Lockroy, speaking at Rome last Sunday, urged the Italian Francophile party to associate Italy with the Anglo-French *entente*, as a means of assuring "the triumph of democratic principles in Europe." Undoubtedly, the sentiment to which he appealed will be greatly strengthened among French, English, and Italian readers of the Hohenlohe revelations.

The league of three Emperors—Dreikaiserbund—was a favorite dream of William I. It was to be a sort of limited Holy Alliance against democracy, Socialism, and liberalism of all sorts. On November 2, 1884, the old Kaiser, commenting on Joseph Chamberlain's plan to create peers enough to pass the franchise bill, remarked that, if republican tendencies got the upper hand in England, "we shall have hard work keeping our places." It was this feeling that dictated the so-called "reinsurance" with Russia, which is in moral effect to-day. By this secret agreement, Russia was to have a free hand in the Balkans, agreeing to maintain neutrality in case of war between Germany and France. The agreement calmly ignored the claims of Italy and Austria in European Turkey; and, as Caprivi remarked when he refused to renew the treaty, in 1891, "if it had become known, it would have broken up the Triple Alliance." The treaty lapsed, but the spirit which gave it validity persisted till the eve of the Franco-Russian alliance. Indeed, the most interesting, and glaringly indiscreet, portion of the "Memoirs" is the account of Hohenlohe's conversations with the Czar and other high Russian officials, just before Nicholas II.'s spectacular visit to Paris in the fall of 1896.

On an earlier occasion, Lobanoff, the Russian Chancellor, told Hohenlohe that Russia "did Europe a good service by taking up France. God knows what these people might have gone and done if they had not been reined in." Naturally, Nicholas II. never committed himself in quite the cynical terms of his confidential adviser, but he took pains, nevertheless, to explain away the Paris visit. Speaking with Hohenlohe in September, 1896, the Czar "mentioned that

he had not spoken to the Emperor about Paris, and he asked me if I had any objection to his visit to Paris. He was pleased when I replied that the visit to Paris seemed to me to be 'inevitable.' He laid stress upon the fact that he had declined to put up at the Quai d'Orsay, or anywhere else in Paris. He was going to stay at his own embassy, like all his predecessors." In view of the furore created by the Paris visit, this attempt to minimize it is of curious interest. But France wanted an ally, and Russia a banker, and the part the Czar played in this exchange of French money for Russian amiabilities did not require deep conviction on the part of the leading gentleman.

All the remarks of the Czar at this time are of considerable political interest. Discussing tentative overtures from England, he fully agreed with Hohenlohe that "the English Constitution and the account which English ministers have to take of public opinion made it impossible to conclude treaties with England." In view of the Anglo-Japanese alliance and the Anglo-French *entente*, these words are worth recalling; and since the opinion of the Czar can hardly have altered, they throw a certain light, also, on the prospects for an understanding between England and Russia. On the other hand, the Czar discredited the favorite bugbear of the English Russophobes, the advance on India. On Hohenlohe's remarking that the British activity in South Africa was really impelled by the dread of some day losing India, the Czar replied: "Yes, but who is going to take India from them? We are not so stupid as to pursue a design of that sort." These words should be kept standing by every enlightened newspaper in England, for use whenever the periodical Russian ague afflicts the young lions of the press.

Certain remarks of the Czar look forward to the war in Manchuria, if only by implication. He liked the Japanese, i.e. told Hohenlohe. Everything he had seen in Japan had greatly impressed him. He had been struck by the great orderliness, activity, and intelligence of the population. "But this sympathy," he added, "has not kept me from acting against the Japanese when they have gone too far." No doubt of his ability to check them had entered his head: He further declared that Japan was arming at a great rate, but had no resources except the Chinese war indemnity. "When these were exhausted, he could not think how they were going to complete their military preparations. Besides, they would take years to do it, and by that time the Siberian railway would be ready, and then Russia would be in a position *de faire face à toutes éventualités*." Evidently, the financial reckonings of Russia were no better than her military forecasts.

We need not enlarge upon the pathetic interest of these reports of the views of the youthful Czar. They throw light upon the unwritten covenant between Germany and Russia, and explain the dynastic sympathy that found such striking expression during the war in the Far East. When Nicholas II. took leave of Hohenlohe in September, 1896, he used these surprising words: "Tell the Kaiser to continue to write to me personally when he has anything to communicate." Such a message, we venture to think, has rarely been transmitted to a potentate through his Prime Minister. Perhaps the chief value of the memoirs is the revelation of the importance of such dynastic sympathies—an influence which liberal governments are prone to underestimate or even to regard as obsolete. But the spectacle which Prince Hohenlohe affords of the arbiters of Germany and Russia either scorning or deceiving pretty much all the rest of Europe, is certainly calculated to increase the diplomatic isolation of Germany. One can hardly wonder that the Kaiser wants the present Prince Hohenlohe's resignation, or that the Prince plans to spend his remaining years in the salubrious climate of the French Riviera.

THE NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERIES AGREEMENT.

According to our new *modus vivendi* with England respecting the Newfoundland fisheries, the English Government will "not bring into force" (that is, will temporarily disallow) the "Newfoundland Foreign Fishing Vessels Act, 1906," imposing additional restrictions upon American shipmasters. It also consents to the use of purse seines by American fishermen during the coming season, though "due regard" is to be "paid, in the use of such implements, to other modes of fishery." On its part, the American Government undertakes to direct American fishing vessels to conform to the Colonial customs law and harbor regulations, "when physically possible to do so." This will cause the Captains Courageous of Gloucester to take fresh courage; also, we fancy, to indulge in fresh laughter. Further, our Government, while maintaining the right to ship Newfoundlanders, has "assured his Majesty's Government that such shipments, if found necessary, will be made at a sufficient distance beyond the three-mile limit."

These provisions make the wrath of the Newfoundlanders, concerning which we have heard so much in the dispatches from St. John's, wholly intelligible. They regard their entire herring fishery as imperilled. They made in 1905 what they believed to be a perfectly fair convention—the Hay-Bond treaty—to secure reciprocal rights in the fisheries. But this, our Senate refused to ratify,

Lodge taking the lead against that Administration measure. Thereupon, Newfoundland set about defending her interests. As our intensely American shipmasters, in their patriotic efforts to make their fishing fleet a "nursery of American sailors," are in the habit of shipping great numbers of Blue Neses, at low wages, the Newfoundland Legislature passed an act providing that "no British subject shall leave the colony for the purpose of joining a foreign vessel to fish in its waters"; also, more explicitly, that "no British subject shall fish in any foreign fishing vessel in the waters of this colony." The act likewise forbade the selling or leasing of "fishing gear," of any kind, to foreign fishing vessels. Prohibition of purse seines has been the law in Newfoundland for twenty-five years. It is believed to be necessary if the herring are not to be made as scarce as mackerel have been, by the use of purse seines. Indeed, since the announcement of the agreement, the fishermen of both nationalities on the spot have consented to give up this method of fishing. Thus that clause of the *modus* is abandoned by its beneficiaries. With regard to the obligation of American vessels to enter and clear at the colonial custom-houses, and to submit to inspection, it is maintained by the Newfoundland authorities that only by such means can they be assured that the schooners are really American. No others have the treaty right to fish in colonial waters, and the colony asserts that it is in duty bound to board vessels and make sure that they are not smugglers or pirates.

Very naturally, the disallowing of this legislation has caused great excitement and indignation in St. John's. There was talk of the Ministry resigning in a body, as a protest, after the fashion of the Government of Cape Colony. But the final decision was to remain in office and fight the matter through. Every colonial statute enforceable against American vessels will be employed. It was even proposed to repeal the law forbidding colonial fishermen to use purse seines, the idea being that the local fishermen would thus be able to anticipate the Americans, and take practically all the annual catch in the Bay of Islands. But that would only drive Lodge and the other tariff-dodgers into new devices for buying the herring of Newfoundlanders, and then having them entered free of duty at Gloucester as "the product of American fisheries."

All this friction, however, but accentuates the need of following up the *modus vivendi* with a comprehensive treaty, fair to both Newfoundland and New England, thus putting to rest a question that has troubled our diplomacy for many years. Secretary Root has expressed the determination to clear up, if possible, every pending controversy

with England. This fisheries dispute is the most vexing of all. That the English Government has made great temporary concessions, even at the cost of inflaming its own subjects, is an earnest of good will on that side. We can but hope, therefore, that the *modus vivendi* is but the precursor of a treaty which will be broad enough and fair enough to withstand the assaults of Senator Lodge, and to remove forever a cause of ill feeling between natural friends.

WANTED—A NATIONAL GALLERY.

The *Burlington Magazine*, with its customary enthusiasm in museum matters, urges editorially the creation of a national gallery at Washington under the administration of the Smithsonian. Although the scheme is advocated with a somewhat nonchalant hopefulness as to ways and means, it has intrinsically much in its favor. Washington is the natural location for a gallery of American art—a museum that should not merely display the art of the past, but should encourage that of the present, becoming a sort of American Luxembourg. Such a project has been frequently mooted, but no practical steps have been taken, partly because the fine arts have never had influential advocates at Washington, partly, perhaps, because the Corcoran Gallery, a private foundation, seemed to occupy the field. A recent judicial decision, however, has revived interest in the artistic function of the Smithsonian Institution. By its character it is empowered to collect and exhibit objects of art and of curiosity. Before the fire of 1865 it had considerable collections; it now possesses the important print collection of the late G. P. Marsh; has accepted the reversion of C. L. Freer's splendid collection of American and Japanese paintings; and, by the court decision already noted, becomes the keeper of the art collection of the late Harriet Lane Johnston. So far as the organization of an art department goes, the Smithsonian has no conspicuous connoisseur on its staff, but it already represents in an eminent degree the cautious scholarship that should preside over such an enterprise.

On grounds of economy, too, the Smithsonian is the natural body to create a national gallery. In the projected National Museum building, an art department could be accommodated for many years to come. Thus money which on any other basis must be spent upon a separate building, could be devoted to acquisitions. And in the present rapidly rising art market, money in hand has threefold purchasing power. Since the Smithsonian has no funds for such a new departure, the scheme for a national gallery depends entirely upon the generosity of Congress. But one can hardly doubt that a plan at once inexpensive, intrinsically desirable, and

patriotic would make a strong appeal to our law-makers. It is no question here of the enormous endowment that a general museum requires. We believe the estimate of the *Burlington Magazine* to be conservative, when it fixes the current budget for both administration and purchases at \$25,000 annually. It should be recalled that if the museum concentrates upon American art, the usual expensive staff will be unnecessary, a curator-director with proper assistance sufficing. It would be very important, however, that Congress should at the outset make a handsome appropriation of, say, \$100,000, in order to found the historical collection. The prices of old American painting and sculpture are rising, and money spent now will save multiplied expenditure in the future. We can hardly doubt that, if the Smithsonian Institution will magnify its own function and plead its own cause vigorously, Congress will gladly vote the necessary funds.

It might be asked, Why restrict the aims of a national gallery to the exhibition of American art? We answer, frankly, because an American museum is more urgently needed, because it might exert a useful influence upon our art and our standards of taste, and, finally, because the limited and patriotic appeal is far more likely to gain the support of Congress. To rival the Metropolitan Museum without adequate funds would be very foolish. The Corcoran Gallery is an instructive example of the drawbacks of conducting a museum in a capital on an income adapted only to provincial requirements. If Congress would appropriate a matter of a half-million annually to maintain a comprehensive museum, that would be worth while, but the modest plan suggested above seems more likely to be carried out. Of course, a national gallery would by gift acquire many examples of non-American art. We have recalled that the Smithsonian already has a representative collection of European engraving, and is to possess a rare collection of the finest painting of China and Japan. Undoubtedly, the general collections would be similarly enriched as time went on. In fact, the prestige of such a national museum would from the first bring it gifts in abundance. No one, for example, could make a more dignified disposal of heirlooms of painting, while artists and their friends would naturally seek the honor of representation on its walls. The funds would properly be spent in buying the pictures of the younger artists of talent; the veterans—at least the more successful ones—could fairly be counted on to contribute by gift or bequest.

Evidently the director of such a museum should be an enthusiast for American art, but it would be highly unfortunate if he were nothing more than that. He should be familiar also with the best art of all periods. What the

production of our modern studios needs most is to be judged, apart from parochial applause, by something like a universal standard. In fact, the most important function of a national gallery might well be the creation of a sound national taste. Not only would a director at Washington be fortunately remote from the promptings of the artistic cliques, but he would find a body of spectators singularly receptive to any lesson he might choose to address to their eyes. There is no city in America where travellers go so frequently merely "for to see, and for to admire." A collection of the finest works that American artists have produced, or are producing, could from Washington extend an educating and refining influence to the remotest hamlet in the land. The realization of such a dream depends apparently upon the zeal of the regents of the Smithsonian Institution and upon the good will of Congress.

MUTE, INGLORIOUS LITERATURE.

William Butler Yeats returns to a favorite and suggestive theme in his essay on "Literature and the Living Voice" in the *Contemporary Review*. He maintains that the nerveless quality of much modern writing is due to the fact that literature, like the proverbial good child, is seen but not heard. Recalling the days when the minstrel still held his own against the scribe, Mr. Yeats bids Ireland, which still represents "the old world that sang and listened," resist to the last "the world that reads and writes." More practically, he hopes first for a revival of the habit of recitation, especially by authors, and believes that the popular stage, like his own unique enterprise at Dublin, may again become a place where the people hear the best literature, learning the poets not from the inexpressive page, but from the living voice of skilled interpreters.

Mr. Yeats's peculiar theories of cantilating verse have excited considerable comment. The presence of the great *disceuse*, Mme. Yvette Guilbert, among us is evidence enough that there is between singing and recitation an opportunity for great art. That this art is generally communicable, we doubt; and we hardly expect to see even in Ireland poets who habitually practise recitative to the rote or some modern equivalent, or a guild of minstrels who declaim sonorously to the dulcimer. But if Mr. Yeats's remedy for the widespread poverty of style seems fanciful, he has at least done much to explain a prevailing anæmia in modern literature. It may fairly be maintained that only of late years has the eye been the sole medium of literary enjoyment. When books were comparatively few, and the habits of readers leisurely, even silent perusal was undoubtedly accompanied by a sub-

consciousness of the sound of the voice. If there is one quality more marked than another in Elizabethan poetry, it is that it was always a heard thing. It must have rung alluring in the ears of its authors; to-day, it rouses any but the most inert reader to break silence and give voice to its splendid cadences. With the great romantic writers, Byron, Shelley, and Keats in England, Lamartine, Chateaubriand, and Hugo in France, the case was the same. Their periods crave utterance, and can be appreciated only dimly by those who have no consciousness of the sound.

When the change came about and readers lost the use of the inner ear, is matter of simple conjecture. It evidently hangs upon the enormous modern production of books, and the habit of silent reading. The hypothesis that most books of the last fifty years have been written by deaf people for deaf people would explain many things. It would throw some light on the admitted saplessness of current French prose. Possibly the average review article, with all its erudition and keenness, is pale and monotonous simply because it was never heard or meant to be heard. Like a muted instrument, such a style has neither legato nor accent. And that is the prose of the day, whether you look to France, Germany, Italy, or, nearer home, to England and America. Everywhere the same respectable, lifeless, insipid product. Certain scholars in Germany have recommended that school children be taught not to pronounce mentally when reading, because more ground may be covered the other way. The prevalence of such literary deafness would go far to account for the present condition of polite letters beyond the Rhine, though the defect is well-nigh universal.

To recall the exceptional modern writers who are in any sense eloquent, is, we believe, to name those who hear their writings and desire that others should hear them. D'Annunzio, Anatole France, Thomas Hardy, are of this type, whereas one might confidently assert that Fogazzaro, Bourget, and Mrs. Humphry Ward compose without auditory satisfaction of any sort. The distinction is presumably psychological and fundamental. Just as memories are classed as visual or verbal, so minds are auditory or the contrary, tending in the first case to associate sound and sense, in the second to eliminate sound altogether. A reader of an introspective sort tells us that in reading poetry he habitually recites it mentally, whereas he seldom hears prose at all, but occasionally is checked by an instinct that a passage is finely cadenced, in which case he rolls it lovingly under his mental tongue. Eloquent verse will stimulate the inaudible recitation to an actual whisper, or even a croon. This appears to be a case of a good—that is to say, an audi-

tory—reader, forced into the deaf, or merely ocular, class by a large bulk of duty-reading that must be done at high speed. The future of literature depends largely upon writers and readers who are in some fashion obedient to the living voice, and it is one of the most paradoxical instances of the prevailing intellectual confusion that, just as painting is striving to attain to the vagueness of musical expression, literature is disavowing its natural ally, indeed, its proper medium, the human voice.

On natural principle of flux and reflux, one may expect a return to the better way. We may not see again a Virgil and a Cæsar weeping together at a private reading, but may fairly hope for some reaction against the present surdity. Fortunately, the habit of mental audition can be cultivated, and writers will find their practical account in testing their product vocally. Similarly, readers who insist that the ear be satisfied as well as the mind are already in a manner critics. In fact, criticism in the genuine sense can hardly exist on any other basis. The point may seem to some narrowly rhetorical, but it is a case where an improvement in the form must infallibly work an improvement in the substance also. Here Mr. Yeats brings indubitable testimony when he describes the results of rewriting his plays for popular audiences. He says:

Every one who has to interest his audience through the voice discovers that his success depends upon the clear, simple, and varied structure of his thought. I have written a good many plays in verse and prose, and almost all those plays I have rewritten after performance, sometimes again and again, and every change that has succeeded has been an addition to the masculine element, an increase of strength in the bony structure.

It is precisely this access of "bony structure" that modern literature most needs, and while Mr. Yeats has verse chiefly in mind, the doctrine applies with equal validity to prose, where surely the need of reform is more urgent.

AN S. P. C. P.

Some benevolent but misguided person has proposed that a society be formed for the prevention of cruelty to parents. But no such reactionary step will, we hope, be taken. Emancipation of successive classes has been a mark of human progress. The spiritual control of the laity by the clergy has given place to the government of the pulpit by the pew. Kings and emperors hold their sceptres by the favor of their subjects. And fathers and mothers are beginning to be aware that they have no rights which their children are bound to respect. That they should enjoy special immunities or privileges would be absurd. In all progress there is a class which suffers and complains. And if:

parents are suffering now because their children are getting the upper hand, they should not look to any voluntary society for relief.

Unfortunately, children have necessarily to be burdened with what Stevenson called "subsidiary parents." Thus shades of the prison-house begin to close upon the growing boy and girl; they seek greater freedom. Their consequent rise to a place of authority in the family is in many cases the effect of their superior education. Not only have they better advantages at school than their parents had before them; they also make acquaintances who move beyond the narrow parental circle. The fathers soon learn to abdicate to sons who have been educated with social superiors; and no daughter who has been properly "finished" would think of submitting her opinions to those of her mother. Estimable wives of political magnates or of millionaires may be dressed by the best *modistes* of Paris and New York; they may have the art of giving good dinners and "smart" balls; they may do well for fashionable charities, and may even show a halting respect for the rules of grammar. But without the approval of their daughters, it profiteth them nothing.

In former days wayward children could be corrected by rebuke or chastened with a rod; but now the absorbing problem in families is how best to check erring parents and encourage them to persevere on the way to social eminence. Mothers may get endorsements from their children as good housekeepers, convenient chaperons, or faithful nurses; but of the finer social practices they are too often shockingly ignorant. Occasionally, they are trained in the way that they should go by their daughters, but "queer ideas" have a trick of haunting the brains of unruly matrons. Generally, they plod on quietly and peacefully, sometimes to their own social undoing, indeed, but frequently to a pleasant, shopping, dining-out, sitting-out, tiara-wearing, corpulent old age, heedless of a daughter's tears and admonitions. In view of the fact that these shortcomings are often due to congenital defects, it has been contended that children should be more indulgent. But over-indulgence on their part has hurried many parents to their ruin.

As for fathers, they do not so much matter. In developed societies the paternal function has not been highly specialized. The father is a bread-winner, and his kingdom is not of the world in which his children move. It is true that, with obsolete ideas of the *patria potestas*, he has sometimes made a feeble stand as the purveyor of munitions for the social warfare. But by intelligent sons and daughters it has been decided that, however highly he may be esteemed in Wall Street, he is out of place in the rarefied air in which they live and

move and have their being. Fathers take no due interest in the weightier matters of social life. For a brief period during the early childhood of their offspring they manifest a proper spirit by believing in the inspiration of the children, and by quoting their sayings as if they had been uttered at Delphi. But as a social asset, a father is of little importance. Viewed merely as a blood-relative, no indulgence should be shown to him. Even if he should repent his mistakes and senile follies, and declare that he will arise and go unto his son, let there be no minstrelsy or fatted calf provided for him.

In the life of the very rich, some parents still seek to resemble those curfew incarnate in humble life who keep the girls at home and the boys out of the bar-rooms. Middle life and old age, even when money is abundant, are too hidebound to get accustomed to the manners of the new generation of young men who are old and worn before they graduate, and of young women who win or lose large sums at gambling. But whether parents are young or old, children have a right to expect from them implicit obedience. At first this may be difficult, but, as Aristotle says, "Virtue is a habit," and it can be acquired. No one therefore should complain of cruelty to parents. The chastisement which they endure may be grievous, but it will finally yield the peaceable fruits of righteousness. There are surely enough elements of anarchy in modern society without the encouragement of parental revolt. The man who "never shook his mother" was a rude denizen of the uncultured West; he should not be held up as an example for imitation. In these days of progress, theologians well say that all infants are elect, and that the Fifth Commandment is a part of the code of primitive tribes.

A LATINIST AT A SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

Prof. Andrew F. West, who is now president-elect of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has a high reputation as a Latinist, but is even better known as an administrator. From the beginning of his Princeton professorate, in 1883, he has been a prominent figure both in the various learned societies, and in the intercollegiate committees on entrance requirements, etc. He was the organizing spirit of the Princeton sesquicentennial celebration of 1896. It was he who, as secretary, secured as delegates more famous European scholars than had ever before graced an academic festivity in America. Besides raising the money and arranging these academic pomps, he carried out the happy innovation of having the illustrious delegates of foreign universities deliver lectures, many of which, being of permanent value, were published as a memorial of the event. In 1901 he became dean of the Princeton Graduate School, and has had a large hand in reor-

ganizing a rather rudimentary department upon a genuine university basis. He was also influential in securing the excellent adjustment of the old classical curriculum to the new elective system, which gives Princeton a uniquely conservative position among American universities. He favored also the new preceptorial system of personal instruction, which introduces to America a method long approved at Oxford and Cambridge. In fine, his attitude has been that of a convinced classicist, yet one thoroughly perceptive of the educational claims of the natural sciences and the modern languages. Thus his call to the leadership of a scientific school is less paradoxical than it would seem.

Andrew F. West was born in 1853 at Allegheny, Pa., the son of a Presbyterian clergyman. During his college course at Princeton, from which he was graduated in 1874, he formed that close personal friendship with President McCosh, which nine years later led to the appointment to a professorship of Latin at Princeton. In the meantime, Mr. West travelled, taught school, and pursued his favorite classical studies. Early in the eighties he became principal of the historic Morris Academy, Morristown, N. J., which he soon brought from a languishing to a highly prosperous condition. The enthusiasm which he has since evinced in many fields was there shown in his personal introduction of the then new Rugby football, being the captain of the school team, and in the zest with which he organized the school exhibitions.

His old college gave him the degree of Ph.D. and made him a professor of Latin in 1883. In the intervals of teaching he prepared an edition of the comedies of Terence, published in 1888; and that elaborate edition of the "Philobiblon" of Richard de Bury which the Grollier Club published handsomely in 1889. In this work, which remains Professor West's most congenial and perhaps important achievement, he anticipated the recent revival of interest in mediæval Latin among Latinists even of the severer type. His growing attention to educational problems and to the origins of humanism found expression in the little treatise, "Alcuin and the Rise of the Christian Schools" (1893). A Latin grammar (1902) is his latest contribution to the pedagogics of his subject. A number of articles and addresses on college subjects, especially an able critique of the elective system as conceived by President Eliot of Harvard, attest his interest in academic theory and have increased his influence. It is for these semi-public activities quite as much as for his scholarship that he has received his honorary degrees, LL.D. (Lafayette) and D.Litt. (Oxford).

It is significant that the trustees of the Institute of Technology seek as an administrator not a scientist, but a classicist of the widest general culture. They tacitly accept in this decision a favorite doctrine of the late President Walker, who valiantly maintained that the curriculum of his school should be, and was actually, more humane and liberal than that of the old-style colleges. Professor West's appointment should probably be interpreted in this spirit. If he accepts, he will bring to his new responsibility not merely the scholastic qualifications we have enumerated, but those of a personality at once astute, engaging, and impressive.

BOOK NOTES FROM PARIS.

PARIS, October 9.

Now that French winds blow steadily toward a Culturkampf, books which are more than political pamphlets on the situation are worth noticing. The most important is still the "Anticléricalisme" of Emile Faguet of the French Academy. His book is an attempt at a thorough diagnosis of the case in French society, but it is not written from the clerical point of view. A university professor, Victor Giraud, whose studies on Sainte-Beuve have made him favorably known in criticism, now publishes a short book, "Anticléricalisme et Catholicisme," in which he tries to complete the work from the standpoint of a confirmed Catholic. He reproaches M. Faguet's "national irreligion" with being only one side of the question, and remarks sensibly enough that there must be some religion left in France, if only to explain the violence of the Anticlericals. His main conclusion is in direct opposition with what is commonly taken for granted:

Politically vanquished, tracked and proscribed and persecuted, almost eliminated from public life and official organizations, never since Bossuet and St. Francis de Sales, perhaps not since the thirteenth century, has French Catholicism in reality been stronger, more fruitful, more alive.

Professor Giraud appeals to the present Catholic literary revival, which is as yet unheralded abroad, but which may be studied in another new book, "La Littérature Religieuse d'avant-hier et d'aujourd'hui," by Henri Brémond, the young priest with English experience who has written the notable psychological study of Newman. From the standpoint of a Liberal Catholic layman, Imbart de La Tour, the historian, publishes "The Conditions of Religious and Social Revival in France," comparing the present situation with that of fifty years ago, when Montalembert wrote his "Catholic Interests of the Nineteenth Century." All these writers, like M. Brunetière, deprecate anxiously any formation of a Catholic political party or any connection of Catholics as such with political parties.

Antoine Albalat, who is responsible for curious studies of the ways in which French authors form their style and write their books, publishes a useful work, "Pages Choies," of selections from Louis Veillot. This intensely personal journalist's daily controversy for more than forty stirring years down to his death in 1883 made him feared and detested; and on account of his name being a symbol of the fiercest Clericalism, he never became known abroad as the really great writer which he was. Jules Lemaitre, long before he entered the French Academy, rendered justice to the qualities of Veillot as a writer with a style transforming itself at will from sledge hammer into knife, subtly dissecting soul from spirit, and lancet-puncturing the most promising literary swellings. Little by little the higher journalists at least have come to recognize that Louis Veillot was the master of them all. The very genuine democracy of Veillot, working his way up from poverty in a rich *bourgeois* society which chiefly profited by the Revolution, is perhaps another title to latter-day sympathies. To the French language he contributed the happy word *boulevardier* and the complex term *odours de Paris*.

In a communication made to the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, M. Maspéro narrates the results of the latest excavations in Egypt. Among them is a find of such interest to Greek scholars that it is not safe to estimate its value for the present. At Kom Schgaon, a locality to which M. Maspéro's attention had been attracted several years ago, fifty fine manuscript rolls have been discovered, one of which is more than four yards long. Among them one contains some 1,200 unpublished lines of a comedy by Menander. These will be published shortly, and may help to make known in his own work a classical author hitherto read chiefly through Latin imitations.

Prince Albert of Monaco has undertaken the collective publication of the most ancient manifestations of pictorial art—engravings and paintings on the rock walls of caves dating from the later palæolithic age (cut stone). The first systematic student of this art, Emile Rivière of the Collège de France, presented at a late meeting of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres his own series of reproductions in photogravure and plaster casts of the chief examples found by him in the cave of La Mouthe, Dordogne. With the exception of the figure of a hut, all represent animals life-size or smaller. The bison, antelope, ibex, reindeer, a bearded horse, an ass resembling the wild Siberian *asinus hemionus*, a mammoth, and various felines are easily recognizable. The cave of La Mouthe is about 650 feet long. Besides the pictures on its walls, it has yielded thousands of bones of different species of animals, with flint and bone tools. At another session, Abbé Breuil, whose work is aided by the Academy's subsidies, gave a summary of results obtained in six caves of the province of Santander, Spain. One, adorned with engravings only, shows a tailed anthropoid. Another, having red-dot frescoes, portrays a horse and deer, and yet another in the same style has two canines. The most archaic engraving is found at Molinar, Biscay, representing bisons and cave bears. The primitive drawings are mere outlines, but later on there is an attempt at modeling forms. An elephant in red apparently differs from the mammoth commonly represented. The entire collection of these art representations gives a certain completeness to our knowledge of the environment of the men of the later Old Stone Age in Western Europe. It is almost entirely due to the labors of MM. Rivière, Cartailhac, Capitan, Duleau, and the Abbé Breuil, and, in Spain, to Señor Del Rio and the Reverend Padre Sierra, the discoverers of the new caves.

Correspondence.

RISTORI AND SALVINI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an article on the late Adelaide Ristori in the *Nation* of October 11, the writer, speaking as one of "the older generation of playgoers" who remember Ristori "as she was when she last appeared in this city," says that, "applauded though she was here, she found us cool," and cites a report of her having said to Salvini when

he was leaving Italy for New York, "Give 'em comedy, Tommy. They won't listen to your tragedy." Your writer adds that Salvini accordingly "played the feeble David Garrick, making it seem a masterpiece, and failed dismally."

Now when Salvini first came to this country in the autumn of 1874, Ristori had, of course, appeared here, but only on her first visit of 1866, not on that last American tour which only old playgoers are now supposed to remember. The visit which your critic probably had in mind is one of which I find no mention, either in his article, or in your briefer notice of the death of the great actress, in the same number. My own first and last recollection of her (for I did not happen to see her in 1880) belongs to that visit; and the chill, which I not only noticed but felt, was due, in my case, to the spell, still unbroken, of Salvini's Othello of the year before. My playbills of two performances, "Maria Stuart" and "Medea," given at the Academy of Music in Philadelphia on April 22 and 23, make no mention of the year (why do playbills so often omit this particular?)—but my more precise impression is confirmed by reference to back numbers of the *Nation*, where, under date of March 18, 1875, I find the record of Ristori's presence in New York in an article on her acting. It is evidently from the hand of a brilliant, but now almost forgotten, writer, who was then on your staff as art critic, the late Earl Shinn. In noting the coldness of the public, which he attributed to the remoteness, to our minds, of the classical idea, the critic pointed out her great distinction as an actress, confessed that as compared with the performance of her earlier days the execution dragged a little, but assured young spectators that "in witnessing the last act of 'Mary Stuart' or certain of the great points in 'Medea' they are looking at a supreme exhibition of the grand style of acting."

This spectator was young then, but on that April 22 and 23, was but grudgingly aware of great statuesque beauty and distinction, being heavy with disappointment under the overwhelming memory of those other evenings with Salvini at the Academy; of the large empty house (Ristori's was not so), with a handful of spectators in the front seats, a row or two in the gallery, and those marvelous performances of "Othello" and "La Morte Civile," for the emptiness was not wholly due to "David Garrick." There was that death of Corrado, in which every muscle gave token of the approach of l'Intruse, and the very blood seemed to ebb; that Othello, listening with folded arms, to the insinuations of Iago, silent, while every shade of thought passed over his countenance like the shadows over a field of wheat; then the foot and glance ready to crush the accuser and the change to anguish over the accusation that could not be crushed. They were more perfect performances, as a whole, than those which in after years took place in crowded theatres; the "business" was a little more complete, and, more than that, Piamonti was there, the lovely Piamonti, seeming not so much an efficient actress as one who chanced to have been born Desdemona; or looking as if she had lived for years the sad part of Rosalia in Giacomelli's play, giving by her very artlessness the one note

which Salvini, in his immense tragic gamut, never quite reached—pathos. No, it was not comedy that we demanded of "Tommè"; and I do not agree with the writer in the *Nation* that he made David Garrick "seem a masterpiece." His acting was wanting in the quality kindred to pathos—humor. But though I felt this at once it took me more than a year and a half to discover any flaw in a tragic expression so vast as to seem consummate; and it was not till long afterwards that memory conceded to Ristori a noble and great art, more harmonious, but also more frigid and artificial, than that of her compatriot. S. K.

Rosemont, Pa., October 16.

"THE PRESENT POSITION OF LATIN AND GREEK."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As one of many who will feel as I do, I venture to enter an emphatic protest against the effect of Prof. Arthur O. Norton's article "The Present Position of Latin and Greek" in your issue of October 4. The writer premises that his purpose is not to present an argument either for or against classical studies; that he is not concerned with their intrinsic merits or defects as instruments of discipline and culture, and not at all with their value in comparison with other studies. How, then, is it that his thesis is really this, that the degree of A.B. is quite as significant of a certain profitable discipline, whether or no it stand warrant for any Greek at all? This thesis receives explicit statement, and involving directly as it does the question of the value of Latin and Greek as compared with their substitutes, the support it receives stultifies, at the expense of either his fairness or his logic, the assertion of the author that he is not concerned with their relative merits. The statement referred to is as follows:

Far-sighted administrators of college affairs have seen for years that the effective preservation of the A.B., and all that goes with it, can be secured only by broadening the terms on which it may be obtained, and on which students may matriculate for it.

That is, a thing may be preserved by making it something different—preserving the tag and the good-will of the old firm and supplying an article seriously modified by substitution of an inferior ingredient within the can. My faculty is not that of classical languages, and I do not mean to presume upon your patience by engaging to set forth the merits of Greek and Latin. I may, however, say that I know I speak for many teachers both of the historic and natural sciences in asserting the belief that in the study of the classical languages an intellectual discipline is obtained, and more than that a culture, which cannot be obtained otherwise, and which invariably and unmistakably declares itself in the subsequent work and life of the student. And if this be true, as it is, an A.B. without the classics is not the same thing as an A.B. which stands for them. So Cambridge thought last year when it threw out the proposition to make Greek optional at the Little Go by 507 votes in a total of 2,611, and recently decided that there should not be a choice between an A.B. in letters and in science (the lat-

ter, indeed, involving a choice between Greek and Latin) by a vote of 747 to 241.

Professor Norton remarks that many colleges still require a small amount of Latin—one or two-fifteenths of the total work for the degree—but even in these the prescription of undergraduate Greek is rare; and he refers to the entrance requirements of six universities, only one, he remarks, demanding Greek for entrance to the A.B. course. Is it accident that he omits at least one university which both demands Greek for entrance and insists that one-tenth of the total work for the A.B. degree shall be devoted to the classics?

Near the close of his article Professor Norton quotes President Eliot by abstract to the effect that it is "not merely ridiculous, but impossible, to uphold a scheme of education which no longer commands the respect of the public." What has this to do with it? The point under argument is whether the A.B. degree should mean Greek and Latin; if the public do not respect these studies and what they afford, the B.S. is open to them. Why should they want the A.B., if not for what it once stood for? And emphatically it is not any lack of respect that is in question, even in the case of that highly desirable element in a university, the idle and ignorant rich. What is in question is really only too much respect for Greek upon the part both of some schoolmasters and of the greater number of boys—for Greek and for the patient, careful, laborious, but character-building work it demands.

The sum of the whole matter is briefly this: Omission of Greek from the requirements for the A.B. degree means a substitute, a cheaper substitute, in entrance requirements and the course that follows. Certainly the substitution is quite legal—there is no doubt of that—the institution that descends to making this substitution undoubtedly holds the copyright of the old label. There is no attempt to deceive; the change is made quite openly; and business, the buying public, demands a less costly article. To be sure, there is the B.S. over there, just what they really want, just what they "respect." But they won't have it—they want this tag—this tag still standing for something they do not "respect."

CLARENCE G. CHILD.

University of Pennsylvania, October 17.

AFRICAN LANGUAGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The importance of language in relation to political and social aspects of the native question in Africa seems liable to be overlooked. The possibility of large groups of tribes, hitherto distinct and mutually antagonistic, becoming rapidly able and eager to understand each other in some common form of speech, has apparently to be taken into account. Twenty-six years' contact with Swahili and various dialects of Eastern and Central Africa so far points to the conclusion that there is a remarkable degree of similarity, amounting in many important respects to substantial identity, in the grammatical structure of language over the whole vast area occupied by the Bantu races of Africa, from the Soudan to the Cape. And the stock of words common to all Bantu tribes, when recognized under their various dialectic

disguises, will probably prove very considerable.

The officials, missionaries, traders, settlers and travellers of various nationalities who are qualified to give help in testing this conclusion by personal and first-hand study of a Bantu dialect are naturally difficult to reach—scattered in remote and often isolated spheres of work. It is therefore perhaps justifiable to ask publicity for the request, that persons so qualified and willing to accept and reply to a brief communication on the subject would send me their addresses at Fort Jameson, North Eastern Rhodesia. A. C. MADAN,

Student of Christ Church, Oxford.

The British South Africa Company, Fort Jameson, Northeastern Rhodesia.

HERBERT SPENCER'S SUPPORTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the allusion in your number of the 11th to the authorities who have endorsed Herbert Spencer's work, it is a little strange that you should have omitted Darwin's famous phrase: "We all bow the knee to Spencer."

That perhaps is not as curious, however, as was another circumstance of which it reminds me—that thirty or forty years ago "a very pretty quarrel" was stirred up in your columns, by your having permitted a gentleman whose field was æsthetics, to speak contemptuously of Spencer's reputation, because he was not an authority in each science that he had laid under contribution. It has just occurred to me that a philosopher's work is necessarily what original investigators like to call "second-hand"; for even if life were long enough to make it first-hand, while he would be getting up one department, his knowledge of the other departments would inevitably grow stale. As this very obvious consideration happened to escape the attention of the defence in the conflict in your columns, there is double reason for mentioning it now—unless I am the only man alive who remembers the occasion.

HENRY HOLT.

Burlington, Vt., October 19.

Notes.

Longmans, Green & Co. will soon publish the "Life and Letters of the first Earl of Durham," by Stuart J. Reid. This work is based on the papers at Lambton Castle, and deals with the Grey and Melbourne Cabinets, the Reform Bill, and other matters of that time.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have now ready "From Libau to Tsushima," which relates the voyage of Admiral Rojestvensky's fleet to the East, including an account of the Dogger Bank Incident. The author is Eugene S. Politovsky, chief engineer of the squadron, who was killed at the battle of Tsushima.

Walter L. Fleming, professor of history in West Virginia University, has prepared a "Documentary History of Reconstruction" from unpublished MSS. of all sorts. The work is put out by the Arthur H. Clark Co.

Volumes seven to ten bring to a con-

clusion the Gettysburg edition of the Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln issued by Francis D. Tandy Co. We have already spoken of the quality of this edition, and take this occasion only to compliment the publishers on the completion of this handsome undertaking.

We are asked to state that the Bureau of Statistics and Municipal Library of Chicago has ready a souvenir volume recently published for the League of American Municipalities, which will be sent to all applicants upon receipt of 25 cents, to cover postage.

The two-volume "Memorials of Edward Burne-Jones," by his wife, has been reissued by the Macmillans in a single volume, without other change. One could wish that the process which has been applied to this excellent life might be applied to biographies generally in the first instance.

Two volumes in the handy little series published by A. S. Barnes & Co. contain "The Voyages and Explorations of Samuel de Champlain," translated by Annie Nettleton Bourne, together with "The Voyage of 1603," reprinted from "Purchas his Pilgrimes." An Introduction and Notes are furnished by Prof. E. G. Bourne.

Doughleday, Page & Co. have issued a new edition of Upton Sinclair's "King Midas," and also of "The Journal of Arthur Stirling," which, the author assures us in the newly added Preface, "will always be read."

"Socialism," by Robert Flint (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott; London: Isaac Pitman), is a reprint, apparently without material alteration in the plates, of the work which the author brought out in 1894. In its original form the book was read with profit by many persons, and the recent growth of the Socialist movement makes the present volume a timely one. As becomes its author, "Socialism" is a philosophical essay upon cardinal points of doctrine, and does not deal with the history and present position of socialistic speculation or agitation.

B. F. Buck & Co. have published a new edition of "The Italian in America." No addition or change seems to have been made from the original edition except, possibly, mechanical ones, in the arrangement of chapters. This is to be regretted, as in the last two years a great deal of study, research, and experiment, regarding various phases of Italian immigration to this country, has been carried on, which might have well fitted in the present work. Indeed, the entire omission of such items as the investigation of conditions in the South by the Italian ambassador, the creation of the Italian Labor Bureau in New York, the extension of the legal protection of Italian immigrants by their Government, and the results of an aggressive policy against Italian peonage, constitutes a grave defect which renders many parts of the book out of date.

The field of the operations of the Carnegie Institution of Washington is wisely varied, as is seen in the fact that its fifty-third publication deals with questions of technical Oriental archaeology and palæography from the land of the Nile. Dr. W. Max Müller has already made a name for himself as a student of the hieroglyphic

writings, but not as an explorer. The present volume, "Egyptological Researches," embodying the results of a journey made in 1904, shows him in a new relation. The fact that he was working alone, without a corps of assistants, dictated the manner and matter of his activity. His work as here set forth is intensive rather than extensive. He spent his time, in part, in traversing anew some of the ground of previous explorers and correcting their results by rereading the old texts. This is particularly necessary, because reading Egyptian hieroglyphic writing is inherently difficult, and because some of the older publications were made by men whose acquaintance with the language was quite rudimentary as compared with the best knowledge of to-day. Dr. Müller divided his attention between the monuments found in the Museum in Cairo and those still *in situ* at Thebes. As might be expected from the subjects of the author's special previous studies and publications, those texts which have to do with the relations between Egypt and Asia or Europe claimed particular attention; and in this respect he has rendered valuable aid to students of early Biblical and Palestinian history by investigating the local names preserved in the hieroglyphic writing. The book consists of above two dozen monographs or essays on topics suggested by the texts which his tables contain, partly in photograph and partly in the graceful hieroglyphs in which the author is an adept, both as a copyist and an expounder.

The results of many years of patient and sympathetic study of the German peasant is embodied in A. l'Houet's "Zur Psychologie des Bauerntums," published in Tübingen by J. C. B. Mohr. L'Houet is a Protestant pastor who has sunk himself for fifteen years, many miles distant from the railway, in German peasant life, where he could find it at its purest. He would seem to be a man not only of real German capacity of devotion to one end, but also a student of wide learning and thorough mental grasp as well as a writer of unusual literary gifts. His essay is compared with Wilhelm Heinrich Riehl's productions in the history of culture for its largeness of view and firmness of grasp. In l'Houet's description of the German peasant one finds himself placed before a creature of distant ages, preserved as by miracle into the present time. The social and ethical unity of the village rather than of the individual takes one back to the times of David; and the tales of giants and demi-gods, the folklore yet in the making, show that the Middle Ages are not so distant as chronology would imply. L'Houet writes as a lover of the peasant, in whom he sees the German in his fresh, wild youth. Both the country pastor and the school teacher are charged with making a hotch of their tasks, destroying the poetry and romance and deep native piety in the peasant soul under plea of removing relics of heathenism, but bringing in no compensating advantage. The book is likely to lead to more intelligent attention to the problems of the German peasantry.

On Christmas day, the ancient city of Todi will celebrate the six-hundredth anniversary of the death of one who was, per-

haps, her most famous son, Fra Jacopone, "the jongleur of God." A new guide book to Todi is being prepared by Archdeacon Alvi, and, during the next few months, numerous monographs on Jacopone and his city may be expected to see the light. Already Prof. Annihale Tenneroni has published a learned article in the *Nuova Antologia*, of June 16, on "Le Laudi e Jacopone da Todi nel vi. centenario dalla sua morte," which will hereafter reappear as the Introduction to the "Lessico di Laudi e d'altre poesie religiose italiane nel medio evo," now in the press; while an able and exhaustive treatise by Prof. Giuseppe Galli on "Disciplinanti dell' Umhria del 1260 e le loro Laudi" has just been issued in the form of a special supplement to the *Giornale Storico della Letteratura Italiana*. This work is divided into five chapters: "The Religious Movement of 1260, and the Disciplinants of Umhria," "The Codices of the Umhrian Lauds," "The Metre of the Lauds," "The Argument of the Lauds and their Authorship," "The Dramatic Lauds." It is, as far as we are aware, the only hook in which any attempt has been made to give a full and systematic account of the Umhrian flagellants and their hymnology.

James Duff Brown's "Subject Classification" (London: Library Supply Company), a development of his "Adjustable Classification" published some years ago, is a solid and substantial piece of work which ought to be on every classifier's desk. His plan is more logical than the Decimal Classification, and its notation is less formidable than that of the Expansive. Mr. Brown's system has some very decided peculiarities, but contains no such absurdities of arrangement as, *e. g.*, the classes 330 (Political Economy) and 650 (Communication and Commerce) of the Decimal Classification. The class Generalia, containing, among others, such subjects as Education, Logic, Mathematics, and Graphic and Plastic Arts, is certainly open to criticism, and to put Bibliography, Printing, and Library History and Economy in the middle of the system with Language and Literature, is awkward from a practical point of view, no matter what might be its logic. Less objectionable, though more conspicuously contrary to all previous schemes, is the arrangement of the divisions in the class Physical Sciences, where Physics, Engineering, Architecture, Railways, Transport, Naval and Military Science, Electricity, Optics, Heat, Acoustics, Music, Astronomy, etc., are put together in this order. These and similar groupings, the author says in his most interesting and valuable Introduction, "are departures from the convention that there exists a clear difference between theory and practice, pure and applied science, and so on, which renders their amalgamation undesirable." A notable feature of this classification is the notation, which was devised after the system of classification had been worked out, and consequently has been adjusted to the system instead of the system being adjusted to the notation. The notation consists of 24 letters of the alphabet, each subdivided by the numbers 000 to 999, with provision for further subdivision. On the whole, Mr. Brown's classification allows more free scope to the individual classifier than any other system we know of—and his notation is not copyrighted.

Among the more interesting items of library legislation enacted by the different States during the past year are the following: Ohio provides for the establishment and maintenance by taxation of county library systems. The act is an attempt to solve the library problem of the rural community. This State has also created the office of "library organizer," whose duty shall be "to furnish advice and information to persons interested in libraries, to visit the public libraries of the State, and to assist in promoting and starting new libraries." In Virginia a comprehensive system of travelling libraries has been inaugurated, whereby every school district of the State may be supplied. In South Carolina a way has been indicated for the solution of the negro problem as related to the library, in a special act applying to the township of Union. This provides that when the colored people of the township shall have furnished a suitable building and equipment for a library, "a just and suitable amount of money shall be appropriated by the aldermen for its support."

Plans for the next American Library Association meeting, to be held in Asheville, N. C., the latter part of May, are well under way, and the main features of the programme have already been decided upon. The general theme of the conference will be "The Use of Books," and advocates of different classes of literature, such as science, history, art, fiction, will each be given an opportunity to discuss his favorite field.

That the rubbish of one generation becomes the treasures of the next is exemplified in the case of a series of illustrated street directories of New York which were printed, primarily as advertisements, in 1848, 1849, and 1850. The plan was to show in the form of a panorama both sides of the street, the occupants of the buildings being advertised by the signs on the fronts. The most interesting of these was the directory of Broadway entitled "Jones & Newman's Pictorial Directory of New York," which extends as far up as Worth Street. It was issued in four parts, "Price 25 cents each." Other street directories which were issued in a similar form, were Wall, Williams, Fulton, and Maiden Lane. These curious works are now of the greatest rarity and command \$50 to \$75 each. They contain views of New York buildings which are apparently not found in any other form.

C. F. Libbie & Co. of Boston will offer at auction during the coming season another portion of the collection of New England imprints and manuscripts made by James Terry of Hartford. In March, 1889, Mr. Terry sold a few hundred items from his collection, many of which brought record prices.

At the Social Education Congress to be held in Boston Thanksgiving week, the programme includes mass meetings, devoted to the following topics: Friday afternoon, "Education for Citizenship"; Friday evening, "The School as a Social Organism"; Saturday afternoon, "The School and the Family"; Saturday evening, "Industrial Education"; Sunday evening, "The Education of the Conscience." Section meetings will be arranged in the mornings on the following topics: "Uni-

versity and School Extension," "Health Education," "Special Classes for Troublesome Children," "Industrial Education," "Commercial Education," "Self-Organized Group Work in the Schools," "Social Training in Infancy and Early Childhood." Among the speakers thus far announced are Gov. Curtis Guild, jr., Mayor John F. Fitzgerald of Boston, Miss Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago; Chancellor E. B. Andrews of the University of Nebraska, Mayor Z. R. Brockway of Elmira, Dr. M. G. Brumbaugh, superintendent of the Philadelphia schools; President K. L. Butterfield of the Massachusetts State Agricultural College, President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard, F. P. Fish, president of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company; the Rev. Dr. Washington Gladden, President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University, Dr. J. P. Haney, supervisor of art and manual training, New York city; W. S. Jackman, principal of the School of Education, University of Chicago; Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell, President Henry Lefavour of Simmons College, Prof. S. M. Lindsay of the University of Pennsylvania, Sir Alfred Mosely of England, the Most Rev. W. H. O'Connell, archbishop coadjutor of Massachusetts; Miss H. M. Orcutt, president of the New York Kindergarten Association; Herbert Putnam, librarian of Congress; Prof. C. R. Richards of Columbia, Dr. D. A. Sargent of Harvard, Mrs. Frederic Schoff, president of the National Congress of Mothers; President W. O. Thompson of the University of Ohio, F. A. Vanderlip, vice-president of the National City Bank of New York; Dr. W. P. Wilson, director of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum, and Mrs. M. S. Woolman, director of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls.

A notable event in Russian journalism was the recent celebration of its fortieth anniversary by the leading monthly of the country, the *Westnik Jewropy* (the *Messenger of Europe*); at the same time its founder and editor during these decades, Michael Stassulewitz, celebrated his eightieth birthday. The journal has pursued a moderately liberal policy, at all times advocating the necessity of a constitutional government. The editor, who also plays a prominent rôle in public affairs, has been particularly active in school reforms, and has been compelled frequently to suffer on account of his liberal views, although, on account of his high standing in the confidence of the people, the reactionary party has never ventured to treat him with extreme harshness.

Dr. Maitland Thompson, though he will retire from the position of curator in His Majesty's General Register House, Edinburgh, will continue his work in Scottish records. He will be succeeded by the Rev. John Anderson, the assistant curator.

The foreign papers bring news of the death of two European scholars and authors. The first is Karl Emich, aged fifty-one, Graf zu Leiningen-Westerburg, the author of several historical and heraldic works, among them "Die Leiningschen Wappen und Siegel," "Historische Blätter aus dem alten Leininger Land," etc. He was the owner of a large collection of ex-libris, which, according to the *Deutsche Tageszeitung*, he has left to the Germanische Museum of Nuremberg. The

second is Louis Auguste Himly, *doyen honoraire* of the Faculté des Lettres de Paris, where he was for many years professor. He was born at Strasburg in 1823, and educated at the École des Chartes. He was elected to the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques in 1884, in succession to Mignet. He was an authority on the Carolingian period, concerning which he published a number of studies. His greatest work was the "Histoire de la Formation territoriale des États de l'Europe Centrale," issued in 1876.

TRAVEL AND TOPOGRAPHY.

At the present rate of appearance of topographical books about England, there will soon be no corner, no brook, no field-path undescribed and painted or photographed. John Henry Garrett's "The Idyllic Avon" (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is one of the most thorough of its kind. A party of three spent a whole summer in a boat on the Avon, navigating that stream from Tewkesbury in Gloucestershire to Stratford-on-Avon, a distance of fifty miles. Something over 250 pages and 89 full-page illustrations are devoted to that stretch of Avon's banks and riverside villages, with which the reader becomes extremely intimate. Stratford is the goal, but those who weary of this well-trodden spot will find the descriptions and pictures of the vale of Evesham and the charming remote villages of Gloucestershire and Worcestershire more to their taste. The text of such a book is usually merely the excuse for stringing together a number of good amateur photographs, but Mr. Garrett knew how to collect antiquarian information, and his tale of an English village is nearly always interesting, though the houses where King Charles hid or slept come with sickening frequency. There are, we regret to say, thirty songs and ballads contributed by Mr. Garrett or one of his party at intervals during the journey. We have a decided feeling that it is not fair to the reader to publish one's verse in this way. There is much welcome information about wild flowers. The book is well got up and the illustrations excellent.

To their charming series of topographical books, illustrated in color, Messrs. A. & C. Black (New York: The Macmillan Co.) have added "Surrey," by A. Hope Moncrieff, painted by Sutton Palmer. Surrey is the most attractive and varied of the "home" counties, the Cockney paradise. But for all its tea-gardens and bungalows and motor-buses, and those innumerable residences of well-to-do citizens, which, even in the days of Pepys, were planted along its sandy ridges, Surrey has still many an "ancient haunt of peace." Its silent pools and winding rivers, the lesser streams of the Wey and the Mole, escape the tripper and breathe the atmosphere of Devon. These enchanting by-ways Mr. Moncrieff explored, following also the course of the too well-known Thames. He takes us along all the main roads, to all the more important country seats, and to the summits of heights, such as Leith Hill, from all of which one may see London lying there like a busy ant-hill, never to be kept out of the scenery. The chief charm of Surrey is her Downs, a little neglected by the

present writer. Mr. Kipling is always at his best when his imagination is stirred by the romance of places that have seen the restless tribes of men come and go. Mr. Moncrieff might have drawn on the poem in which he describes the early Briton who haunted the folds of the Downs before the Roman invasion. All that is essential is unchanged since Tegumai hunted there:

On Merrow Down the cuckoo's cry,
The silence and the sun remain.

Even the suburban settler cannot spoil these great spaces. Mr. Palmer's full-page colored illustrations are fully up to the standard of the series.

"Warwickshire," painted by Fred Whitehead and described by Clive Holland (the Macmillan Co.), is another of A. & C. Black's series with full-page color illustrations. As usual the pictures are charming, though we fail to grasp the significance of the tags of Shaksperian quotation, with which each one is labelled; this strikes one as a superfluous effort to remind the reader that he is in the poet's country. The get-up of the volume is most attractive. Mr. Holland's account of the district is concerned less with Warwickshire's highways and byways than her towns and larger villages, such as Birmingham, Coventry, Stratford, Henley, and the rest. These are described with great detail, and especial attention to their earlier history and the part they played in the successive civil wars. This preoccupation with human interests leaves an opening for a second volume which should be devoted to "leafy Warwickshire's" splendid trees, her lovely lanes and streams, and her preëminently agricultural interests.

One hundred good photographs and an excellent map go far to justify the existence of Henry Wellington Wack's "In Thamesland" (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The author traces the course of the Thames from its source (not undisputed) in Gloucestershire to London. His travelling was done mainly in a canoe, and he has much to say, though little that is flattering, about the quality of the riverside inns. It is curious to remark how in the early stages of his course Mr. Wack, who is an American tourist, regards England as a place to be sorrowed over, "a land of white slaves and blind masters" (p. 70), a land "in which the entire educational system is striving mightily in the wrong direction" (p. 71); while he cannot see a peaceful village without commiserating the population of decaying old men who have had to see their sons and daughters swallowed by the towns or slain in the Boer war. When he nears London, however, his tone changes, and the English are a "virile race," "a people whose glory cannot be adequately acknowledged by word or memorial" (p. 368). It is as though size and crowds were needed to impress Mr. Wack with the greatness of a nation. He has not the style or the point of view necessary for the writer of an interesting topographical book. He is too personal; too much concerned with the way in which he and his companion were treated at inns and elsewhere, too prone to relate rather foolish anecdotes of other American tourists whom he encountered. The book is, in fact, one to make an Englishman shud-

der, and to depress even more the American who has been over the same ground.

Monsignor the Count Vay de Vaya and Luskod, Hungarian by birth and a traveller thoroughly familiar with Europe, journeyed through Asiatic Russia and several countries of the Far East previously to the Russo-Japanese war. He has collected his notes and recollections, some of which had already appeared as magazine articles, under the title "Empires and Emperors of Russia, China, Korea, and Japan" (E. P. Dutton & Co.). As envoy of His Holiness the Pope, he had interviews with the four rulers most talked about a year or two ago. None need, however, seek in this book for penetrating insight or for fresh and exact information. His interviews with the emperors seem to have been of the most perfunctory character. Few of the author's statements go above the level of those of the average hasty traveller, who accepts uncritically any story which is interesting. For one example of many, monsignor does not seem to know that the drum hung in front of the royal palace at Seoul, and struck by petitioners, was common to all countries under Chinese influences or tradition. The fires nightly lighted on the Korean mountains were telegraphic signals from distant points on the coast, and not methods of attracting the king's attention to a petitioner. It is a pity that some expert could not have read the proofs and presented more of the proper names in correct form, even though the book is extraordinarily impersonal. Illustrations are for the most part already familiar. It cannot be said that the postscript in a final chapter throws much light on the situation; the author even thinks that "the peace of Portsmouth does not alter the status quo from what it was after the treaty of Shimonoseki." Yet, despite these criticisms, the style of the author is easy and his text entertaining. The average reader will surely be delighted with these experiences of a gentleman of kindly heart who adds to a pleasing style the graces of a cosmopolitan traveller.

RELIGION AND BIBLICAL CRITICISM.

Prof. William Newton Clarke of Colgate University, author of several theological works of wide circulation and considerable influence, is at work upon a volume to be entitled, "The Christian Doctrine of God," which he has promised for the International Theological Library. Dr. Clarke is one of the most eminent of living American teachers of doctrinal theology. His literary activity began rather late in life, starting with a modest volume of outlines of his lectures to classes of theological students. The unassuming book was privately printed and designed chiefly for the use of his pupils, but it was discovered by outsiders, and, after thorough revision by the author, was issued by Charles Scribner's Sons. It met with immediate success, and has attained greater popularity than any work of its class in recent years. In Great Britain an enthusiastic notice by the late Dr. Marcus Dods brought it into wide favor. The appearance of the "Outline" was very opportune, since treatises handling Christian doctrine in anything like a thorough manner had become altogether out of date, and the

books which were appearing from the newer point of view were fragmentary, partial, and altogether unsatisfactory. Though published in 1898, the "Outline" retains its place as the best systematic exposition of Christian belief of the moderately orthodox school. Since that time Dr. Clarke has issued a volume of lectures which he delivered at Harvard, entitled "Can We Believe in God the Father?" a book on the modern motive for foreign missions, and also a series of Yale lectures on "The Use of the Scriptures in Theology." The latter may be taken to mark the epoch of the definite renunciation of the proof-text method in American systematic theology. Dr. Clarke's present task is the most serious one he has attempted, and if he succeeds in producing a book on the subject of Christian theism of the clearness and force which have characterized his other undertakings, he will have made an important contribution to American theological science.

Prof. George F. Genung's commentary on Leviticus and Numbers (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society) is a clear and practical exposition of those books for laymen. The subject gives little occasion for the display of that paradoxical ingenuity which marks his works on Job and Ecclesiastes. There is a touch of the same spirit, however, in the suggestion that the conception of sin as a substance—the common savage notion—is a more developed idea than the ethical conception, and that the idea of sin as defilement was one of Israel's permanent contributions to the world's thought. Even in a popular commentary, greater familiarity with Jewish ritual tradition on the one side and with the religious notions and practices of other peoples on similar planes of culture would often stand the interpreter in good stead. The Hebrew words scattered through the notes are frequently reproduced in surprising transliteration, such as *qārbān. hiqtīr (qorbān, hiqtīr)*.

In "The Book of Job in the Revised Version," edited with introductions and brief annotations (Oxford: Clarendon Press), Prof. S. R. Driver has provided an admirable aid to the reading of the Book of Job in the Revised Version. The introduction sets forth, briefly and lucidly, the problem of the book and its structure, and adds helpful suggestions on the use of the marginal notes of the revisers. The text is broken into paragraphs; the headings of these sections, in italics, furnish a running synopsis of the contents and analysis of the argument. The notes show a wise parsimony; the author's aim is to enable the reader to understand as he reads, without diverting his attention from the poem to the commentary. It is needless to say that judicious scholarship and mature reflection are manifest in every line.

Bishop Potter of the Protestant Episcopal diocese of New York, in addition to his obvious opportunities for meeting eminent prelates while serving a metropolitan see, also, as secretary of the House of Bishops for many years, had exceptional opportunity to study the Episcopal overseers. Impressed of late with the value of anecdotal material and the personalia of great men as they shed light on character, he has

brought up from the wells of his memory "Reminiscences of Bishops and Archbishops" (G. P. Putnam's Sons), which has an excellent collection of stories. Some studies of character, while not exhaustive, are illuminating; by far the best is one on Bishop Dudley of Kentucky, who was a humanist to the end, never allowing the office to cramp and cabin the man. Bishop Potter has not refrained from disclosures respecting the use of tobacco and liquor by bishops, including himself, which will subject him to still further denunciation by the Women's Christian Temperance Union. The net result of the book is to prove that ecclesiastics are like other men, in having a saving sense of humor, in regard for substance rather than for form in religion, and in emphasis upon character rather than on possessions. The treatment of the men described in some cases is sketchy and thin, and in no case is there any such triumph of character-portrayal as James Bryce has given us of Bishop James Fraser in his "Studies of Contemporary Biography." Principal Fairbairn, when Canon Gore was made Bishop of Worcester, said that he did not think the more of him for being made a bishop, but he did think all the better of bishops now that he was one; and in some such mood even a contemner of bishops may arise from this book, since it discloses persons, a majority of whom were men first and always.

STUDIES IN HISTORY.

A History of the Reformation. By Thomas M. Lindsay, M.A., D.D.—I. The Reformation in Germany from the beginning to the Religious Peace of Augsburg. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.50 net.

The first thing to be said about this volume is that it is no mere compilation. Dr. Lindsay is well within bounds when he writes: "My excuse, if excuse be needed, for venturing on the field is that the period is one to which I have devoted special attention for many years, and that I have read and re-read most of the original contemporary sources of information. While full use has been made of the labors of predecessors in the same field, no chapter in the volume, save that on the political condition of Europe, has been written without constant reference to contemporary evidence." In treating the Lutheran Reformation, any one who can read German has before him a vast body of erudite, but uncoordinated monographs. These Dr. Lindsay uses with great effect, but, as indicated above, his chief reliance is upon original documents of essential importance.

The work has many merits, but in our opinion its most distinctive feature is the careful analysis of social and religious life in Germany on the eve of the Protestant revolt. Here Dr. Lindsay accentuates the existence of evangelical piety inside the Latin Church—not confined to saints and mystics, but widely diffused among those of the common people who regarded religion seriously, and not as something which meant pilgrimages, miracle plays, and other ecclesiastical junkets. We shall not multiply details, but the point seems well taken that there were many people in whose eyes Lutheran doctrines when first proclaimed were self-evident truths.

This appears to us the central idea of Dr. Lindsay's book. "The great Reformation had its roots in the simple evangelical piety which had never entirely disappeared in the mediæval church. Luther's teaching was recognized by thousands to be no startling novelty, but something which they had always at heart believed, though they might not have been able to formulate it."

As for Luther himself, Dr. Lindsay's views have already found expression in the article he contributed to the "Cambridge Modern History." Here, again, the nucleus of the discussion is to be found in a single idea. Luther succeeded because the world could see faith incarnate when it regarded him. In the words of Dürer's "Tagebuch," he was "the pious man," "the follower of the Lord and of the true Christian faith," "the man enlightened by the Holy Spirit." Lord Acton has told us how Döllinger, opposed though he was to Luther's *falsche Imputationslehre*, used to defend him against some of the common accusations:

When people said of Luther that he does not come well out of his matrimonial advice to certain potentates, to Henry and to Philip, of his exhortations to exterminate the revolted peasantry, of his passage from a confessor of toleration to a teacher of intolerance, Döllinger would not have the most powerful conductor of religion that Christianity has produced in eighteen centuries condemned for two pages in a hundred volumes.

If one of the most eminent Catholic historians could thus absolve Luther from conscious antinomianism, one need not expect from Dr. Lindsay a lesser degree of willingness to judge the reformer's character by its strongest rather than its weakest features. Philip of Hesse's bigamy is, of course, a test case. No other act so damaged the reputation of Protestant theologians as their refusal to accuse of vice the prince whose aid seemed indispensable to their cause. Dr. Lindsay at once acquits Luther of trimming his sails to suit a friend and ally, and finds the explanation of his conduct in that fondness for tradition, which coexisted with his reverence for the Bible:

The Church had been accustomed to say that it possessed a dispensing power in matrimonial causes of extreme difficulty; and, in spite of his denunciations of the dispensations granted by the Roman Curia, Luther never denied the power. On the contrary, he thought honestly that the Church did possess this power of dispensation even to the length of tampering with a fundamental law of Christian society, provided it did not contradict a *positive* scriptural command to the contrary.

We have touched upon one or two points which seem salient in Dr. Lindsay's view of the Reformation as a religious movement, and of Luther's part in it. The political aspects of the revolt from Rome receive less attention than would be given them by most historians, but we must remember that, being a contribution to the "International Theological Library," this volume is bound to insist upon the theological motive. After sketching the antecedents of Protestantism and its progress to the Peace of Augsburg, the work concludes with an excellent section, entitled "The Religious Principles inspiring the Reformation." The chief topics which Dr. Lindsay considers under this heading are

the universal priesthood of believers, justification by faith, the Bible, the person of Christ, and the Church. Throughout it is Lutheranism that receives the lion's share of attention, but the comparative method is freely used, and, in a complicated tangle of doctrines, no typical opinion is suffered to drop out of sight altogether. On the strength of first-hand knowledge, excellent arrangement, and thoughtfulness, this book deserves the most respectful attention. It is well adapted for use in the senior grades of university teaching.

A Political History of the State of New York. By De Alva Stanwood Alexander.

Two volumes. New York: Henry Holt & Company. \$5.

The author who sets out to solve the problem which James Parton aptly called "that most unfathomable of subjects, the politics of the State of New York," has before him a task requiring at once the perseverance of an antiquarian, the discernment of a political philosopher, the impartiality of a judge, and the sympathetic devotion of an enthusiast. If the author of the present volumes has not all these qualities in sufficient quantity to give his work the title "definitive," he has at any rate given us a very useful history. Indeed, even if it were not as well done as it is, the fact that it covers a practically unoccupied field would give the book a certain value. For Jabez D. Hammond's history bearing the same title was completed in 1848, and Hammond himself was too close to the events which he described and too intimately related to the principal actors to be exactly fair or impartial. Yet despite its long-windedness Hammond's history remains a rich storehouse. Of this wealth of undigested material Mr. Alexander has availed himself.

The two volumes begin with the adoption of John Jay's constitution, and the establishment of the State Government in 1777, and close with the outbreak of the Civil War. In his preface the author tells us that he hopes, in a third volume, to carry the narrative down to 1896. The selection of 1777 as a starting point, although justified by the title, makes the beginning somewhat abrupt. A detailed exposition of existing political forces would have afforded a much better understanding of the course of events during the early years of Statehood. The author has, however, a clearly defined method to which he adheres faithfully. This method is best explained in his preface:

The history of a State or nation is largely the history of a few leading men, and it is of such men only, with some of their more important contemporaries, that the author has attempted to write. It would be hard to find in any commonwealth of the Union a more interesting or picturesque leadership than is presented in the political history of the Empire State. Rarely more than two controlling spirits appear at a time, and as these pass into apogee, younger men of approved capacity are ready to take their places.

A writer who starts with that thesis runs a risk of conjuring up "controlling spirits" where there are none, and this danger Mr. Alexander has not entirely escaped. The mantle of power did not always find shoulders waiting for it. When Jay and Hamilton passed from the stage and the Anti-Federalist leadership de-

scended from George Clinton to his nephew, De Witt, the latter did not for many years find either among the Federalists or the factional leaders of his own party any single man who was anything like his match. At a later period, after Van Buren's forced retirement, when the Democratic party was split over the slavery question, Horatio Seymour was a long time in bringing the warring factions under his control. It is difficult too, to find such an example of a single powerful leader in the Whig and Republican parties during the years of the Weed-Seward-Greeley triumvirate. Nevertheless, it is remarkable how near to the truth Mr. Alexander's picture of the constant warring of two predominant personalities remains.

A history written on such a plan is perforce interesting, if for no other reason than because men are more attractive than institutions. Mr. Alexander has not neglected his opportunity, and his pages are enlivened and enriched by numerous pen-pictures of New York politicians and statesmen, which constitute what are perhaps the most valuable, as well as the most entertaining, portions. The style is terse and clear. The story is well told, and good use is made of anecdotes and reminiscences, which are not, however, allowed to clog the narrative. The author breaks away absolutely from the annalistic form in which so much of our history that is not monographic is still written. His attention is directed to periods rather than years. The apportionment of space depends so much on the point of view that it is difficult to criticize it. The fact that approximately 350 out of 400 pages in Volume I. are devoted to the struggle between the Clintons and their political opponents may be excused on the score that their personalities really dominated politics for a half-century. But that the last eleven chapters of the second volume should be taken up almost entirely with the years 1859-60, when national and not State politics controlled, is less comprehensible.

In his endeavor to get away from all local history in contradistinction to the larger field of State politics, the author has fallen into the error of neglecting to take full account of political events in New York city and their influence on the State. He does scant justice to the growth and development of Tammany, the power of which was already recognized "up-State" in the first quarter of the last century. It may be that the author's theory of the dominant power of personality allows him to minimize the importance of such significant movements as those of the Equal Rights party, the Anti-Renters, and the Anti-Masons, the origin of which could not be traced to some "controlling spirit."

There are some misstatements that show carelessness of detail. In Volume I., pages 45 and 47, the statement is made that Burr had already (1789) served two terms in the Legislature, whereas he had only been a member of the Assembly of 1784-85. Gideon Granger was not a member of the Cabinet, as stated on page 202 of Volume I. The postmaster-general was only made a Cabinet officer in 1829, when President Jackson's needs demanded it. E. D. Morgan was chairman of the Republican national committee from 1856 to 1864, but was never chairman of a Republican na-

tional convention, as the author states, in Volume II., page 248.

What Mr. Alexander has done is to give an interesting, although, perhaps, a too uncritical, account of political leaders and events in a field of American history that was practically unoccupied. To the reader, who has hitherto found it impossible to get anything like a general idea of early New York politics in a single work, the volumes should prove a boon.

RECENT FICTION.

The Dream and the Business. By John Oliver Hobbes. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This novel was already in press when its brilliant author suddenly died. It may well enough stand as her monument, for it suggests everything characteristic in her substance and manner. It says, perhaps, quite all that the next generation will care to hear of Mrs. Craigie. On this point one cannot affect to speak with certainty, since cleverness is so often merely a veil or a distraction which time may sweep away.

The publishers have given the volume conspicuousness by setting it between exceedingly garish, even lurid, covers, and by securing an introduction from the hand of the Hon. Joseph H. Choate. This is more properly an obituary note than, as the publisher tags it, "an appreciation of Mrs. Craigie as woman and author." Mr. Choate was a personal friend of Mrs. Craigie. He speaks of the freshness and piquancy of her conversation, and proceeds:

The same qualities imparted to what she wrote and what she said a marked lightness and delicacy of touch, which was perhaps the most striking feature of her literary character, and her chaste and fastidious taste so controlled and permeated her thoughts and feelings that one can read all her many books from beginning to end without finding a word or sentiment to offend the most delicate standard.

All, we observe, in the best obituary manner, which is for critical purposes the worst manner possible.

Some score of years ago Mrs. Craigie captivated the world of English novel-readers by her first appearance in fiction. American born, French bred, she found her proper home in England. London seized and held her as it had seized and held Mr. James. And in turn she captured London with her sallies. She flashed, she sparkled, she was knowing and taking, and in all senses smart. She did extremely well what was hardly worth doing. She was, in short, a soubrette whose daring parlor performances won the approbation of the "smartest" people. Mrs. Craigie's standard is the standard of *courtesan*, and much of her charm is due to the grace and skill with which she manoeuvres upon the ragged edge of *inconvenance*. Sex is her absorbing theme, and more especially the perils of matrimony as experienced by the socially elect. In this last novel of hers "the dream" is love, inconsiderate of barriers religious, financial, or social; "the business" is life shorn of illusion, accepting love no longer as a delirium or an inspiration, but as a rather mournful problem. None of the persons in this story, wed or unwed, find lasting happiness in love. But the wed, we are given to under-

stand, have clearly the worse of a bad choice.

Both looked resigned and at the stage in unsatisfactory human relationships when the pair, having exhausted their mutual dislike, were almost attached to each other by a common bond of suffering.

They were seldom in complete sympathy, and they were drifting by degrees into the calm friendship of those who, having no illusion about each other, also never blend.

Tessa dared not tell herself that they were friends who, in marriage, were mismatched; domestic both, they failed to appeal to each other's particular kind of domesticity.

So our various wedded pairs are described; or, by way of generalization, thus: "A set composed of rich, agreeable couples who lived to amuse themselves and each other, without scandal if possible, but at any rate with audacity."

One of these discontented couples is actually restored to some sort of union. This happy consummation is led up to by a long interview, in which varied causes of discontent are thoroughly threshed over. Each of them, incidentally, confesses an inclination for an outsider. It is hard to take these persons seriously; they are not persons, but variously costumed interlocutors. They are all clever, sophisticated, desirous of compunctions and half-shades of feeling; capable of paradox and epigram. There are "good things" of the latter sort to catch the eye on every hand:

One of the most sincere men I know has run away with his neighbor's wife, robbed his best friend, and drinks too much habitually. He would despise a moral person, and think him mad or a hypocrite.

Women like display of feeling, not its depths.

The arts are but drugs for the disappointed imagination.

People who wished to regard divine Providence as an English gentleman of large fortune, perfect morals, an anxiety to frustrate the foreigner, and a wish to feed, rather than to meet, the poor, were disturbed by Firmalden's fear of God, which to some seemed superstition, and to others ill-advised.

Only a few years ago Mrs. Craigie became a convert to the Roman faith; and it is not surprising that this last novel, in its most serious aspect, should be a sort of quiet brief for the Church as the only sure refuge for the heart-weary and worldly-wise. Carnival or Lent—these are the poles of her experience; one perceives something rather middle class about simple human happiness. The smart world deserves to be chronicled, like other worlds; but too much may be made of its artificial complexities. Sophistication, standing in wonder at its own reflected image, is not a theme for song.

Sophy of Kravonia. By Anthony Hope. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Hawkins cannot be called mute, yet as to the note that he sounded in "The Prisoner of Zenda" his harp mouldering long has hung. His Rupert was hardly more than a spurious claimant to the affectionate interest aroused by the former book. In "Sophy of Kravonia," however, there comes a lawful heir to enthusiasm. In no way connected with its honored forerunner, it pulls at the same heartstrings. By a reversal it is now an English woman whose fortunes knot themselves up with those of a mythi-

cal kingdom, yet there is nothing mythical about Sophy, though everything that is original. She is a genuine and most charming person, with "her masculine mind and her feminine soul"—described by an admirer as being "like a singularly able and energetic sunbeam." The whole eventful story is so well knit that each marvel seems not only possible but almost inevitable, from the childhood of Sophy Grouch, daughter of an Essex farmer, till the time when she sits in the dwellings of kings, and wears the sheepskin tunic of the shepherd subjects of her prince. The conspiracy which thickens the plot is capitally developed, and long before the matter is solved the reader has quite forgotten that at the outset there was a certain sense of oppressiveness in the very serious marshaling of documentary evidence, as if for the history of a nation or the biography of a nation's hero.

Listener's Lure. By E. V. Lucas. New York: The Macmillan Co.

It is pleasant to relax from the strain of romantic or psychological narrative in the presence of a bit of good comedy cast in the despised and almost obsolescent epistolary form. The truth is, our pampered jades of fiction have learned to demand a free rein; without the power to invent their own forms, to describe and to comment and narrate as the spirit moves, they would reckon themselves hardly better off than mere dramatists. The people who write these letters are all delightful and all different; and the story in which they collaborate, while of no essential novelty, is agreeable, and seems true. There is a guardian unconsciously in love with his ward, and a ward unconsciously in love with her guardian. He magnanimously sends her away that she may have a chance to fall undesirably in love with somebody else. She goes so far as to make a false start in that direction, but recovers her footing in time, and everything is as it should be. This might easily be tame, but the central affair is so enlivened by the commentary of several subsidiary persons, both wise and foolish, as to achieve a really fresh savor. Especially invaluable is a garrulous and inconsequent lady of the order of Jane Austen's Mrs. Bates. With her we are loath to part when the customary wedding bells ring down the curtain.

Ridolfo: The Coming of the Dawn. By Egerton R. Williams, jr. Chicago. A. C. McClurg & Co.

This is sub-entitled "A Tale of the Renaissance." The characters are fictitious, but their names and their deeds and their surroundings are borrowed from the histories of "The Magnificent Bagliopi," long the ferocious despots of Perugia. Ridolfo himself is suggested by the greatest of the Bagliopi, Gianpaolo, who to his strength and violence added an element of magnanimity. The book tells of the culmination of Ridolfo's cruelties, the dawning of a conscience, and the triumph of his better self through the love of a saintly wife and the martyrdom of a Franciscan monk. The proper moment to read the tale is when the brain is fagged with books of trivial twentieth-century grievances and perplexities. Crimes and virtues are on a sweeping scale. Oaths broken at

will; a dagger for the annoying meddler, a cup of poison for the interceding wife, have a definiteness that alternates well with the niggling problem of to-day's fiction. The torture chamber may try the nerves, but it was perhaps necessary that the reader should see what Ridolfo saw in order to understand his conversion.

The author has searched well the history of Italy and the fifteenth century, and has his splendors and brutalities drawn up in effective contrast. His Fra Bernardo, based upon that saint Bernardino who came to Perugia in 1425, is a noble type of the followers of the Saint of Assisi, giving his labor and his life for the revival of the spirit of kindness. Gismonda, the compassionate, long-suffering wife of the tyrant, conquering by love and righteousness, is not more than the others a portrait of any one person, but a reflection of the womanly inspiration that was not lacking to even that dark period. The book is a vivid picture where the high color is offset, perhaps mercifully, by the careful, leisurely, sermonizing treatment. While the story never flags, there is time for much description of persons, things and situations, of costumes and armor, in an equal absence of haste and rest. It leaves a strong and even valuable impression of an age which it is well to look back at, not only when modern puzzles seem petty, but when modern civilization seems defective.

Some Reminiscences of William Michael Rossetti. Two volumes. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. New York. \$10 net.

It may as well be said explicitly that these memoirs are a disappointment. They contain an unconscionable deal of matter for which even the present fashion of indiscriminate autobiography can furnish no justification—details about the servants in the Rossetti household, the illness of his wife and children, domestic concerns of all sorts. Nor are the omissions any less annoying than the excesses. Only last year Holman Hunt published, under the somewhat presumptuous title of "Pre-Raphaelitism and the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood," an autobiography the burden of which was to prove that the writer was the founder and only faithful member of the P. R. B. It was easy to read between the lines that Mr. Hunt was jealous of Dante Gabriel Rossetti and not averse to belittling his fame. Naturally one looked in the present work to see some rejoinder, implied or expressed, to those rather egotistic assumptions. Apparently Mr. Rossetti has not even read that work; we gather, indeed, that his own record was completed in 1903, although the Preface is dated 1906, and includes the mention of the Complete Poetical Works of Christina Rossetti, which he edited in 1904. But the omission of any allusion to Hunt's autobiography or to the "Memorials of Edward Burne-Jones" (1904) is not the most serious fault. The fact is that Mr. Rossetti has in various memoirs and introductions given out all his wheat and that only the chaff is left for this garnering. He is kind enough to give in the Preface a list of his earlier writings, and this is well; but it is annoying, just when we are approach-

ing an interesting topic, to be warned off with a reference to number 16 or 17 of his other writings.

For page after page we have a *catalogue raisonné* of Mr. Rossetti's acquaintance among artists and men of letters, to each of whom he devotes a paragraph of characterization. His opinions are just, and may have some value in this form as a kind of personal "Who's Who," but they make dull reading. Here and there a bit of more entertaining gossip slips in. Thus there is a whole chapter given to the story of Christina Rossetti and Charles Cayley, which is necessary for a proper understanding of Christina's sonnet-sequence named "Monna Innominata," and for the Italian poems "Il Rosseggiar dell' Oriente." In the earlier memoir Mr. Rossetti left this affair somewhat in the vague, saying distinctly: "Of several details in the second case—though important to a close understanding of it—I never was cognizant." He now states more emphatically that the only bar between the lovers was Christina's refusal to bind herself to an unbeliever.

It is a pity that Mr. Rossetti's fire has been thus scattered, for his relation to his brother and sister and to the whole circle of pre-Raphaelites might have furnished him with material for one really valuable and interesting book. As it is, if one wishes to get some notion of the dæmonic quality of Dante Gabriel and of his strange influence on that group of ardent reformers, the best source is not the "Reminiscences" of his brother, but the two volumes in which Mrs. Burne-Jones has published the "Memorials" of her husband.

The most interesting of the characterizations are those of Burne-Jones, who is portrayed as rather effeminate; of Swinburne, and of Trelawny. Perhaps the best anecdote is that which shows the state of canting prudery in England when Swinburne's "Poems and Ballads" came out. The story may be given in Mr. Rossetti's own words:

In 1868, Mr. Legros exhibited in the Royal Academy an excellent picture of some monks or friars at their repast—called The Refectory. There was a tabby cat painted in the picture. In that year was published a pamphlet of Notes on the art of the season. Mr. Swinburne wrote one section of it, and I the other. Swinburne—who is a great lover of cats (a fancy which I share with him), and also (a fancy which I only very faintly share) of serpents—wrote of this painted quadruped as "a splendid cat." The picture was bought—presumably before Swinburne's eulogium had appeared—by a person of some distinction. Many years afterwards, in 1895, I had occasion to look at this painting in the house of the heir of the original purchaser. To my surprise, the cat had disappeared. "Why," said I, "there used to be a cat in that corner of the picture." "Yes," replied the owner, "there was; but my predecessor, on seeing that Swinburne had found a good word to say for the cat, got her obliterated forthwith."

An Introduction to Logic. By Horace William Brindley Joseph. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.

It is surprising in what a variety of ways the different schools of logic of our day endeavor to lay the foundations of their science. One appeals chiefly to mathematics, another to metaphysics, a third to the general notion of a sign, a fourth and fifth to this and that branch of psychology,

a sixth to linguistics, a seventh to the history of science; and still the 11st is incomplete; and there is an equal disagreement as to the business of logic. The school to which Mr. Joseph seems to give his adherence, which is that of the majority of English logicians, is none of those just mentioned; for it troubles itself very little with any questions of method, but just goes its way, scattering opinions upon points of logic, and attaching to this one and to that any reason that may suggest itself. Such promiscuity of method might be expected to issue in great variations among the doctrines of the different members of the school; and it is true that some of its adherents—Miss Constant Jones, for example, and Alfred Sidgwick—have written books of marked originality, which readers who dip into the subject without diving too deep find very suggestive. The greater number, however, among them the author of this volume, are led, by whatever unseen and inscrutable power it may be, to reproduce in the main the divisions and forms of the traditional logic, slightly modified by metaphysical doctrines, partly in most cases those of Mill, mixed not infrequently with those of Mill's philosophical antipodes.

When, however, we say they reproduce the traditional divisions, we only mean that verbally they do so, for the significations some of them attach to the old terms of logic, have only preserved the shell and have cast away the kernel. For instance, Mr. Joseph excludes from the class of universal propositions all those which do not imply the existence of some individuals denoted by their subject, as well as all those which do not predicate by "conceptual necessity," both of which exclusions flatly conflict with the *Dictum de omni* of Aristotle and with all tradition, and which, taken together, make one simple proposition to express at once both existence and necessity, which constitutes a third breach of traditional usage in connection with the use of the single term "universal." In such ways as this he effects a verbal agreement with the traditional doctrine by demolitions of parts of the existing system of nomenclature and using the débris to begin, but only to begin, the erection of a new system in the place of it, like that architectural performance of Charles V. in Granada.

We shall not find fault with any man for any sincere study; and if it gives him any particular pleasure to call his study logic, that word is by this time pretty near past spoiling. Only we would suggest that to define one's object of study in such a way that scarce anything would be excluded—as when Mr. Joseph and others of his school tell us that logic ascertains "how we think"—it seems fair to demand that their conclusions should be based upon inductions correspondingly broad. The reviewer, for example, can have nothing but praise for a logic he dimly remembers reading in the sixties, which carefully analyzed all those phrases of the German language that are equivalent to conjunctions, without any pretence that it covered all the possibilities of thought in this narrow class of conjunctive elements. We might think, however, that before coming to those variations of thought, it would be better to begin by considering all the ways in which

we must think in order to draw all kinds of necessary conclusions; for even if logic be concerned with all modes of thinking, we are inclined to the opinion that it is specially concerned with those forms of thought that have some bearing upon the validity or non-validity of different ways of reasoning. It was fifty-nine years ago that Professor De Morgan called attention to certain forms of inference of great practical importance, which nothing in the logic-books explained or gave any clue to, although it is necessary to sound reasoning to distinguish the cases in which such arguments are valid from the cases in which they are invalid. Yet we do not remember ever having seen any mention of these forms of inference in any treatise of Mr. Joseph's school. Here is an example of one of them:

Every dollar that ever was or will be in the safe was or will have been received as a loan.

For every dollar ever received as a loan a payment of a dollar will be made.

Hence, every dollar that ever was or will be in the safe was or will be paid out.

When De Morgan opened this road to logical inquiry, he opened a road to sempiternal glory for British logic; but unfortunately investigators of any vigor of thought were lacking. De Morgan did much more than that; for he also opened up the logic of relations, which had from the beginning been a well-recognized branch of logic, and which, when American and German logicians developed it, turned out to throw a wonderful new light upon every part of logic, while the logicians of the Oxford school merely advanced little reasons for thinking a logic of relations to be impossible.

The distinguished mathematical genius, George Boole, produced a method of logical inquiry by means of algebra, which was a most brilliant achievement. A few logicians of the most numerous British school have paid attention to the Boolean logic. We mention here, not because they are the best, but because they are the most soundly critical, Venn, Jevons, and Keynes. The great body seem never to have looked into it.

Posterity will say that human intelligence is under vast obligations to the logical work of Alfred Bray Kempe, sometime President of the London Mathematical Society. But one may search in vain for any evidence that logicians of the school we are speaking of, have so much as divined what relevancy his laborious researches have for any real problem of reasoning.

It is a matter of regret to us that the brevity of this notice forces us to confine ourselves to Mr. Joseph's faults, since they are the faults of his school, and it is not quite fair to the individual to judge him exclusively according to the genus to which he belongs. But the truth is that when we have said that this treatise possesses such original merits as the majority of the thousand treatises can claim that have appeared since Michael Scott and the western publication of Aristotle, and perhaps possesses a little more, we have accorded to it all the notice it merits; while its school is of more importance simply on account of its numerical greatness, and because of the evil that it is working to British thought. This school is composed mostly of indolent and often feeble minds

whose interest in logic lies in the professorships, the fellowships, the popularity as tutors, or other sources of bread and butter which they enjoy, and who are therefore sworn obscurantists, bound to oppose any movement of real thought in English logic. When a study fails to develop definite and well-considered methods; when it is not animated by a sufficient passion to find out the truth, whatever the truth may be, to insure the careful study of all the work that earnest students do within its province; and when in place of manifold new discoveries, it does no more than verbally reproduce foregone conclusions, it is idle to boast that is a science.

Mr. Joseph sometimes lays down general propositions without any pretence at making their reasonableness evident; and he justifies this practice by saying that his book is not a complete treatise on logic, but, as its title indicates, is only "an introduction to logic." Now, says he, in the first introduction to any science there must be more or less dogmatism. Is this Oxford pedagogics? Elsewhere, if a man is to write an introduction to any science—say chemistry—he will draw a clear line between information as to what has happened, and dogmatic insistence upon principles and the like, and will take the utmost pains in describing, say, the experiments of Lavoisier upon the oxidation and reduction of mercury, to show the convincingness of the reasoning; so as to remove the idea that there is to be any appeal to authority or other arbitrary determination of principles. If he has to teach botany, he will probably set the beginner at work to dissect a flower with his own eyes and fingers, and to describe what he sees; and will be careful to make him understand that botany is only an orderly description of what can always be seen under favorable conditions. It appears to some of us that the first steps in any science ought to deal with those departments of the science that come most in contact with the life and interests of the students; and we should not approve of an introduction to botany, whose first two hundred pages were occupied with the artificial, though indispensable, technicalities that botanists are compelled to use in order to describe species and other forms. Yet it is the like of that, that Mr. Joseph does in logic; and useful as his book may prove to an advanced logician, it is almost the worst possible for a beginner's introduction to the subject.

The Arbitrator in Council. New York: The Macmillan Co., \$2.50 net.

This anonymous octavo volume of more than 550 pages discusses peace and war. It is in the form of an elaborate symposium, supplemented by various reports in writing by the *dramatis personæ*, among whom are Reginald Case, K. C., a barrister "with a conscience," Martin Truelove, in holy orders, the Rev. Augustine Clarke, an Independent minister, Leopold Meyer, a stock broker, William Browne, a learned Cambridge historian and pupil of Lord Acton, Captain Seymour of the Intelligence Department of the War Office, and Tracy de Vere, a retired admiral. The Arbitrator himself is Mr. Ashworthy, a veteran Liberal, of seventy-

five, and disciple of John Bright. For every day during a week there is a discussion; the subjects discussed are the causes and consequences of war, modern warfare, private war and the duel, cruelty, the federation of the world, arbitration, the political economy of war, Christianity and war.

As a summary of all that is to be said on the subject, thrown into a readable form, the book is well done; nevertheless, after reading it there is left in the mind of the reader the perhaps unavoidable feeling that it is an old story; that after all, we knew before that war does not exist because there is anything to be said for it, but in spite of overwhelming evidence that it is the worst possible calamity. In other words, the book is a demonstration of what nobody can successfully dispute. It is chiefly valuable, therefore, as a storehouse of all the wisdom of the ages on the subject. Fifty years ago, so thoroughly was the world convinced of the disadvantages of war, that we doubt if the author could have found a publisher. In the last fifty years there has been a revival of the old fallacy, transmitted from the pre-industrial predatory period, that one of the objects of national existence is war, and that there is a great deal to be said for war in the abstract. The progress of democracy, too, has thrown political power, which includes that of making war, into the hands of vast masses of men who know little or nothing of history or political economy, and who are prone to the delusion that it is upon successful war that the greatness of nations hinges. So that we are undoubtedly living in a generation which much needs the wisdom contained in this volume. Could it be instilled into the masses who are now pleased with taxes imposed for battleships, and deluded with the notion that "Trade follows the flag," it would do more good than has been done by any one book in the world, unless it be the Bible. Unfortunately, it is unlikely to be read except by those who are in sympathy with its argument. This, at least, is the impression made upon us. If we are wrong, so much the better.

The only argument in favor of war brought forward in recent times that has any novelty in it, is that brought to our attention by the neo-Imperialists and reactionaries here and in England, within the last twenty-five years—that war is a school of fortitude, and heroism. The implication is that you need war to foster those virtues. The answer to this suggestion is, of course, that there are countless ways in times of peace in which fortitude and heroism may be and are fostered. The fireman, the policeman, the sailor, the engineer, are heroically risking their lives every day, without the stimulus of drum or trumpet. But, besides this, it would be the work of a lunatic to introduce calamity and destruction in order to foster the virtues. We do not scuttle ships in order to develop the desire to save the lives of others at the expense of our own, nor set fire to a city for the sake of filling people with zeal to extinguish the flames. The idea that we can defend war by such an argument is preposterous.

It is not in arguments of this sort that actual war finds its support. The fundamental reason for war, the unanswerable rea-

son, before arbitration between nations became recognized as an available substitute, is that it is the *ultima ratio regum*. The last resort of sovereigns, after argument is exhausted, is violence. Hence in any particular case, the question always is, not whether the war was not a good thing in itself, *quâ* war, but whether it was avoidable. We defend the war of the Revolution as having been forced on us. In civil wars both sides usually imagine themselves to have been driven into taking up arms. The great discovery of our age is that most wars are preventable by arbitration. If the world at large ever became persuaded that war itself was a good thing, it would inevitably throw the leading nations back into that stage of civilization from which they have emerged—the military or predatory stage, in which war is recognized as the natural means of a State's growth, in which every man is trained first to be soldier, and peace is regarded as the exception.

It is impossible to make extracts which will give any idea of the book as a whole. In the wide range of the subject, almost no topic is left untouched, from the question of the Early Christian doctrine and practice as regards military service, down to the question whether a general arbitration treaty should include everything, or bar matters affecting national honor. The varied scholarship and reading drawn upon give no clue, as far as we know, to the authorship.

The Spirit of Democracy. By Charles F. Dole. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.20 net.

In both its matter and its manner, Mr. Dole's book will undoubtedly please a good many people. It begins with the familiar criticism of history—or, rather, of historical writing—as largely concerned with the wrong sort of thing; it defines the "spirit of democracy" in terms which may mean much or little, according to the notions of those who use them; it passes rapidly in review, with a considerable wealth of stimulating suggestion, a large number of contemporary social conditions and problems; and it leaves the clear impression that, in the opinion of the author, the world is getting on better than ever and is pretty sure to come out all right. That which is saving us from our sins, and fitting us not only for the life that now is, but also for that which is to come, is democracy. With the formal aspects of democracy, as a scheme of government or political organization, Mr. Dole does not, indeed, much concern himself, though he thinks that the President of the United States has quite too much power, especially in the matter of appointments, and that American municipal government is pretty bad. What interests him most is the worldwide development of a social temper distinguished by good-will, neighborliness, regard for the rights of others and the good of all, humanity, justice, and peace. Competition is giving way to coöperation. Economic subjection is a painful anomaly, the exploitation of alien or inferior peoples a relic of barbarism, and war a crime. Of one blood are all the nations of the earth; let us live as such!

Mr. Dole is not, indeed, under the de-

lusion that we have as yet perfectly attained to all this. He frankly admits that we have done those things that we ought not to have done, and have left undone the things we ought to have done. He declines, however, to believe that there is no health in us. On the contrary, his survey of present-day social interests and activities has for its object, apparently, the demonstration that, amid all our lamentable shortcomings, the spirit of true democracy, the atmosphere of social oneness and mutual regard, more and more pervades the world. The American party system, for example, tramples on minorities and strangles real political interest, but the spirit of democracy is disintegrating the parties and favoring the formation of small groups. Crime and pauperism are still with us, but we are attacking the causes of poverty and reforming the criminal. Our policy of imperialism is a sordid affair, unblest of Heaven and reprobated by good men, but we are realizing its error and may in time get rid of it. Our system of taxation is vicious and undemocratic, unrestricted immigration a menace, and divorce a profound evil; but the growing recognition of the situation augurs the eventual discovery of a remedy.

Of remedies, indeed, direct or indirect, Mr. Dole is fairly fertile; and it is at this point that we come upon the fundamental limitation of his book. As an exposition of the spirit of social unity, humanity, and altruism which is abroad in the land, and as a presentation of the weakness and defects, large or small, of modern social organization, the volume contains much that is admirable. The style is nervous and epigrammatic, and the choice of illustrations quite up to date. There is a directness, a downrightness of manner that gives to its statements an air of completeness and finality which to some will be gratifying. When, however, we turn from the specifications of Mr. Dole's indictment—and they are neither few nor slight—and scrutinize his proposed remedies, we are compelled to think them strangely inadequate. Does Mr. Dole really believe that the power of the President is ever likely to undergo wholesale curtailment, or that things would be appreciably better if it did; or that taxation is to be made "popular"—we quote his characterization—by substituting direct for indirect taxes or laying heavier charges on land; or that men will be fined or disfranchised for failure to attend caucuses or vote; or that our great political parties are to be replaced by a régime of political groups? If he does, then we cannot but commend to him, with all deference, the further study of that history for whose incidents he has, apparently, only limited respect.

We need to-day very much, as a great democratic State, two forms of service. We need an accurate, clear, and thoroughgoing description of actual social conditions, and a sound, practical, restrained indication of ways in which we may better ourselves. To the satisfaction of the first of these needs Mr. Dole has made a worthy and suggestive contribution, but we cannot think that his treatment of the second has permanent significance.

Drama.

THE HOUSE OF MIRTH.

The production in the Savoy Theatre, on Monday, of a dramatized version of Mrs. Wharton's "House of Mirth," done by the author and Clyde Fitch, raised more than a ripple of excitement in theatrical circles, but did not prove to be a matter of much literary or dramatic importance. It did, however, afford one more practical demonstration of the enormous difficulties attending the conversion of a book into drama. The hopeless feat would not be attempted, of course, if it were not for the commercial value of a popular title. Mr. Fitch, who doubtless did most of the work of adaptation, has succeeded wonderfully well in preserving the chief incidents and personages, but only at the cost of excluding nearly everything that made the original story worth while. Stripped of all literary accompaniment, all discussion of character, motive, and circumstance, Lily Bart and her associates become stage puppets of a very ordinary type, differing in no important respect from those employed in many a modern melodrama. There is nothing novel or especially entertaining in their silly small talk, their cynicism, selfishness, and immorality. If the play had any fine comic or satiric quality, excited profound sympathy, or was rich in the element of suspense, the case would be altered. But it has nothing that resembles a plot, makes no appeal to the finer human impulses, and practically no attempt to lash or to ridicule the degeneracy which it represents. In the last act, indeed, Lily, having drunk the cup of her own folly to the dregs, has a striking speech, in which she arraigns society for the callous indifference with which it discards disgraced or impoverished wretches, but this is only a personal protest, without general application. Thus the play lacks a valid purpose as well as sympathetic quality. Even those persons who deny that the theatre has any mission to instruct or to preach, admit that it must entertain or perish. In "The House of Mirth" there is nothing that promotes either merriment or edification. It offers more or less veracious exposures of bad habits, but cannot be described as in any sense a comedy of manners. To the original book it bears about the same relation as the skeleton does to the complete man. The redeeming point in it as a play is the opportunity which it offers to Miss Fay Davis for some very clever acting. She illustrates the different phases in Miss Bart's downward career with much subtle perception, executive skill, and emotional power.

The long-promised revival of Shakspeare's "Cymbeline" made this week in the Astor Theatre, by Miss Viola Allen, is an ambitious and expensive but not very satisfactory achievement. The play, it is almost needless to say, presents many problems to the modern producer. In the first place it is so long that cutting is absolutely necessary to bring it within the limits of an evening's performance; and in the second, it has an exceedingly involved plot, so that it is difficult to cut it heavily without rendering it unintelli-

gible. This difficulty is increased when time has to be secured for the manipulation of elaborate scenery, such as Miss Allen has provided. She has, indeed, sacrificed so much to mere spectacle that the part by Shakspeare in the production is often subordinate to the contributions of the scene-painter and costumer. She probably felt that the piece was not likely to win popularity on its merits alone, and it must be confessed that as an acting play, with its clumsy and highly incredible story, it leaves much to be desired. But these defects are emphasized rather than concealed by a gorgeous setting. The essentials to an effective interpretation are a spirited and capable delivery of the text, which contains many fine passages, together with much of inferior character, and a vivid embodiment of the principal personages. Neither of these conditions exists at the Astor Theatre. The Imogen of Miss Allen, an actress of very set methods, possesses womanly charm and intelligence, but is altogether uninspired. In utterance it is very faulty. Cymbeline and his intriguing queen, Pisanio and Iachimo, exhibit scarcely a vestige of the individuality and force which belong to them. The eccentric Cloten of Sidney Herbert, though strange in conception, has at least the merit of vitality and consistent design. The Posthumus, too, is right in conception. The havoc made of the text, including some of the most famous passages, by minor performers was lamentable. Much of it was unintelligible at close range. On the whole the performance is rather dispiriting, as it shows that the art of speaking blank verse is almost extinct upon the stage. But Miss Allen is entitled to credit for her personal endeavor, and it is pleasant to know that she is playing to full houses.

A new play, by a new author, Rudolf Bessier, is to be seen in the London Adelphi Theatre this week. It is called "The Virgin Goddess." The play, written in blank verse, is modelled on the lines of old Greek drama, the action taking place in Artis, an imaginary city of ancient Greece. Three acts are required for the development of the story, while the unities of time and place are strictly observed. A chorus figures in the piece, but its function is to contribute to, rather than merely to comment upon, the action.

The sixtieth birthday of Holger Drachmann was celebrated by the first performance of his latest romantic drama, "Sir Olaf he Rides," at the Theatre Royal, Copenhagen, on October 9, and a banquet the following day.

Music.

It was no doubt a desire to exploit her comic vein that induced the greatest living contralto, Mme. Schumann-Heink, to abandon the concert stage and grand opera two years ago and devote herself to operetta. Her admirers shook their heads over this procedure, and there was great joy among them when it was announced that she would return to the Metropolitan Opera House this season as well as to the concert hall, deserting a specialty which was suited neither to her matronly appearance nor to

her big voice. On Saturday afternoon last Carnegie Hall was filled by an audience eager to welcome her back to her legitimate sphere. Although reports had come from Germany of her great triumphs last summer at Bayreuth and Munich, there was still some anxiety as to the possible harm that might have come to her voice from the wear and tear of the operetta stage; but this was soon dispelled. While there were traces of damage, and while the singer has acquired a habit of injudicious breathing, these things seemed hardly worth mentioning in view of all the noble qualities of her art—her clear enunciation, her refined phrasing, her great command of tone colors, and above all her splendid dramatic temperament, which enables her to seize the real gist of a song and present it to the delighted audience in a stirring climax.

An interesting novelty is to be produced at the first concert of the New York Oratorio Society—"The Children's Crusade." It is a musical legend in four parts adapted from the poem by Marcel Schwob, with music by Gabriel Pierné, who won a prize with this work, which also saw an impression in Paris. The vocal score with English text by Henry Grafton Chapman has just been issued by G. Schirmer. The Oratorio Society will also sing "The Messiah," as usual, and Elgar's "Apostles," as well as the newly added Part III., entitled "The Kingdom."

Boston is not yet certain of an opera season, Mr. Conried, manager of the Metropolitan Opera House, having promised a week or two only on condition that a sufficient guarantee fund is raised. But an interesting operatic novelty will be presented by the Cecilia Society, which announces a performance, in concert form, of the late Prof. J. K. Paine's "Azara."

One of the treats in store for the music-lovers of London is a performance, under Hans Richter, of Liszt's "Dante Symphony," a composition which, because of its great difficulties, is seldom given. Wagner called it "an eternal work," "a creation equally inspired and masterly." Even Michael Angelo, he wrote, did not succeed in infusing the soul of Dante into another art so thoroughly as Liszt did in this score, which could not have been written until after Bach and Beethoven had done their work.

While Liszt was the most cosmopolitan of all musicians and spent but a fraction of his life in his native country, many Hungarians think that his remains should, at any rate, be buried near where he was born, Raiding. In that district, a large Catholic church is being built, and it is proposed to erect in it a monument to Liszt on the hundredth anniversary of his birth, 1911. The local authorities are also making an effort to secure his remains, and the plan is to have them transferred next September, when a Liszt statue is to be unveiled in the new Academy of Music at Budapest. It seems doubtful, however, whether it will be possible to carry out this idea. Liszt died in Bayreuth and was buried in the cemetery there. An effort was made at the time to make Weimar his last resting place; but even with the aid of the Grand Duke Carl Alexander, the project failed. Liszt belonged to the order of Franciscans, and one of the rules of this

order is that members must be buried in the place where they die. The *Allgemeine Musik-Zeitung* also calls attention to the fact that Liszt's last will of the date of 1867, contained these directions: "My body is to be buried not in a church, but in a public cemetery, and let no one undertake to remove it thence to another place." Three years later, he said in a private letter: "I protest most emphatically against the dragging about of my corpse." Finally, it is not likely that Frau Wagner would consent to the removal of her father's remains.

The unprecedented price of 44,000 marks is demanded by a Leipzig bookseller for the manuscript of Beethoven's "Waldstein" sonata, and the German newspapers express the fear that, because of this high price, the sonata will, like so many other precious documents, go to America.

Art.

THE HOLMAN HUNT EXHIBITION.

LONDON, October 10.

Whatever were the merits of the Pre-Raphaelites and their friends, business capacity was not the least. There had been movements in art of far more importance long before their day, there have been movements as amusing since. But there has hardly ever been one so well advertised, so well talked about. Indeed, since Ruskin first constituted himself their champion, the Pre-Raphaelites have figured much more effectively on the written page than on the painted canvas. Their influence on art has been simply *nil*. For a while they had their followers, who threatened to monopolize the Grosvenor Gallery and then the New Gallery in its early days; and even until some ten years or so ago, critics had still much to say of the neo-Gothic School. But all this has completely passed. Anything less neo-Gothic than the New Gallery now in its spring exhibitions can scarcely be imagined. And, if you except Byam Shaw and Miss Brickdale, who still dabble in the old motives and methods, not a trace of Pre-Raphaelitism is left, and yet books about it continue to appear.

The opening of an exhibition of the life work of Mr. Holman Hunt comes as a useful reminder of what Pre-Raphaelitism really means. It is easier to judge it dispassionately, now that more than fifty years have passed since the first rumors of it startled a mid-Victorian world, too decorous to be in sympathy with movements of any kind. If we are to believe him, Mr. Holman Hunt is, and always has been, its only true exponent. In his work, therefore, if anywhere, the movement may be studied profitably. Fortunately, a thoroughly representative collection has been got together. The exhibition is held in the Leicester Galleries, whose managers have done everything possible to arrange pictures and drawings to the best advantage. Mr. Holman Hunt has never, even in 1886, been so well seen. Very few important pictures are missing. One looks in vain for the "Christians Escaping from Druid Persecution" and the "Rienzi"—his first declarations of faith, they might be

called—for the "Awakened Conscience" and the two larger versions of the "Light of the World." But otherwise, the series is fairly complete. From the "Hireling Shepherd" and the "Strayed Sheep" to the first Eastern pictures; from the "Finding of the Saviour in the Temple," the "Scapegoat," and the "Shadow of the Cross" to the "Isabella and the Pot of Basil" and the record of the second journey to the East; from the "Triumph of the Innocents" and the "Distribution of the Holy Fire in the Church of the Sepulchre, Jerusalem," to the "May Morning on Magdalen Tower" and the "Lady of Shalott," finished only yesterday—they are all here. And there are the portraits from various periods: of himself, his wife, Sir Richard Owen, the most conspicuous. And there are also many of the water-colors and drawings, these last including several of the preliminary studies for the illustrations to Moxon's Tennyson and other of the most famous publications of the sixties.

To be honest, the first glance round the galleries gives one something of a shock. The distressing discord of color everywhere, the hard, graceless forms that seem to jump at you from the canvas, the exaggerations, the lack of repose, and decorative feeling—these things are an offence to the eye. Yet you cannot pass Holman Hunt by as you would the painter who plays his antics on canvas, who flaunts his eccentricities, for the sake of a day's sensation or scandal. There is no mistaking the seriousness of his work to him, the grim determination to see things for himself as they are, and then to show them as he sees them for the edification of the world. You need not plod through those two ponderous volumes of his autobiography—for an autobiography, despite its name, the book really is—to understand the toil which has ever been his one definition of art. And that is just the tragedy of it—to have labored, to have evolved theories, to have made their practical application a long martyrdom, only to see things like that! One of the fundamental dogmas—or perhaps I might say *the* fundamental dogma—of Pre-Raphaelitism, was that the artist should work directly from nature. At the moment, it was a dogma that there was reason enough to cry aloud from English housetops. The mid-Victorian tendency was all for anecdote neatly constructed in the studio. But to go direct to nature is a very different thing from knowing how to use what you see when you get there. The Realists in France, too, were all for going to nature; Courbet was making his disturbing manifesto in Paris about very much the same time as the Pre-Raphaelites were electrifying London. But it was not so many years after Courbet had held the exhibition of his Salon-rejected pictures that one of his admirers, Whistler, was writing to another, Fantin-Latour, that to work entirely from nature was disturbing, misleading; that it was impossible to do more than to *sketch* from her anyway, as effects *en plein air* changed constantly, and that to use what nature had to give was possible only in the studio. What came of the young Whistler's decision we know. What came of the Pre-Raphaelite's, when he stuck uncompromisingly to Pre-Raphaelitism, is revealed by Holman Hunt.

In his earliest pictures, when he was

not yet overpowered by a sense of duty and responsibility, before his theory of art had become more important to him than art itself, he did manage to see a little beauty in the world about him, and to suggest it to a certain extent. The landscape background to the "Hireling Shepherd" is full of the charm and loveliness of the English country, and the sun shines brilliantly and tenderly on the green hillside of the "Strayed Sheep." To me, these two are by far the finest pictures he ever painted. And yet, even at these you cannot look without the consciousness of how much he lost by pushing his theory to illogical extremes. In the "Hireling Shepherd" the two figures that fill the foreground do not belong to the landscape they are not in it—they have the effect of figures cut out and pasted on. For the curious part of the Pre-Raphaelites' respect for detail was their indifference as to the relation of this detail to the picture. The most glaring instance of what I mean is the "Huguenot Lovers" by Millais, who painted with infinite pains the walls against which the lovers stand, long before he had the slightest idea of the subject for which it was to be the background. In the "Strayed Sheep" the elaborate detail is annoying, as one realizes how much better, with how much more absolute truth to nature, the effect might have been got without it. The Pre-Raphaelites might paint a hillside with such minuteness that the blades of grass could be counted, but they did not render the one thing more important than all other in suggesting its character and beauty—that is, the atmosphere enveloping it. Millais, who, of all the Brotherhood, painted, in his "Ophelia" and "Marianna," the most perfect Pre-Raphaelite pictures according to Pre-Raphaelite rules, who seemed to have something of the old Flemings' power of recording details in the most precise fashion without forgetting that the picture to be built up with them was the main thing—Millais was not long in realizing that he and his enthusiastic young fellow reformers were somehow on the wrong track, though, it must be added, in his case Pre-Raphaelitism was deserted only for the more commonplace paths he had been so vigorous in denouncing. Rossetti, with his head full of dreams of rich, sensuous beauty, soon tired of a drudgery that did little to help him embody them. Holman Hunt alone was faithful.

As time went on, his eyes were conscientiously developed into magnifying glasses; he peered more closely into Nature for her detail, he insisted upon it more relentlessly. And what was worse for his art, he began to fancy that this pursuit of detail lent some special spiritual force to his work. His story of himself as painter is one of struggles that have nothing whatsoever to do with the quality of his painting. The fact that he journeyed to the East, that he faced hardship, was the recommendation of his paintings when he returned to London. The public heard of the dangers he braved, of the way he had to go armed to the teeth in order to paint the "Scapegoat" on the actual shores of the Dead Sea. And the public, trained by Ruskin to look for morality, or religion, or anything but

what should be looked for in art, did not fail to be appropriately awed. Only a few people were flippant with Millais, who suggested that before the painter undertook to paint a scapegoat, he should be sure of being able to paint a goat at all. I can still remember the first exhibition in London of the "Triumph of the Innocents," the darkened room in which one sat, and the hushed voices offering praise, and the whisper that went around of the indomitable perseverance of the painter. So it is now with all Holman Hunt's pictures. We are bidden to admire them because the making of them has been so laborious and because of their moral beauty, although beauty itself, the great essential, evaded him in his pursuit of unnecessary fact and irrelevant detail.

How much his judgment was warped by the entire misconception of the business of the painter to which his theory hastened him, he reveals in the pages of his book, with its ungenerous treatment of his old friends, his egotistical determination to take all the credit for Pre-Raphaelitism. He would probably be horrified to find himself accused of egotism and want of generosity—no one could be less conscious, less desirous of being either the one or the other. It is simply that his theory has taken possession of him until he seems unable to believe in anything else, to countenance anything not in accord with it. As in his religious pictures he has overcrowded the canvas with details and symbols, so in his portraits he searches so diligently for the exact anatomical modelling, the bony construction of the face, that he gives you something that is neither flesh nor paint, while there are pictures in which, as in the "Miss Flamborough," he endeavors so arduously to express the innocence of childhood, that he tumbles headlong into worse banality than he ever could have found in the Academy to protest against. In the beginning he could not see nature for the detail; his latest work shows him to have reached a point where he cannot see detail for his theory about it.

To admit this is not to complain of any want of interest in the exhibition at the Leicester Galleries. On the contrary, it is exceedingly interesting, in the first place historically, and in the second because the very seriousness of intention cannot fail to be recognized. Ability Mr. Holman Hunt undoubtedly possesses. It may be too soon as yet to decide what his place really is in the art of the last half century. But it is safe to say that he can never be forgotten altogether. His personality, the picturesqueness of the famous Brotherhood, will save him. But when you consider his early drawings for illustration, when you look at the beautiful painting of much of the detail, when you realize the knowledge, the technical mastery devoted to his sermons in paint, you can only wish he had been spared the virtue upon which he most prides himself—that he had not been faithful, but, with Millais and Rossetti, had escaped from Pre-Raphaelitism before it made him the slave of its fallacies.

N. N.

"Engraving and Etching," by the late Dr. Fr. Lippmann, translated by Martin Hardie (Scribners), is a well-printed version in English of the best concise treatise ever written about the history of intaglio prints.

There are 131 illustrations on the scale of the original engravings, and while these impressions from relief blocks inevitably lack the quality of fine engravings, they suffice to study the technic of the artists. The record is carried only to the beginning of the nineteenth century, since it was Dr. Lippmann's belief that the revival of painter-etching in the last century would require a separate volume. It is a matter of deep regret that he was not spared to finish his work, for no writer on the subject has so perfectly combined minute historical accuracy with a sober and just taste. In the present volume we could wish a more detailed account of printing processes—wiping, retroussage, etc., and could wish away only the unhappy characterization of the always reserved Nanteuil as "straining after effect." But these are hardly blemishes in a well-nigh perfect handbook. For a volume that the collector and student must handle constantly, the binding with its white back, will be a trial. The publishers should not thus encourage the making of relief impressions upon a work devoted to the other branch of engraving.

Dictionaries of technical terms are always in demand, and rightly; but hard it is to find one which is both inexpensive and thoroughgoing. Technical terms are difficult to explain in precise language; if any one doubts, let him try to translate some of them from one language into another, even allowing himself excellent knowledge of both languages and long practice, or utilizing to the full the knowledge and the practice of others. As he will not find any one term which can be translated into a single term in another tongue, accurate in every case, so he will not find an obvious form of words in which to express the full significance of even the simplest terms of building. That fact is what Thomas Dinham Atkinson, who has compiled a "Glossary of English Architecture" (London: Methuen & Co.), must have found by this time. That is what persons who use the book will find too frequently. Opening the volume at a venture one finds "Respond" defined as "a half-column terminating an arcade"; but a "respond" may be a half-column or a pilaster, or a corbel, or that wall-pier for which no precise technical term is in use—a projecting mass showing perhaps five faces of an octagonal pillar or the like. And then instead of "terminating an arcade" the respond may be the pilaster behind a free column, or at the end of a row of such columns, even when no arches appear in the structure. The reader may amuse himself with the task of fitting a brief sentence to the varied requirements of that term. The greater number of the definitions in Mr. Atkinson's volume are, however, intelligible, and such terms as ironwork, Greek architecture, and plaster work give excuse for articles two or three pages long, which are really intelligent and are likely to be of use.

"The Gem-Cutter's Craft," by Leopold Claremont, is announced by Messrs. Bell (London) as the first book upon precious stones to be written by a practical gem-cutter. In it every kind of gem is described, and the difficulties of discriminating precious stones are discussed.

The archæologist Wilhelm Volgraff has recently brought to light at Argos the remains of a fortified city which appears to

antedate the Mycenaean period. He found a large number of pieces of ceramic ware, among which was a type of "bucchero nero," whose manufacture recalls that of the period of the first city of Troy, with the difference that the Trojan bucchero is fashioned by hand, whereas this discovery shows traces of the wheel. He has also come upon fragments of vases, painted with a fine black, with a sober decorative design of a geometric character. At the foot of the excavated hill some tombs of Mycenaean chiefs were opened, in which were found fragments of vases painted with geometric designs, some gold jewelry, ivory tablets, and objects of bronze, stone, and glass.

The Italian Government is trying to find a way of suitably rewarding the Norwegian sculptor, Christen Dan Magelsen, for a remarkable achievement—the discovery, apparently, of the material used by the ancient Greeks in modelling. Italian experts agree with G. Körte, director of the German Archæological Institute in Rome, as well as with the director of the Greco-Roman antiquity section of the British Museum, that Magelsen has found a clay which presents great advantages over the material now in use. Director Körte specifies two of its advantages: it facilitates the production of hollowed objects of any form and size, and it makes possible the use of iron supports without running any risks when the iron is heated, or contracts again. Björnstjerne Björnson writes enthusiastically about Magelsen in the *Christiania Verdens Gang*. This man, he says, who has discovered a secret lost for two thousand years, was originally a mariner, and it was not till after he had reached ripe manhood that he took up sculpture, although it had been his dream since childhood. He labored under great disadvantages. He was poor, he had a large family. Yet, though he was an adept in neither physics nor chemistry, he learned to experiment with his material till he had what he wanted.

The National Society of French Architects has opened in Paris the public exposition of its fifteenth annual competition. The subject proposed for the competitors was essentially modern: A railway station, designed for a city of eight or ten thousand inhabitants.

Science.

The Birds of the Cambridge Region of Massachusetts. By William Brewster. With four plates and three maps. Cambridge, Mass.: Memoirs of the Nuttall Ornithological Club, No. IV.

Contained in a thick quarto volume of 426 broad-margined pages and handsomely illustrated with plates and maps, Mr. Brewster's contribution must rank, in attractiveness of presentation and in wealth of information, as the most sumptuous local list that has ever been published in this country. The territory covered is not a large one—some fifty square miles of country adjacent to Boston—but, to quote the introduction, "The birds of the Cambridge region have been studied longer and more continuously, as well as perhaps more carefully, than those of any other

locality of similar extent in all America." For upwards of seventy years attention has been focussed on this region. Indeed, Mr. Brewster quotes freely writers of the seventeenth century, Wood, Morton, Josselyn; but it was not until 1832, when Nuttall, then living in Cambridge, published his "Manual" that the birds there began to be systematically studied. Samuel and J. Elliot Cabot, Henry M. Bryant, Thomas M. Brewer, Wilson Flagg, and others of a generation passed away were the pioneers, and then followed William Brewster himself, and a host of contemporaries, who have contributed their mite. Mr. Brewster's own personal observations extend over forty years. With this backing and equipment he has produced a record unsurpassed in details of distribution and of migration. Moreover, we may search in vain for any other list wherein facts essentially dry are more agreeably presented.

Introductory sections, descriptive, historical, and analytical, occupy eighty-four pages, the rest of the volume being given to a carefully annotated list of the 248 species and subspecies found in the region. As a frontispiece a fine portrait of Thomas Nuttall is aptly chosen; and besides several maps and views of country nooks, there is a colored plate of Brewster's Linnet—a bird of which the type has remained unique. Whether it is a species, a hybrid, a mutant, or a color-phase, nobody as yet knows.

Wherever we turn, we find much that is of general, as well as of local interest to ornithologists. For example, under the section "Faunal Changes" there is a brief presentation of facts concerning bird population, with a new and plausible theory to explain its fluctuations—the theory being that "sexual jealousy" renders the male, during the breeding season, intolerant of the near presence of rival males, and by driving them away thus checks overpopulation of a given area. Then, too, we find the descriptions of different localities very fascinating, especially to anybody who has floundered contentedly through the mud-holes of the Fresh Pond marshes or paused to listen to the bubbling melody of the house wrens that spend their summers in the Wren Orchard.

Valuable as this contribution is to ornithological literature, we could wish its limits had been extended; for it is a little too small for a complete ornithology, and a little too large for a local list. In avian parlance, it is an "intergrade," marking, nevertheless, a distinct epoch in the evolution of the local list. There are no radical flaws, although a missing table of contents may be found in *Bird-Lore* for September-October. We think, too, that uncut pages are out of place in a scientific book of this kind.

"The Loose Leaf System of Laboratory Notes," by Theo. H. Scheffer (P. Blakiston & Co.) is a laboratory manual for elementary students in zoölogy. Recent years have been prolific in laboratory directions of this kind, and experience has taught that each laboratory will probably have its own requirements that are met by a "loose-leaf system." Instead of binding the directions in conventional book form the author's system is to tie the sheets together with a shoe-string between de-

tachable covers. The booklet will prove useful in high school and elementary college courses. Whether it is best to introduce the student into the mysteries of science by making him learn the names of all the parts and organs of a number of selected types is perhaps a matter of opinion. The method has been found generally acceptable to students and teachers alike, for it involves the least amount of thinking, and keeps the student interested and busy in the laboratory. In such matters practical advantages outweigh theoretical considerations.

A serious and thoroughly documentary history of the practice of medicine in Geneva before 1800, "La Médecine à Genève jusqu'à la fin du XVIIIe Siècle," by Dr. Léon Gautier, has many pages both of scientific and general interest. Worth noting are those parts of the book which deal with the advent, progress, and disappearance of leprosy (A. D. 700-1600), with the leper colonies—*maladreries*—and other measures taken to guard against a disease which is now again an actuality. Of yet more absorbing interest are the accounts of the judicial trials (probably monstrous errors) of the "plague-sowers" (1530 and 1545), where "Monsieur Calvin ministre" is noted as interceding for the poisoners condemned to death, that they should not be tortured too long, but be put speedily out of their misery.

The recent fire at the University of Groningen completely destroyed the exceptionally rich collection in the Institute of Natural History, which was the monument of the indefatigable collecting zeal of Professor van Ankum, extending over many years.

Finance.

THE AMERICAN MARKET AND LONDON.

Since the article in this column on the Bank of England rate was published last week, the Bank has further advanced its rate to 6 per cent. It did this, ostensibly because New York exchange on London, which had moved sharply in England's favor when the 5 per cent. bank rate was established, October 11, had fallen back, in the ensuing week, to a level where New York could again draw on London's gold. The incident is likely to stand as a landmark, because a 6 per cent. rate has been fixed by the Bank only five times in the last thirty-two years, and because four of those occasions have been disastrous. The dates are 1899, when the Boer war broke out; 1890, when the London house of Baring failed; 1882, when a "bank crash" and panic raged in Paris; and 1878, when the Glasgow Bank suspended payments. The one exception was 1889, when there was no trouble, but, in a world-wide "boom" of trade, London was losing gold too rapidly.

The present case is seemingly analogous to the last mentioned. There is no sign of calamity on the financial horizon, and the 6 per cent. rate, as in 1889, is intended to draw back to England the capital taken from it, and to stop the export of gold. In the few days since the Bank took action

both these ends have been partly achieved. Exchange on London, at Paris and Berlin, has approached the point where both must send gold to England. Our own gold imports have abruptly ceased; sterling exchange has risen, and London, withdrawing capital from the American loans in which such quantities had been invested, is shifting those loans back to the New York banks. Within a fortnight, loans at these banks have increased \$30,000,000—an increase ascribed almost exclusively to the taking over of such obligations from London.

A highly interesting question remains—a question which concerns not only our market, but all others which have been drawing on England: How will such markets be affected by this sudden recall of resources on which they had depended? The answer must be sought in the uses to which that capital had been put. If England's money had been borrowed, for instance, to help move crops to market, and had been borrowed solely because it was cheaper than money in New York, the recall would simply mean that a larger demand would converge on New York, and that rates would be somewhat higher. But if Berlin, for example, having strained its own resources in providing for normal commercial needs, had built up an extravagant speculation in new company shares, and had sustained that speculation wholly through London money, something must happen when London called the money home. This is exactly what did occur at Berlin in 1899. Germany's excited "industrial speculation" of that year was financed through London borrowings. War broke out in South Africa; the Witwatersrand, which had sent \$80,000,000 gold to England the year before, suddenly ceased production; the London bank rate rose to 6 per cent., and England recalled its capital from Berlin. The result was, that the whole structure of Germany's "industrial boom" came to earth.

Germany at that juncture was far from being as rich in real capital and wealth as America is to-day; our own predicament from the loss of English capital is proportionately less awkward. In a short time that part of our own capital which has been engaged in "moving the crops" and financing the active autumn business season, will be released, and will take the place of the capital withdrawn by England. The interesting present problem is the manner in which the temporary void will be filled. Sometimes advance in money rates is the only consequence; sometimes prices have to come down on the Stock Exchange, to reduce the loans which have sustained them. The first and, under the circumstances, the most natural step, was this week's relief by the Treasury.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Barron, Elwyn. Marcel Levignet. Duffield & Co. \$1.50.
 Borden, Spencer. The Arab Horse. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1.20 net.
 Call, Annie Payson. Every Day Living. F. A. Stokes Co. \$1.25 net.
 Cambridge Natural History. Vol. I. Macmillan Co. \$4.25.
 Chatfield-Taylor, H. C. Molière: A Biography. Duffield & Co. \$3 net.
 Crawford, F. Marion. A Lady of Rome. Macmillan Co.
 Dalton's Complete Bridge. F. A. Stokes Co. \$1.25.
 Deussen, Paul. The Vedanta System. Translated by J. H. Woods and C. B. Runkle. Grafton Press. \$1.
 Ellis, Edward S. The Cruise of the Firefly. Phil-

adelpbia: John C. Winston Co. 75 cents.
 Fleming, Wm. H. Slavery and the Race Problem in the South. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. \$1.
 Foster, William E. The Point of View in History. Worcester, Mass.
 Gardner, Edmund G. The King of Court Poets: Ariosto. Dutton. \$4 net.
 Gollibrand, Emma. Why the Robin's Breast is Red. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents net.
 Geronimo's Story of His Life. Edited by S. M. Barrett. Duffield & Co. \$1.50.
 Gibbs, Phillip. Men and Women of the French Revolution. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
 Graham, Harry. Misrepresentative Women. Duffield & Co. \$1.
 Gray, John Thompson. A Kentucky Chronicle. Neale Publishing Co. \$1.50.
 Haeckel, Ernst. Last Words on Evolution. Translated by Joseph McCabe. Peter Eckler. \$1 net.
 Haines, Alice Calhoun. Indian Boys and Girls. F. A. Stokes Co.
 Harding, Charlotte. The Punch and Judy Book. Duffield & Co. \$1.25.

Heroes Every Child Should Know. Edited by Hamilton W. Mable. Doubleday, Page & Co. 90 cents net.
 Kinglake's Eothen. Edited by D. G. Hogarth. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d. net.
 Knowles, F. M., and others. A Cheerful Year Book. Henry Holt & Co. \$1 net.
 McMaster, John Bach. A History of the United States. Vol. VI. Appleton. \$2.50 net per vol.
 Mears, Mary. The Breath of the Runners. F. A. Stokes Co.
 Nielsen, Frederik. History of the Papacy. 2 vols. Dutton. \$7.50 net.
 Paul, Herbert. A History of Modern England. Macmillan Co.
 Pilgrim's Staff. Poems selected by FitzRoy Carrington. Duffield & Co. 75 cents.
 Reagan, John H. Memoirs. Neale Publishing Co. \$3.
 Richmond, Grace S. The Second Violin. Doubleday, Page & Co.
 Rosselli, W. M. Some Reminiscences. 2 vols. Imported by Scribners. \$10 net.

Sangster, Margaret E. Fairest Girlhood. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.50 net.
 Shelby, Annie Blanche. Bridge Abridged. Duffield & Co. \$1.
 Slocum, S. E., and E. L. Hancock. Text-Book on the Strength of Materials. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$2.
 Smith, William H., jr. A Priced Lincoln Bibliography. Privately Published.
 Sweetser, Kate Dickinson. Boys and Girls from George Eliot. Duffield & Co. \$2.
 Thorne, Guy. Made in His Image. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
 Thureau-Dangin, Paul. Saint Bernardine of Siena. Dutton. \$1.50 net.
 Traveller's Joy. Compiled by W. G. Waters. Dutton. \$1.25 net.
 Underwood, J. L. The Women of the Confederacy. Neale Publishing Co. \$2.
 Westcott, Brooke Foss. Saint Paul's Epistle to the Ephesians. Macmillan Co. \$2.50.
 Whisperings from the Great. Compiled by Constance A. Meredyth. Henry Frowde.

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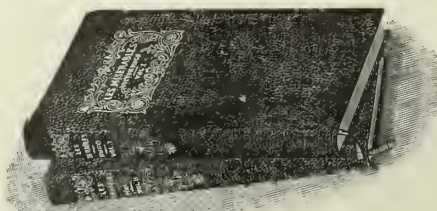


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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 1, 1906.

The Week.

Advocates of Government ownership of "the means of production and transportation" are getting excellent object-lessons these days. The failure of the Government at its Brooklyn navy yard to build the battleship Connecticut as rapidly as her sister ship, the Louisiana, was constructed in private yards—despite most unusual exertions—has been widely commented on. Now, after fourteen years of experimenting, the Government has awarded to a private concern the contract for printing postage stamps. This has been done at the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, whose bids were regularly below cost. This fact led many people to believe that the work was being done far more cheaply by the Government than it could be by a private concern. But these people failed to note that every year Congress made up the difference by a special deficiency appropriation. As soon as Congress compelled the Bureau of Engraving to compete with private firms on a fair basis, the American Banknote Company walked off with the business. Some day this country may decide to own all its railroads. If so, it will only be because the evils of private ownership it seeks to alleviate are less endurable than an inferior and a costlier service, to say nothing of the political danger of placing a million or more employees on the Government payroll.

A bill taxing educational institutions is pending before the Massachusetts Legislature. President Eliot, G. Stanley Hall, and other prominent university men, have appeared before the Committee on Taxation to oppose it. Dr. Eliot showed that in Cambridge the tax rate was lower than in places where there was no university. The town has \$25,000,000 of exempted property, with a tax-rate last year of \$19, whereas Lowell, with only \$3,000,000 of exempted property, has a tax rate of \$20.20. President Hall said that Clark University had no income from the students, and if the bill were passed would have to curtail its work. Those Western States which support their own universities seem ignorant of the great discovery of Massachusetts statesmen, that the way to foster education is to tax it.

An example of the efficiency of agricultural colleges is afforded at Fort Collins, Colorado, where \$4,000 was paid out last year to the students for working at

the school itself. The entire class of 1907 has already been engaged by the president of a Chicago iron company to work on his plantation in Mexico, upon which there are 1,000 cows, a dairy farm, and 1,000 hogs to be looked after, 40,000 acres of land to be irrigated, and 130,000 acres to be cultivated. Thomas Jefferson was the first American to urge the importance of such schools. Writing in 1803, he deplored the overcrowding of the trades and of the learned professions. He recommended that a professorship of agriculture should be established in every college. "The same artificial means," he wrote, "which have been used to produce a competition in learning may be equally successful in restoring agriculture to its primary dignity in the eyes of men. It is a science of the very first order." In hoping that the subject would one day have an honored place in the curriculum, he thought that more men might be induced to undertake the "labors of the field." He would have been confirmed in this opinion if he could have foreseen the vast expansion of the West.

If the project for consolidating the art collections of John G. Johnson, William M. Elkins, and P. A. B. Widener is carried out, Philadelphia will possess a museum superior to anything in America, and inferior only to those of the European capitals. Since the contents of the proposed museum are already amply provided, and there is lacking merely a proper site and building, we cannot doubt that these will be promptly furnished. The quality of these great collections should make an irresistible appeal to public spirit. One can hardly imagine such a gift being declined. If it were, as many American cities would strive for this great gallery of paintings as Grecian towns for the honor of claiming Homer as son. Since there is no published catalogue of the Johnson collection, the largest of the three, and the catalogues of Mr. Widener's and Mr. Elkins's pictures are some years out of date, any numerical estimate of the gift must be of the roughest sort. Reckoning the pictures at twenty-five hundred, about half of which were painted before the year 1800, we shall be on the conservative side. But numbers give very little impression of the value of the gift. In the Early Flemish school there will be such a notable series as the two Van Eycks, Van der Weyden, Memling, Gerard David, Old Breughel, Teniers, Rubens, and Van Dyck. In northern Italian painting will be represented the Vivarini, Mantegna, Crivelli, Giovanni Bellini, Moroni, Morretto of Brescia—all by fine examples.

English painting is exemplified by important canvases of Reynolds, Romney, Gainsborough, Turner, and Constable. Dutch painting will afford the most remarkable display. One may mention several portraits of Frans Hals's best, the landscapists Ruysdael and Hobbema, a long series of the little masters, including the rarest, Vermeer of Delft, and, finally, something like a dozen Rembrandts, all fine, and representing him in nearly every phase of activity. We must pass over the excellent Renaissance sculpture owned by Mr. Widener, and the very important pictures of the modern schools in all three collections. Suffice it to say that the suggested museum will have several of Puviss's small studies for his best mural paintings, and will not ignore Böcklin. In short, from an art-historical standpoint, there will be no serious gaps, except in the Early French school and in American painting. This mere outline of the new gallery suffices to show how fortunate Philadelphia is in a benevolent triple alliance of enlightened art collectors.

The newest Concert of Europe, so the dispatches affirm, is to be an alliance to prevent the exportation of its best art to America. The Kaiser is given as the unofficial patron; Dr. Bode of the Berlin Museum, who in times past has not a little aided in the exportation of fine pictures from Europe, is said to be actively enlisted in the movement. What will be the practical method of embargo, is not stated. One can hardly imagine the Pacca edict extended to all Europe. Even the plan mooted in England of listing all important works of art, and in case of sale giving the Government a right of purchase at an official appraisal, seems hardly likely to prevail. As a matter of fact, we judge that the movement will simmer down to an organized expression of defiance to the American millionaire collector—a personage who hardly deserves such rough treatment. He has bought thousands of putative old masters at top prices, for every genuine example he has snapped up with the aid of his moneybags. For his few triumphs he has paid dearly. On the whole topic much nonsense is talked. If we have had collectors of the grade of H. O. Havemeyer of this city, John G. Johnson of Philadelphia, and Mrs. John L. Gardner of Boston, no American collector has had the same fortunate combination of money, taste, and opportunity that has gone to make the galleries of Dr. Ludwig Mond in London or of the late Rodolphe Kann in Paris. Moreover, if many fine pictures have come over here, so have

many returned to Europe. The late W. C. Whitney's Raphael is in the hands of a London dealer; Joseph Jefferson's fine early Rembrandt went back to Holland; many other good canvases—one recalls particularly a Van Dyck of the Genoese period—have been resold abroad. In short, a kind of equilibrium is establishing itself, and American collectors have sufficient cause for self-congratulation without accepting themselves quite at the valuation of European alarmists.

That a tax on art should be rejected in France is less surprising than that it should be proposed. When M. Poincaré suggested a rate of 20 per cent. on importations of art objects produced before the nineteenth century, he was undoubtedly driven to such an expedient by the difficulty of balancing the budget. It is noteworthy that there was no thought of protection in the plan. The French collector was to be allowed to prefer Zorn, Mancini, or Zuloaga to the painters of Paris, without being mulcted for his taste. But even as a revenue measure the scheme has evidently seemed abhorrent, for the budget committee has rejected it. If the French Ministry is unwilling to profit by a tax on education, which is justifiable on fiscal grounds, what shall be said of ourselves who retain the mediæval schedule, although it is relatively unproductive and the surplus grows apace?

The unfavorable vote in the House of Lords, Monday, on a section of the Education Bill is the beginning of the struggle between the Liberal Ministry and that body. It is upon the Peers that the Conservatives rely to block the measures of the Campbell-Bannerman Government, and it will take all the skill and patience of the Prime Minister to overcome the obstacles in his path without resorting to vigorous coercive measures, such as the creation of a large number of Liberal Peers for the express purpose of putting through the legislation for which the House of Commons has voted. Besides the Education Bill, four others are awaiting the action of the Lords. They are of comparatively small importance, since they relate to the sale of intoxicating liquors in Ireland, marriage with foreigners, marine insurance, and notices of accidents in mines, factories, and workshops. A very important measure that has passed the second reading in the House is the Trades Disputes bill, which makes trades-unions a favored class in the eyes of the law. It is causing so much resentment among certain Liberals that they are as eager for the opposition of the Peers to its progress as they are zealous for the passage of the Education Bill. But that the Ministry will have its way in the end seems certain; meanwhile, outsiders will be interested

to see just how far the agitation against the House of Lords, led by such radical Liberals as Lloyd George, will go. That gentleman persists in irreverently calling the Lords "old iron that ought to be scrapped."

The woman suffragists, whose rowdiness was the scandal of the opening of the English Parliament, are doing their cause a vast amount of harm. To appeal for the power to participate in the government of the country is eminently within their right, but the appeal should at least be accompanied by some proof that the petitioners set store by that law and order which is the basis of every government. Every such outbreak—and there have been far too many—covers with chagrin those leaders who deprecate the resort to violence. Yet even this disturbance illustrates clearly how great is the desire for the extension of the suffrage. Every London newspaper contains news of the campaign now being carried on with extraordinary fertility of resource and determination. Not a week goes by without its important meetings. Indeed, were there one-half the enthusiasm and vigor displayed by the advocates of woman's suffrage in this country, the issue would be so pressing that politicians could not afford to dodge it. The latest triumph of the English agitators is to obtain an audience for a deputation with the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Asquith, who, next to Mr. Bryce, is the strongest Cabinet opponent of woman's suffrage.

The question whether men or women have the higher sense of honor has been under discussion in the National Union of Woman Workers in England. One of the speakers—men were not allowed in the debate—accused her sex of a tendency to cheat at cards, to make false boasts concerning their home affairs, to eavesdrop, and to read other people's letters. A representative of Newnham College held that the public expected a lower sense of honor in women than in men. But psychologists say that it is not the sense of honor which is lacking in women, in comparison with men. It is, rather, emotional equilibrium and self-restraint. This is illustrated by the fact that hysteria is far more common among women than among men. It has been recently shown that this nervous affection is analogous in its expression to the imaginative games of children, being a morbid form of playfulness with no deliberate intention to deceive. Doubtless, in the past, so little responsibility has been put upon women—if we except that early incident in Eden—that it is difficult for them to keep their feelings out of matters where feeling is out of place.

The problem of dealing with the unemployed has been solved at a stroke by two borough councillors of Lambeth. Let the borough laborers work, instead of eight hours, four; pay them the same wages as before; thus twice as many hands will be employed without reducing any one's comfort. Evidently, the process can be carried out indefinitely, until the Borough of Lambeth hires all the labor and pays pretty much all the wages in the United Kingdom. No one has yet raised the sordid consideration of merely supplying the money. Indeed, the thought is sacrilege. The city fathers of Lambeth are absolutely single-minded. They will take care of the unemployed, and somebody else must provide the means. The principle of the right of employment at a living wage has seldom been advocated with such simplicity.

Edmund Gosse's inaugural address before the London Library Assistants' Association contained much good sense. After a word of caution respecting the danger lest the librarian become a merely mechanical classifier and arranger, he spoke of the dignity of books, and the care of them which was demanded. During the Middle Ages strict library rules were enforced to prevent injury and defilement of paper and binding. It was forbidden to cut pages with knives which had been used at the table, and also to "eat fruit and cheese" over the book itself. It is inexpedient, he continued, to be too magisterial in the choice of library literature. Bad books will not prove to be attractive; as a rule they are "false, dull, sentimental, and claptrap." But the managers of libraries should not flatter readers too much, especially by giving out statistics as to authors most in demand, and books most often asked for. Thus bad taste is disseminated. It still seems hard to determine what shall be done with apparently useless books. Mr. Gosse thinks with the late Sir Leslie Stephen, that they should be destroyed or that special libraries should be instituted for them. It is, however, difficult to make a just discrimination. What is called "the general reader" is a capricious animal, and "the special reader" is one whose habits and eccentricities no librarian can fathom or be sure of meeting.

The slight excitement caused by the retirement of a veteran Foreign Minister like Count Goluchowski is a fine testimonial to the stability of Austrian foreign policy. Baron Aehrenthal will presumably continue along the traditional lines. In many respects it is strange that there should be comparatively so little interest in the politics of the pivotal state of Europe. For this in-

difference one may account partly by the fact that the internal dissensions of the Dual Monarchy have been absorbing, at the expense of international concerns. In any case, the only substantial contribution of Austria-Hungary to internationalism, since the striking pacification of Herzegovina, has been the alliance with Russia for preservation of stability in the Balkans. As judged by its practical effects in Macedonia, this *contente* cannot be called a brilliant success. It is, however, at least a more responsible guarantor of future peace than that concatenation of inactivities mis-called the European Concert. One may assume that Count Aehrenthal will, like his predecessor, maintain a pacific and rather negative attitude towards Western Europe, while reasserting, as occasion offers, the ulterior claims of Austria in the Balkan Peninsula.

The Spanish Ministry has introduced a bill providing for "cult associations" after the much-discussed French type. This is the beginning of an attempt to revise the present treaty with the Vatican, and the movement, subject to the uncertainties of politics, is to include religious education, the marriage and burial questions, and the control of the religious orders—in fine, a general subordination of the Church to the State. The attempt is of especial interest, because its reception by the Vatican will reveal the true attitude of the Pope towards the similar movement in France. The Spanish Government and the Vatican are in continuous diplomatic relations, and presumably each stage in the revision of the laws concerning the Church will be thoroughly discussed. If the Pope, then, should countenance the Spanish cult associations, it would show that his opposition to similar bodies in France was due not to any canonical principle, but to a sense that his ecclesiastical dignity had been slighted. The Encyclical of August was vague, and if the deadlock between France and the Vatican is of a personal sort, there may yet be hope of an adjustment. M. Clemenceau should be able to find ways of soothing the offended sensibilities. Meantime, the success of anti-clerical legislation in ultra-Catholic Spain must remain in doubt.

The anti-militarist agitation in France finds an echo in Germany, at a time when the accession of Clemenceau is regarded as rendering relations between the two countries more difficult. A writer in the Berlin *Vorwärts* has calculated that of the three million men comprising the German army on a war footing the Socialists may claim one million. The truth of this assertion has been challenged by a good part of the German press. These newspapers draw a distinction between mere weak sympa-

thizers with Socialism, whose numbers are admittedly large, and actual adherents of collectivist principles, fanatic to the extent of braving military law and trial for high treason. No doubt, so runs the argument, at the call to arms, such new-fangled ideas as "internationalism" will be swept away by the old spirit of soldierly obedience, that *Treuheit* which is the pride of the Teutonic race. Isolated cases of disloyalty may occur, but the authorities will undoubtedly be prepared to deal with them as they arise, or, rather, true to the traditions of the German General Staff, a little before they arise. It is not impossible that the proper cells and jailers have already been designated for Messrs. Bebel, Singer, and Kautsky. But though the press may be right in holding that the claims of Socialists as to influence in the army are exaggerated, their power for harm cannot be denied, once the possibility of even partial disloyalty is admitted. The strength of the German army is in its mechanically perfect organization and discipline. If doubt of the absolute coherence of its parts do but enter, that splendid engine must lose, if not in actual effectiveness, certainly something in prestige.

The course of reform in Russia, as observers have noted, is thwarted by a too vivid consciousness of the French Revolution. Recalling Mirabeau, Danton, and Robespierre, the leaders of the Duma feared to achieve less than their illustrious exemplars; while the Czar, we are told, refuses to make the obviously necessary concessions because he has before his eyes the fate of Louis XVI. But modern politics hark back even to the classical examples. Tyrannicide is recrudescing in Russia, and Harmodius and Brutus are its avowed patrons. The feeling is illustrated by an incident which fell under the eye of a special correspondent of the London *Times*. Having occasion to examine the albums of many students, he found them usually made up of portraits of assassins. Here is the "Pantheon" of a young girl of seventeen:

On the first page was a photograph of a painting which was entitled "Prove thyself worthy," and which represented a girl thrusting into the hands of her lover a revolver with which he was to go forth and—assassinate. The second page was adorned with a sketch of a Roman in whom I was supposed to recognize—Brutus! Then followed photographs of Kalayeff, who assassinated the Grand Duke Serge; of Sozonoff, who assassinated Plehve, and of many others—assassins all—"of whom the time would fail me to tell"; and the *pièce de résistance* was the photograph of a modest maiden—Marie Spiridonova. On the fly-leaf of the album was written in English:

Lives of great ones all remind me
I can make my life sublime.

Evidently this girl is ready for tyrannicide of the classical type as an exalted public duty.

Writing on "Exchanges in Social Life," M. Paulhan in the *Revue Philosophique*, considers sentiment and its expression as commodities. He discusses the question whether a material value can be put definitely upon emotions, so that they may be compared in terms of money. It is plain that sensations have a real value, as may be seen by the prices charged in restaurants. Aesthetic emotions also have a money equivalent, for we pay to hear music or to see pictures. To a certain extent, higher emotions than those caused by a satisfied appetite are thought to be worth paying for. Good health, which makes life easy and prosperous, may depend not only on the advice of a doctor, but on his interest and sentimental earnestness in the case. The pecuniary worth of certain friendships is also easily estimated. Even the ordinary courtesies observed in trade and other kinds of business have an appreciable value, although a shifting scale of charges for such things would have to be made, if they were included in the bill. An excellent example of emotional exchange is furnished by the arrangements of married life. Compromises, arrangements, plans of agreement, even quarrels, lead up to an adjustment not unlike a trade-bargain. Many of these "affective" exchanges are subordinated to social interest in general, as, for example, in patriotism, where services are rendered in return for the benefit which is derived from belonging to a certain nation. There is, however, danger in this kind of nice calculation, lest good-will, good words, and good acts come to be regarded as marketable commodities.

The old complaint that Americans abroad are indifferent linguists is echoed by our consul at Venice. Even the college graduate who knows the literatures of European nations is seldom able to speak their languages. The consul calls attention to the Royal School of Commerce in Venice, where, after a year's study, the pupils are able to understand English and to speak it fairly well. Among American graduates there are, we believe, more who could give a list of Goethe's plays, or explain the origin of the French language, than there are who could read with ease the German and French newspapers, or carry on a simple conversation in a foreign tongue. Yet for one man who needs a knowledge of philology and the history of literature, there are hundreds who would be the better for acquaintance with colloquial French and German. It was Charles V. of Spain who said that to know an additional language was to be a new man.

THE JAPANESE PROTEST.

The irritation of the Japanese over the exclusion of children of that race from the schools of San Francisco has become a serious matter—so serious that President Roosevelt has thought it worth while to dispatch a member of his Cabinet, Victor H. Metcalf, to the Pacific Coast to investigate the trouble. Yet to those irresponsible agitators who have endeavored to induce the United States to treat the Japanese as it has the Chinese, Japan's official protest against discrimination in the schools will smack only of impudence. For a nation of yellow people to arrogate unto itself the methods of civilized Powers in protecting its citizens against wrongs suffered abroad is the purest insolence. Why talk of treaties and treaty rights? Is not the Japanese an Asiatic; is he not accustomed to living on six cents a day at home? Are not his morals open to criticism, and is not his honesty questioned? As for our national pledges—we had a treaty with China, but the Supreme Court held that Congress could violate it at pleasure.

The Chinese, however, have not until recently been in a position to show effective resentment. Last winter, they started a boycott on American goods, and a different tone was assumed by the representative of the Chinese Government; and a more vigorous policy in future is the inevitable result of the Chinese awakening. The Japanese, flushed by success in one of the world's notable wars, conscious of extraordinary development as a nation, cannot be expected to sit by calmly and see their subjects treated with contumely. With a civilization in some ways superior to our own, they can hardly be blamed if they cry out against what the Japanese minister called the subjection to indignities of "poor, innocent, little Japanese children."

The Japanese Minister was quick to say he is aware that the San Francisco discrimination is purely local, but that fact, he added, can hardly be understood by his countrymen. Particularly, we fancy, in view of the formation of an association in California to bring about the exclusion of all Japanese. He cannot readily explain that, the Chinese issue no longer being available as a stepping-stone to office, an unscrupulous California editor began an anti-Japanese campaign a couple of years ago, for the purpose of winning a seat in the United States Senate. Were the mass of the Japanese people familiar with our internal affairs, they would realize that this aspiring statesman was merely imitating numerous Southern politicians who, in default of any other issue, raise a hullabaloo about negro domination. Down with the Japanese! is not quite so effective a cry as Denis Kearney's shrieks against the Chinese

used to be, because there are not yet one hundred thousand Japanese in all the United States; still, it may serve the purpose with professional labor agitators and ignorant voters.

The common arguments—if so they may be dignified—were summed up by Representative E. A. Hayes of California, who in Congress last March made a long attack upon the Japanese. Mr. Hayes explained that, while there are some good and pure Japanese men and women—a "small minority"—the nation is really far gone in licentiousness; that concubinage is rife in Japan; that all Japanese are native-born liars and quite untrustworthy in business; and that their new civilization is merely a veneer. Of course, Mr. Hayes made much of the complaint about cheap labor. In his view, the landing of 76,000 Japanese since 1900 constitutes a "most real and impending danger to the material and moral welfare" of the people of California. He told of 2,000 Japanese picking fruit in Santa Cruz County, where white girls used to pluck the berries before. Convinced that 2,750,000 Japanese are now plotting to descend upon us and "sweep the entire country west of the Rocky Mountains clean of white laborers," Mr. Hayes was naturally urgent that the bill before the last Congress to extend the provisions of the Chinese exclusion act to all Japanese and Koreans should be passed. He indulged in this kind of claptrap in spite of the fact that the whole Pacific Coast is suffering for lack of labor. The development of all its industries is retarded for want of hands. An immediate influx of from fifty to one hundred thousand Chinese and Japanese would be a great blessing.

That the protest of the Japanese is in accordance with their treaty rights is indisputable. Were the boot on the other foot, we know how quickly an indignant State Department would rise up on behalf of injured Americans. Unfortunately, Mr. Roosevelt cannot promise Viscount Aoki the discontinuance of the San Francisco discrimination. In like manner the United States Government was helpless after the New Orleans massacre of Italians in 1891. Unless Congress passes a statute in execution of the treaty with Japan, all that Mr. Roosevelt can do is to beseech California to mend her ways.

That State will do well to heed the warning, and allow no temporary exigencies, such as the plea that fire has destroyed schoolhouses, to alienate Japan. Trade with that country is one of its and the nation's great assets, an asset that ought to increase in value. Viewed from a broader aspect, the friendship of Japan is something the United States cannot afford to throw away. Count Okuma has just said that the United States and Japan "are the

two great powers in the new world of the future." There should be no misunderstandings between them.

MUSEUM EXTENSION IN SCHOOLS.

H. G. Wells, the Socialist critic of things American, tells how, attending the meeting of a Boston literary club, he was obsessed by the conviction that the mind of the world was dead, and he sought relief by tramping the streets for an hour or so. We do not know whether his evening walk took him past the Museum of Fine Arts, or as far as Simmons College or Harvard University. In any case, the sight of any of these institutions ought to have reassured him as to the mind of Boston, if not of the world. These three bodies are associated in a novel and interesting alliance, descriptively but rather cumbrously entitled a Committee for the Utilization of Museums of Art by Schools and Colleges. President Eliot of Harvard is chairman of the committee, President Lefavour of Simmons College, vice-chairman. M. S. Prichard has resigned the acting directorship of the Museum of Fine Arts to accept the secretaryship. The work surely could be under no better personal or official auspices.

Before noting what is peculiar in this new step, we should recall briefly other forms of art propaganda in the schools. For many years public-spirited committees and individuals have sought to place in the public schools fine reproductions of the best works of art. This practice is very common in the cities. Free lectures, such as are conducted by Columbia University and by university extension committees generally, have given much attention to the criticism and history of art. Something of the sort is done incidentally by the schools of painting. Loan exhibitions are a customary and successful feature of settlement work among the poor. In all these activities the museums have played a passive part. They have, however, very generally made it easy for bodies of school children to see the collections. Such visitations are frequent, the cicerone being a volunteer enthusiast, a public-school teacher, or, more frequently, perhaps, a preceptress in a fashionable girls' school. It is this relation already established that the Boston committee desires to improve and extend.

A little observation of parties of school children, in the Metropolitan Museum, for example, will show that these visits are often discouragingly unprofitable. Museum gazing is fatiguing at best, and when youngsters are solemnly marched about by one who has little more knowledge than they, and no means of expressing the collective feeling, the performance, however well-meaning, is not very useful. What children, and for that matter most grown-

ups, need in art museums is intelligent and eager guidance. This it is that the Boston committee hopes to provide; accordingly, it will for the present concentrate its efforts upon educating and stimulating school teachers in matters of art. It is felt, and rightly, that the culture of the teacher is the measure of the pupil's appreciation: hence the true objective of art propaganda through the schools. For the coming season the committee has provided two sets of lectures primarily for teachers, one dealing with general and æsthetic considerations in the main branches of the arts, the second with limited fields in art history. The six lectures in the general course will be of a distinguished sort. America could afford no better trio than W. P. P. Longfellow, to treat architecture; Prof. George Santayana, sculpture; John La Farge, painting and the minor arts; while the more specific purposes of the course are represented by two educators, Prof. H. Langford Warren of Harvard, who will speak on "What May the Schools Do to Advance the Understanding of Art?" and Walter Sargent of the State Board of Education, who will discuss "Museums of Art and the Public Schools."

We have given this entire list because it is a gauge of the seriousness of the movement. The bane of similar attempts in the past has been the half-baked lecturer and the pushing amateur. Evidently, the Boston people are on their guard against both, and hold by the true democratic principle that only the best instruction is good enough for the people. This ideal is worthy of imitation, for there is such a prodigious deal of mere vamping in matters artistic as to produce a veritable disgust with the word and the thing. We trust that the affiliation between Columbia University, the National Academy, and the Metropolitan Museum—a compact primarily for academic purposes—will also result in increasing the amount of popular instruction in art, and in materially raising its quality.

For those who are more immediately concerned with the museums than with the schools, the implications of the Boston movement are very interesting. It is no secret that either through its curators or through its accredited representatives the Boston Museum of Fine Arts is planning to undertake direct instruction in the history and appreciation of art. Such *viva-voce* teaching, in the presence of the very objects of study, is surely the ideal, whether for the professional student or for the casual enthusiast. To have been a *Peripatetiker* in the Berlin Museum with Ernst Curtius, or to have heard August Mau descend on Greco-Roman painting at Naples, is one of the rare privileges that stick in the memory. Difficult as it is for such lecturers to find the middle course between pedantry and dilettanteism, the method is

surely the humane and fruitful one. Some such undertaking, on the more modest scale suitable to youth, seems to be the logical next step at Boston—the goal, indeed, wherever lovers of art are trying to make our art museums more directly serviceable to the people through the schools.

HOW TO GROW OLD.

Almost as much advice is given indirectly to the aged as is given directly to the young. The question is asked openly, "What shall we do with our boys?" But a question, as pressing in many cases, though never put above a whisper, is, "What can we do with old men and old women?" Possibly, the objects of the latter inquiry, conscious of their sclerotic vessels and rheumatic joints, may themselves have misgivings about their function in the social economy. To them it may seem as if there were danger that the term "tristis senectus" of the Roman poet might be adopted now. In the mere matter of prolonging life, those who are getting old have a fair idea of their duty in avoiding draughts, unwholesome diet, and undue excitement. Growing old, however, would not be so serious a business if one could only do it usefully, comfortably, and gracefully.

In the *Revue Scientifique*, Dr. Bridou makes some suggestions about the mode in which men may avoid the evils of degeneracy, when the body begins to fail, and the sun is in the west. There is a correspondence between each step in the advancing years and certain habits and processes of mind and body. For example, the child is naturally restless, turbulent, and playful; these are signs of good health. But the gestures and acts of children, if observed in old men, are symptoms of sickly excitement, physical disorder, and disintegration. When the practices of youth are adopted or retained by age, we recognize that there is retrogression, which means relaxation of one's hold on life. But if, with advancing years, emotions are concentrated on higher things and infantile diffusions are avoided, there will be self-control and moral health. Men who like Bismarck are active in the affairs of state, or who like Lord Kelvin have their attention engaged upon new discoveries in science, feel chiefly the physical disadvantages of advancing years, but their minds have the vigor of youth.

This is a fact which few old people recognize, and so they must expect *une fin maussade et rancunière*. It is really not by the affectation of youth that old age is to preserve itself from degeneracy and senile imbecility. The sprightly old lady who dyes her hair, paints her face, smiles away the downward droop of her mouth, and dresses like a *débutante*; the old *viveur* who believes that by keeping his youthful vices he conceals his ad-

vancing years, who, being no longer gratified by the return of passion, seeks to escape the horror of disenchantment by reverting to the indulgences but not to the joys of youth—these people are unconsciously out of step with the music. The imitation of the *élan* and impulse of youth seems at the moment sane and healthy, but it indicates a growing moral incapacity.

In America, the aged are at a peculiar disadvantage. They have to leave the course long before the stretch is in sight. Churches are seldom offered to clergymen, retainers to lawyers, surgical operations to doctors, after they have passed the grand climacteric. Their advice is sought because of their experience, but their active days are almost done. In the Old World they have a better chance. The septuagenarian may be seen mounted in Rotten Row; here he is fortunate to be pushed by the elbow into a cab. There are many white-haired men sitting in Parliament as in the Reichstag, still active in the service of an empire—in striking contrast to certain Senators here who retain their seats, but seem too old or too feeble-minded to resign. Their experience, which is their one precious possession, is useless because of the atrophy of their faculties.

Plato, in a fine passage in "The Republic," anticipates the theory of Dr. Bridou. In reply to Socrates, who asks whether life grows harder as the end approaches, the aged Cephalus says: "Old men assemble, . . . and at our meetings, my friends tell me, 'I cannot eat, I cannot drink, the pleasures of youth and love are gone.'" Yet he concludes that in old age there is a feeling of calm and freedom when the passions relax their hold. For it is then, as Sophocles says, that there has been escape from the control, not of one mad master, but of many. Regrets and futile desires lie in the characters and tempers of men, "for he who is of a calm and happy nature will hardly feel the pressure of age." With the development of this same idea in Browning's "Rabbi Ben Ezra" all our readers are familiar—

Young, all lay in dispute; I shall know, being old.

We must admit, however, that such advice to the old is very apt to meet the fate of that offered to the young. Indeed, any moralist exhorting the aged ought to do so in the spirit of the philosopher who said that he never gave advice except when he knew it would not be taken.

NEW LIGHT ON CARDINAL NEWMAN.

A great gathering of ecclesiastics was present on October 9 at the consecration of the church which has been erected at The Oratory, Birmingham, in

honor of Cardinal Newman. The Archbishop of Westminster said in his sermon that it had been but right for Catholics to "appeal to the whole English-speaking world" to help in erecting this memorial to Newman. It might well be that Protestants would be glad to unite in a tribute to a man who was a religious genius and a master of style. Indeed, Newman the writer seems destined to live longer than Newman the ecclesiastic. Many who cannot follow his reasoning, yet feel the spell of his English in printed sermons which still have power to make the hearts of readers burn within them, as did his spoken words the hearts of the Oxford undergraduates in St. Mary's in the early days of the Tractarians. Men whole diameters away from Newman's theological position turn often to his "Apologia" to taste again of its simple eloquence.

Estimates of Newman the man have varied with the personal or ecclesiastical point of view. Carlyle's rough contempt for his intellect was one of the things that startled or shocked the world on Froude's publication of the "Reminiscences." Kingsley's attack on Newman's personal sincerity was terribly punished, yet there were those who had their doubts. Newman's "Grammar of Assent" did not tend to lay them; since that book could be popularly described as an attempt to show that you could believe anything if only you tried hard enough. Yet the Cardinal himself disclaimed being a controversialist. Once when a Protestant champion challenged him to a public debate, he quietly replied: "I have really no taste or aptitude for controversy, but my friends are good enough to say that I have some little skill on the violin."

It was left, however, for a co-religionist to reveal Newman in new aspects of his character. Lord Acton, the great scholar and stout Catholic, was thrown much into Newman's society, and in some of the letters just published in "Lord Acton and His Circle," there are many liftings of the curtain on Newman's private life. Acton was backing the *Rambler* and often consulted Newman about that and other Catholic periodicals. Here is a report of a conversation in 1858, when the *Rambler* was in trouble:

I had a three hours' talk with the venerable Newman, who came out at last with his real sentiments to an extent which startled me with respect both to things and persons, as Ward, Dalgairns, etc., etc.; natural inclination of men in power to tyrannize; ignorance and presumption of would-be theologians. I did not think he would ever cast aside his diplomacy and buttonment so entirely, and was quite surprised at the intense interest he displayed in the *Rambler*. He was quite miserable when I told him the news and moaned for a long time, rocking himself backwards and

forwards over the fire, like an old woman with a toothache. He thinks the move provoked both by the hope of breaking down the *R.* and by jealousy of Döllinger. He asked whether we suspected any one. He has no present advice, being ignorant of the course of such affairs in Rome, except that we should declare that we do not treat theology in our pages. He wants us to have rather more levity and profaneness, less theology and learning. A good story, he thinks, would turn away wrath, and he enjoys particularly your friendly encounters with Bentham, Combe, Buckle, and the like.

Lord Acton, to be sure, held a racy pen, yet his picture of Newman as acting like "an old woman with a toothache" suggests that all was not perfect serenity in The Oratory, after Newman's submission to Rome. On another occasion, in 1860, Acton found him a victim of the blue devils:

I never saw Newman so much out of spirits, so distributively angry. . . . I have never heard him speak openly on affairs as in the bitterness of his spirit he spoke during the half-hour I was with him.

We are not told the objects of "Newman's wrath"; "he wished me not to repeat"; but the hint that his "vehement language" was reported to be "in substance the same that I have been hearing these nine years from Döllinger," leaves little doubt that it was the Ultramontanes with whom Newman was "distributively angry." This inference is borne out by another letter of Lord Acton's, this one written to R. H. Hutton in 1891, and only now made public by the latter's son. In it, Lord Acton said that his own impressions of Newman were based "chiefly on the years 1858 to 1864." He added:

It happened that those were precisely the years in which a semblance came over him of what he would certainly not have called Liberalism, but which showed itself in his dubious attitude towards the temporal power, and even in the Oxford scheme and the treatment of Liguori, and which was backed by much personal aversion for Wiseman, Manning, Faber, and even Ward.

These revelations are mainly of interest as showing that a spirit like Newman's had much to brook even after he had gone over to the Roman Communion. But the dread of Liberalism which, as there is good evidence to show, first pushed him and Pusey into the Oxford Movement, was always powerful with him, and sufficed to make him acquiesce in measures to combat it, even though he disliked them. Where Acton and Döllinger openly protested against the excesses of Ultramontanism, Newman's rule was to submit. Yet Lord Acton's intimate disclosures give us fresh knowledge of how often Newman's proud soul had to lay to itself the command of "Faust"—*souist entbehren*.

A REAL LINGUISTIC REFORM.

Critics of the simplified spelling movement have justly noted that its champions demand either too much or too little. If it is a serious question of reforming the language, a little clipping of vowels and consonants here and there produces no real effect—is, in fact, like undertaking to clean up the Augean stables with an oyster fork. Better to let things comfortably alone than to stir them up to so little effect. We share this way of thinking, and feel that there are many reforms more worth the attention of orthographic ironmasters than that of spelling. To speak candidly, we have a little reform of our own, only awaiting its subsidy, namely, the consolidation of the many disguised compounds in the English language. In the natural course of things linguistic, everybody knows, set combinations of words come to express a single idea. The process is represented on the printed page by the hyphen, the finished product by the true compound word. All this is in the interest of simplicity. We gain when a hat-rack becomes singly and indivisibly a hatrack.

But this useful tendency has halted half-way; the printed page to-day is clogged by superfluous hyphens and by phrases that are no phrases, but true compound words. Since the vocabulary of literature and the press knows no unsuccessful persons in commerce, why not write at once and plainly successfulbusinessman, conservativebanker, and the like? Similarly, since the chronicles of the bucket-shops are infra-literary and ignored, when speaking of a Wallstreetmagnate one should mention him as a greatoperator, financialpower, or moneyking. The same principle applies geographically also. A lethargic Westerner has never yet been mentioned in the newspapers; accordingly, one may dub the class generically breezywesterners. By the same token pulchritude being universal south of Mason and Dixon's line, all females between the ages of ten and seventy resident in that locality should be described as South-einbeauties, or, specifically, as Kentuckybelles. Girls generally may be sufficiently denoted as perfectgibsontypes, or, more elaborately, as thefinestproductofourwesterncivilization.

It is a striking fact that many of the phrases which need fusing into a single word apply to women. To a cynic this might suggest that the sex receives more than its share of lip-service. There is room for reflection in the fact that the well-to-do world is peopled with delightfulhostesses, who marry, however, below them, for their husbands are merely genialhosts. Except upon the funereal samplers wrought by our grandmothers, widows are, as a rule, eminently consolable, hence we need the word, dashingwidow, or the still more

alluring compound, dashing equestrienne. Popular sportsmen usually choose their mates from this class, but sometimes are unlucky enough to marry notorious adventuresses. In the literary world these disguised compounds are even more persistent, and need more urgently to be set forth in their true unity. Passionate poetess and talented authoress, soulful novelist, daring realist, fearless analyst, will immediately occur to every frequenter of literary teas. Why should the types keep asunder what the lips invariably put together?

In politics, too, we need a unifying process. Let us call our practical politicians, logical candidates, and favorites by their real names. These terms are actually as compact and single in intention as, for example, spellbinder or stump speaker. Professional life will afford many instances of these compounds which lie *perdus*, waiting only for the consolidating hand. Let one recall only the millions of prominent elegymen in the land, not to mention the brilliant lawyers, grave professors, famous artists, renowned physicians, and, in all modesty, able journalists.

We have shown that this settling together of invariable combinations of words is in the good traditions of the language. One might recall Homeric precedent also. Would the coiner of "rosy-fingered" as an epithet for dawn, have been content to speak of a fair maid? Since all are so by courtesy, fairmaid is as inevitable as Goodman or goodwife. Again, the economic argument is not to be disregarded. An eminent statistician who prefers to remain unknown has estimated that if all these disguised compounds were printed as the true compounds they are, the saving in white paper in the average American daily would amount to 5 per cent., in typesetting to as much, and the grand-total of these combined economies would be annually, in the civilized world, a sufficient sum to pay all the debts of the South American republics. Nor should the dear children of our schools be forgotten. If these words were properly printed, the pupils of tender age would learn that these are not real adjectives and substantives, with the usual content of meaning, but simple decorations with which we festoon our shopworn nouns. To learn this early in life would save many a disillusionment later on. The noted scientist quoted above has calculated that the saving of the average child would amount to no less than a fortnight during its school course, in which time the easier complexities of simplified spelling might readily be mastered. In short, so many and cogent are the arguments for this reform that we anticipate serious opposition only from the incorrigibly conservative class of New England old maids.

THE DANGERS OF THE SMALL COLLEGE.

"Whether the college, placed between the efficient high school and the powerful university can continue to hold its own, and still offer an education worth rewarding with a degree, is a question whose serious consideration cannot long be evaded." Thus the *Nation*, in an editorial of December 7, 1899, expressed a common doubt, and implied that the gravest danger of the small college was "the inevitable tendency of the largest institutions to grow the fastest." Two years later, President Harris of Amherst College, writing in the *Outlook*, seemed to regard that danger as the heart of the matter, when he said:

The question of the future of the small college is whether the universities are to grow at the expense of the colleges. At present the number of men in the detached colleges of New England, upwards of 3,000, is about the same as the number of men in the two universities. Will the proportion continue the same or will it change?

Whether the small college has continued to hold its own; whether the tendency of the largest institutions to grow the fastest is inevitable; whether the proportion of the university and the college enrolment has changed—these are questions which can now be answered with something more than opinions. And here are the facts.

Lack of uniformity in college catalogues makes the task of extensive comparisons difficult. The figures here given represent the enrolment in the academic departments of the largest universities as furnished by their respective registrars to Columbia University. The figures for the small colleges are taken from the catalogues. Although, for the reason mentioned, it is difficult to be exact, these tables are substantially correct for December of each year. Table I. gives the enrolment for the past four years in seven small colleges of New England, with four colleges outside New England added for comparison. Table II. gives the enrolment of men students in the College of Arts of thirteen of the largest universities, except that Wisconsin is omitted, because in 1903 the A.B. degree there was suddenly made much more accessible.

TABLE I.—COLLEGES.

	'02-'03.	'03-'04.	'04-'05.	'05-'06.	P.C.
Amherst	385	408	406	455	18
Bowdoin	275	277	280	289	5
*Dartmouth	683	780	963	963	40
Trinity	114	118	148	165	44
Tufts	309	303	349	379	22
Wesleyan	312	315	292	321	2
Williams	381	417	434	448	17
Colgate	172	178	227	246	43
Haverford	117	127	140	138	18
Swarthmore	206	226	243	280	36
Wash. and Lee	270	310	340	375	39
Total	3,224	3,459	3,822	4,059	+20.59

TABLE II.—UNIVERSITIES.

Boston	451	456	455	432	—4
Chicago	613	569	604	750	22
Columbia	484	493	527	557	15
†Cornell	783	726	672	694	—12
Harvard	2,107	2,077	2,005	1,898	—10
Indiana	609	602	590	493	—19
‡Johns Hopkins	162	158	186	188	16
Michigan	662	742	729	886	34
Minnesota	491	470	470	470	—4
Missouri	318	284	305	319	0.3
Nebraska	407	330	315	263	—35

Princeton	758	732	665	629	—16
Yale	1,205	1,251	1,286	1,323	9
Total	9,050	8,890	8,809	8,902	—1.66

*Mainly in the scientific departments. †Men and women.

Now, we can answer the questions asked by President Harris four years ago. The answer is that in the past four years Harvard and Yale in their academic departments show a net loss of 91; while these seven small colleges for the same period show a net gain of 561. Or, if we regard Dartmouth as neither large nor small, the growth of the remaining six small colleges of the highest rank appears 372 better than that of the two universities. To add Bates, Colby, Clark, and Maine to Table I. would make the showing even more favorable to the small college. "The gravest danger of the small college," therefore, appears to be no danger at all.

It has been said that the loss in the academic department of the largest college of all is due rather to the growth of universities in the West than to any increasing preference of New Englanders for the small college. But two facts show the falsity of this assertion: first, the colleges of arts in the West have not grown so rapidly as the New England small colleges; second, Harvard College has suffered a decrease in the enrolment of students from New England and from Massachusetts herself. The report of the president says that at Harvard, in the undergraduate work, "there has been no durable gain in the number of students from New England or from Massachusetts, by itself, for five years past." In fact, there were 1,235 New England students at Harvard in 1900-1901, whereas in 1904-1905 the number had fallen to 1,162. In 1900-1901 there were 1,113 Massachusetts men at Harvard; in 1904-1905 there were but 1,050. It is evident that "no durable gain" is a conservative expression for actual loss. And, since, during these same years the prestige and enrolment of the graduate schools of New England universities, especially of Harvard, have measurably increased, and since the total college population and that of every small college in New England has increased, there is strong ground for concluding that, in the choice between the New England small college and the college of arts of the large university, the country is showing a stronger preference than ever before for the small college.

Two reasons which have hitherto induced men to choose the larger and older institutions have been prestige and educational advantage. But there can be no continued monopoly of either. The difference in prestige—due to age and to the fame of alumni—has been growing less with the years. Time will take care of that. It is not surprising that the great men of one hundred years ago, if they went to college at all, went to the thirty colleges then founded. William and Mary College had her Jefferson and Monroe; Harvard had her Emerson and Holmes; Bowdoin had her Hawthorne and Longfellow. But now that there are some 450 colleges in the United States, the influence of prestige in determining the choice of a college is not so conspicuously in favor of a few institutions. On the contrary, of the six universi-

ties which have shown the greatest net gain in the college of arts during the last four years (Wisconsin, Syracuse, Michigan, Chicago, Northwestern, and Minnesota), only two (Wisconsin and Michigan) are over fifty years old, and neither is seventy years old. Of the six which have shown the greatest net loss (Indiana, Harvard, Pennsylvania, Princeton, Cornell, Nebraska), all but two are over eighty years old. Three of the heaviest losers (Harvard, 267; Pennsylvania, 166; Princeton, 129) are among the first six colleges founded in the United States. Evidently stronger motives than age and prestige are to-day governing the choice of a college.

The other motive which has been strongest in leading men to prefer the large college to the small, namely, educational advantage, is a less and less potent factor in the choice of a college. On this point it is enough to note, without elaboration, the common arguments in behalf of the small college: that within the university under the elective system the multiplication of courses soon reaches a point beyond which the value of any considerable extension, to ninety undergraduates out of a hundred, is more apparent than real; that in the small college the instruction may be of the highest quality; and that there is a manifest gain from the smallness of the classes. These arguments, which are familiar to all readers of the *Nation*, are obviously appealing to many fathers and sons.

Not even the above comparisons, however, justify the conclusion that the small college is best for all. On the contrary, there will always be exceptional men who in a small college might so easily lead in scholarship, athletics, music, debating, and other student activities that they would need the stimulus of the keener competition with larger numbers. There will always be students whose maturity and strength of purpose are safeguards against the dangers of great numbers. There will always be a few who really want and can profit by certain courses of study which the small colleges ought not to attempt to offer. Still others there will always be whose exceptional business ability enables them to make more money during their college courses at a large institution than they could make at a small institution. But let not every boy who has found leadership easy in his preparatory school imagine that he is one of those exceptional cases. Even the small college represents the survival of the fittest in many schools.

Dangers the small college has, but not, as we have seen, in the failure to attract numbers or in the greater growth of universities. Rather the dangers lie in attracting too many students and in abortive attempts to become universities.

A first danger—attracting too many students. That college, which, for the sake of numbers, falls below the entrance standard of the colleges with which it competes, is in danger. That college which suffers its entrance requirements to become lower in fact than they are on paper, is in danger. That college which refuses to join such movements for uniform standards as the college Certificate Boards, is in danger. Such a course means temporarily to increase the enrolment, but it means permanently to lower the college standard.

A second danger—abortive attempts to become a university. The college should be fundamentally a maker of men. Its greatest source of strength lies in doing well precisely that kind of work which university conditions render more difficult. In its desire to keep up with the times and to thicken its catalogue it should not encroach on the work which is the distinctive province of the university. To provide technical training for undergraduates is to misconceive the purpose of the college. To offer such subjects to the few who wish to remain for graduate work is beyond the means of most colleges and beyond the proper scope of all. The college owes the time and highest service of its faculty to the undergraduates.

A third danger—intercollegiate athletics. In the degradation of scholarship standards for the whole college, this is a factor which all but the blind can see. Not that the athletes as a whole stand conspicuously lower in scholarship than the other students as a whole. In fact, I have just discovered from the tabulating of 18,750 ranks attained by all students in Bowdoin College for five years that the average rank of athletes and non-athletes, 77.57 and 80.37, shows less than 3 per cent. difference. A similar result I found for six other institutions. The danger lies in the influence of excessive interest in intercollegiate games on the whole student body; and in the influence on the minimum entrance and college requirements of the desire to win at any cost. I know of a New England college which admitted, without examination, and retained a man unfit for any college, in spite of the written protest of his fitting school that he was unprepared. The reason was that he was the brother of the football captain, whom the faculty dared not offend. A new graven image is set on the altar of the college. Of late the bold have been venturing protests; but until recently the still, small voice of scholarship has had but a sorry chance against the yelling of thirty thousand voices at a college game. Intense rivalry in athletics, the all-absorbing interest of the whole student body, particularly of those who can least afford the time and the interest, the almost fanatic enthusiasm of the public, the timidity of school and college authorities—all this makes intercollegiate athletics as they are now conducted dangerous to the small colleges. They persist in competing with universities which draw their teams from ten times the number of men, and they are constantly under pressure, from their "friends" and their own mistaken notions, to admit and retain men whose only qualification is proficiency on the diamond or gridiron.

The small college, which refuses to lower its standard from any notion of the importance of mere numbers; which devotes its energies to its own mission as the maker of men and leaves to the university its own distinct work of making specialists; which guards against the evil and employs the good in athletics; which resists the temptation to shift any considerable part of its teaching upon inexperienced, underpaid, and temporary assistants; which sees the extravagance of spending large sums for fine buildings and small sums for strong teachers; which

avoids the large college tendency to substitute mechanism for personality in administration; such a college, open to the accredited graduates of every approved high school, offering a few elective courses in the most important branches of strictly college study, taught to small groups by scholars who are first men, has a place so secure and so important that all the tendencies to-day in large colleges and in professional schools are serving only to strengthen the small college against its real and supposed dangers.

WILLIAM TRUFANT FOSTER.

Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine.

Correspondence.

SPENSER'S DATING OF "COLIN CLOUT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The date of "Colin Clout's Come Home Again" is important in Spenser's biography as the sole proof that he returned to his estate at Kilcolman in Ireland in 1591. At the head of the poem appears a signed letter from the author to Sir Walter Raleigh, in which he speaks of "my late being in England." The letter is dated: "From my house at Kilcolman, the 27. of December, 1591." This apparently indisputable evidence is, however, confronted by the date of the "Daphnaïda." It will be remembered that, according to the old style, then in use, January was the eleventh and not the first month of the year. Spenser dates his dedicatory letter prefixed to the "Daphnaïda," "London, this first of January, 1591"—five days later than the date of "Colin Clout."

No one imagines that Spenser returned to London immediately after sending "Colin Clout," and composed the "Daphnaïda" en route. The time limits forbid even Pegasus such a feat. Therefore, since there is no reason to suspect either text, editors such as Grosart and Lord Hales have taken refuge in an assumption that Spenser in the latter instance is using the new style. Surely a desperate assumption, that Spenser in a single instance, without apparent cause, has violated the usage of his contemporaries! The only circumstance adduced to support this solution is the date of Lady Howard's death in 1590, as if it were proof that the elegy in her honor must have been finished in the same year. This leaves still unexplained the reason for Spenser's anomalous alteration of the calendar.

As a literary device, it is true, Spenser did just this thing in the "Shepherd's Calendar"; but he devotes his "General Argument" chiefly to a defence of the innovation, acknowledging that: "To some he [the author] may seeme fowly to have faulted, in that he erroneously beginneth with that moneth, which beginneth not the year." Spenser begins with January, as he explains, to conform to pastoral decorum: "Wening it perhaps no decorum that Shepherds shoulde be seene in a matter of so deepe insight." In the case of his own dedicatory letter addressed to a marquess, no such excuse can be pleaded.

A simpler explanation of the incongruity has been passed by. The make-up of "Colin Clout" reveals a reason. Here

Spenser takes occasion to describe, under pastoral names, Queen Elizabeth, her courtiers, poets, and court ladies, bestowing upon each in turn a proportionate meed of praise. Very prettily he frames these encomia in an account of his visit to England, which feignedly he renders to a group of his "shepherd" friends in Ireland. No doubt these friends were interested in the Elizabethan court; but so were the court folk themselves. It is for London readers primarily that the poem was written. But how delicately Spenser couches this flattery in a recital feignedly made far away at his homecoming! So appropriately and with such a consistent sense of decorum that he feignedly dates the poem from his Irish home at Kilcolman, being in reality—where? Where his poem would be fully appreciated, in London, where he was five days later, when he dedicated the "Daphnaida."

PERCY W. LONG, Ph.D. (Harvard).

Bryn Mawr College, Pa., October 26.

THE PRESENT POSITION OF LATIN AND GREEK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am sure that others, as well as myself, noted with surprise the remarks of Prof. A. O. Norton of Harvard in your issue of October 4 (p. 280) in regard to the decline in the number of students of Greek in school and college. "The abandonment of prescribed Greek for college entrance," says Mr. Norton, "has probably not greatly influenced the decline"; and, again, "Greek is still protected, and well protected, at most colleges by being given more credit for a given amount of work than any other subject." The latter statement will undoubtedly hold true in the case of the colleges which he names; but the context shows that his argument is of general, not local, application, and I am unable to see by what considerations he would justify his conclusion in respect to the colleges of the United States as a whole. In this connection the statistics of enrolment of Greek students in the secondary schools of the different groups of States are instructive when confronted with the entrance requirements of the colleges and of the arts departments of universities in the same States. Thus, for example, the decline in the enrolment of Greek students in the schools of the North Central States from 5,030 in 1897-98 to 2,767 in 1903-04 is synchronous with the adoption of an "omnibus" bachelor's degree by several prominent colleges in the same region; how broad are the entrance requirements of these institutions at the present time may be seen in the tables published by Principal F. L. Bliss in the Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for 1905.

If he had not been hampered by limitations of space Professor Norton would probably have pointed out the fact that the statistics for the study of Greek in college, which he cites (16,218 students of Greek in 1900-01, and 14,729 in 1904), are of interest only as indicating a general trend; they are too inaccurate to be of value in estimating the proportion of college students enrolled in Greek, which is suggested by the citation of the figures showing "the total college population" in the

same years. Not to speak of other omissions, the totals given contain no report of the enrolment of Greek students in Harvard, Yale, the University of Michigan and the University of Chicago.

It is to be regretted that by a slip of the pen Mr. Norton has presented in respect to the study of Latin some figures which are misleading. He says (p. 281):

Latin flourishes in the secondary schools almost beyond belief. In 1894 there were roughly 480,000 secondary students in the United States, of whom 43.59 per cent. were studying Latin; in 1904 the numbers were 822,000 and 49.96 per cent. respectively.

In the report of the commissioner of education for 1903-04 the number, 822,235, represents the whole attendance of second-grade students who were enrolled in "public high schools, public normal schools, public universities and colleges," "private" institutions of like grade, "private colleges for women," and "manual training schools." "While the number of secondary students in the preparatory departments of colleges and other institutions is given," says the report, "it has been found impracticable to collect complete statistics of such departments." Consequently the statistics for the enrolment in Latin are limited to public and private high schools and academies. In 1903-04 the enrolment in Latin in the public high schools was reported as 323,028, in private high schools and academies as 46,301, making a total of 369,329; this is approximately 49.96 per cent. of the total enrolment of students in these classes of institutions, which is given as 739,215. Had account been taken of the enrolment of students of Latin in the preparatory departments of the colleges, particularly the denominational colleges, and in all other institutions having students of secondary rank, the number must have been considerably augmented; but whether the students enrolled in Latin formed a greater or smaller proportion of the whole 822,235 secondary students in attendance at all classes of institutions it is impossible to tell. One may hazard a guess that the percentage, if known, would fall below 49.96.

FRANCIS W. KELSEY.

Ann Arbor, Mich., October 20.

A BETTER POSTAL CARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of April 5, 1900, I wrote as follows:

Can any one explain to me why this splendid big nation, which gives itself every conceivable form of luxury, cannot manage to provide for its inhabitants a white postal card? In England a lady or a gentleman can write a short note on a post-card and not feel that one has done anything derogatory to one's dignity; but here one must make use of an unpleasant yellow thing, of inartistic proportions, or else go through the fatiguing and expensive work of writing a note, putting it into an envelope, and affixing to it a two-cent stamp.

Last year, being a public-spirited person, I wrote myself to the postmaster-general and begged him to provide a white and tidy card, even if it had to cost two cents; he replied that it was impossible at that time, but that it should be done another year. Another year has come, and there is still nothing of the sort to be seen. Now what I wish to know is this: Why should a luxurious nation think it worth while to practise this particular form of penury?

Six years have come and gone, and a

white postal card, of good writing surface and of good proportions, must still be numbered, in this country, among non-existences. Could not President Roosevelt, strenuous in all good movements, be persuaded to take an interest in this much-needed reform?

C. L. F.

Baltimore, October 27.

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have the following books on their autumn list now ready: "Time and Clocks," a description of ancient and modern methods of measuring time, by H. H. Cunyngname; "Holiday and Other Poems," by John Davidson, with an essay on poetry; "The Heart of England," by Edward Thomas, with illustrations in color by H. L. Richardson; "William Blake: A Critical Essay," by Swinburne (a new edition); "Artillery and Explosives," by Sir Andrew Noble, with diagrams and illustrations; and "Social Silhouettes," by George W. E. Russell, author of "Collections and Recollections."

At its annual meeting in December, 1902, the American Historical Association approved the plan of publishing a series of volumes to contain the classical narratives on which the early history of the United States is founded, anterior to 1700. The general editor chosen for this scheme was J. Franklin Jameson. The first volume, just issued by Charles Scribner's Sons, is called "The Northmen, Columbus, and Cabot: 985-1503." The voyages of the Northmen are edited by Prof. Julius E. Olson, those of Columbus and John Cabot by Prof. E. G. Bourne.

The great Cambridge "History of English Literature," in fourteen volumes, which has already been announced in these columns, will be published in this country by G. P. Putnam's Sons as the regular agents of the Cambridge University Press. Other books soon to be brought out in the series of English Classics are "The Plays of Beaumont and Fletcher," vol. iv.; Bunyan's "Grace Abounding" and "Pilgrim's Progress," edited by Dr. John Brown; "The Essays and English Plays of Abraham Cowley," edited by A. R. Waller; "The Works of Giles and Phineas Fletcher," edited by F. S. Boas; "The Poems of George Gascoigne," edited by Prof. J. W. Cunliffe; "The Poems of George Crabbe," vol. iii.

"The Life of Sir Leslie Stephen, K.C.B.," by Frederick William Maitland, is announced among the November publications of G. P. Putnam's Sons. Dr. Maitland, a close friend of Sir Leslie and his family, is Downing professor of law at Cambridge University.

The Macmillan Company will soon have ready an English edition of the now famous Memoirs of Prince Von Hohenlohe.

Thomas Whittaker is bringing out "The King and His Kingdom," by the Rev. C. J. Ridgeway, dean of Carlisle, and "Religion and Experience," by the Rev. J. Brierley of England ("J. B."), editor of the *Christian World*.

In mentioning, last week, "The Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln," issued by the Francis D. Tandy Company, we spoke

of the tenth volume as completing the set. We are informed that two more volumes are to appear, containing an appendix of material that came to hand too late for inclusion in its proper place; a Bibliography of Lincolniana, prepared by Judge Daniel Fish of Minneapolis; an anthology of Lincoln's sayings and epigrams; a chronological index, and an exhaustive analytical index.

Anatole France, who for many years has been a special student of the story of Joan of Arc, and who for ten years has been engaged in writing a book on the subject, is at last about to publish his work through Calmann-Lévy.

Thomas McKie's "Summer Rambles" (Edinburgh: David Douglas) covers a good deal of ground and includes Ireland, Wales, England, Scotland, and Germany. The first essay happens to describe Dublin, and is so curiously unlike that capital, though with certain hints of resemblance, like a bad photograph, that we are not surprised to find that the picture was taken some fifty years ago. All Mr. McKie's chapters on Ireland, the gayeries and thronging population of Limerick, or Cork, or Queenstown, remind the reader that half a century has depopulated that distressful country. But Mr. McKie has not the talent for topography, and his sketches lack life and color. He falls into the sin that so often besets the descriptive writer: his private philosophy is dearer to him than the ambition to transport his reader's imagination to the place described.

F. Berkeley Smith's "In London Town" (New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.) is written by one whose spirit's home is Paris. When he has gathered in the gaudier charms of London with a superficial hand and looked on her many-sided face with a superficial eye, he hurries back to the Restaurant Weber quite unimpressed by all that has made London dear to so many a cosmopolitan. Mr. Smith offers his reader what he would call the gayer side of London, the life of the music-hall artiste, the heavy efforts at Bohemianism, the backstairs life of the Gaiety and the Empire. Imagine Charles Lamb confronted with these French illustrations of rouged women and gilded youths, this complete lack of the historical feeling, this amazing ignorance of what London stands for in the minds of men. The description of a Sunday at Brighton in the society of a gay little Parisienne picked up en route is the most depressing chapter we have read for a long time. As for "my simple highly-titled friend" whose pedigree harks back to the eleventh century, we fear he is only too true to life and that no one could be more simple. The total effect of the book is flashy and un-English.

The Clarendon Press has put out attractively bound editions of Palgrave's "Treasury of Sacred Song" and Kinglake's "Eothen." It is curious to read in the Introduction to the latter work, by D. G. Hogarth, that this superb book of Oriental travel belongs to the long list of rejected manuscripts. It was refused by several publishers before it was issued, in 1844, by Oliver of Pall Mall, partly at the author's own expense and risk.

Number 60 of the Philosophical Classics, published by the Open Court Company, contains Fichte's "Vocation of Man," translat-

ed by Dr. William Smith. The series now embraces an excellent selection of the great philosophical treatises, sold at commendably low prices.

"The Economy of Happiness," by James Mackay (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), is a treatise on logic, ethics, and economics in three books. In his Introduction the author advises those who are not interested in the first or the second book to read the third. It would have been better if he had condensed some and omitted other parts of the earlier chapters, which are unnecessarily long and discursive. The way to happiness, he tells us, lies in the application of common sense to social and economical conditions, with "utility" as the standard. Mr. Mackay calls his theory "Pantocracy," which is founded on "the socialism of Marx and his co-workers." Among the "eight different features" of this scheme are: public ownership, retention of the wage system, and abolition of profit, with organizations to adjust supply to demand, and to deal with all the principal problems of economics. The author has a fancy, apparently, for coining words which obscure his meaning. The theoretical part of his work is partly elucidated by mathematical formulas and by diagrams which some people may find interesting, if not instructive.

Specialists have known that the best hook by an Occidental scholar on Hindu religion is the second volume (or section, or part; the division of these German books is inextricable) of Professor Deussen's "Allgemeine Geschichte der Philosophie." This has been translated by A. S. Geden as "The Philosophy of the Upanishads" (imported by Scribners). It is a work to be heartily recommended, although the reader must be advised that a certain note of intellectualism, bound to appear in the treatise of any German metaphysician, somewhat distorts the primitive character of those ancient books. Some time about the year 800 A. D. a great Hindu metaphysician, Shankara (or Çankara, as the name is more commonly transliterated) developed the Vedānta, as it lay in germ in the Upanishads, into a system of stupendous intricacy. He was the Doctor Angelicus of India. In 1883 Professor Deussen published a compendium of this philosophy, under the title of "Das System des Vedānta," to which he added at the end a brief summary of the doctrine. This summary, "The Outline of the Vedānta System of Philosophy, according to Shankara, by Paul Deussen," has been translated by J. H. Woods and C. B. Runkle, and published in a slender volume by the Grafton Press. It is the best exposition of the chief school of Hindu metaphysics obtainable in brief compass.

A pathetic interest attaches to the Rev. Dr. George Matheson's "Rests by the River" (New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son) since the blind minister of St. Bernard's, Edinburgh, closed his useful and devoted life only a few months ago. The present volume resembles several of the author's previous books, in that it consists of a large number of devotional meditations, of three or four pages each. The brief homilies are based on original, sometimes fanciful, interpretations of a Scripture text, and have a flavor of true piety. Dr. Matheson was more at home than most men of these times in the region of religious mys-

teries. His death removes the seer from the company of Scotch theologians, but the present volume will conspire well with his former writings to preserve his beautiful spirit and to exhibit to the many who need the lesson that it is possible to be pious without being foolish.

Two considerable volumes of "Spiritual Studies in St. Luke's Gospel," by the Rev. Arthur Ritchie, Rector of St. Ignatius Church of this city (Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co.), manifest both the merits and defects of High Anglican churchmanship. Sincerity and enthusiasm and a religious spirit are evident. The author has devoted much study to the Church fathers, and under every important text he marshals passages from Augustine and Chrysostom, Cyril, Amrose, and Jerome. Unfortunately preference is shown for fanciful patristic exegesis. Stier and Isaac Williams, whose cabalistic style of interpretation is well known, are the modern commentators he cites most frequently. To recent critical works, even of the thorough scholars of the author's own communion, he pays no attention. Dr. Ritchie has arranged his commentary in short sections, and divided each "study" into an exposition and a series of three "thoughts," thus adapting his work to quick reference and ready comprehension.

Lewis A. Hart, author of "A Jewish Reply to Christian Evangelists" (New York: Bloch Publishing Co.), is a Jewish notary in Montreal and a former lecturer in the faculty of law at McGill University. He is greatly outraged by Protestant endeavors at the conversion of Jews, especially by the efforts of the Jewish Mission in his home city. It seems that a member of the Protestant Ministerial Association of Montreal wrote to the *Jewish Times* of that city in extenuation and explanation of the proselytizing endeavors, and Mr. Hart made the series of vigorous replies now published in book form. The essays are naturally polemic, and from their point of view, able. The special object of attack is the doctrine of the Trinity, which is understood as tritheism, "a triumvirate of gods." He has, of course, no difficulty in overthrowing the arguments by which it is sought to establish this doctrine from Old Testament texts, from the word "Elohim" as plural, from the *trisagion* of Isaiah vi., etc. His philippic against this sort of exegesis and the doctrine founded on it, takes one back to the days of Channing. But, unfortunately, when he seeks to define and vindicate his position as a Jew, he sinks to the same literal interpretation that he condemns in his opponents. This method may have lent force and effectiveness to his papers as tracts for a particular situation, but essays of this quality are of no value in exhibiting the peculiar strength and weaknesses of the religions with which they deal.

In "The Poetry of Chaucer, a Guide to its Study and Appreciation" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Dr. R. K. Root of Princeton has given us an agreeably written book of a popular character, which in accuracy of statement and fulness of information satisfies all scientific requirements. To be sure, for professional students the work contains too much that is elementary—at least, for consecutive reading—and on the other hand, being purely expository and critical and not biographical, it may prove

too long perhaps for the taste of the general public. Nevertheless, both classes of readers may consult it with profit. The author has utilized all Chaucer investigations up to the present year, including the important recent discussions of the Prologue to the "Legend of Good Women." One does not look, of course, for new discoveries with regard to Chaucer or his works in a book of this character, but in setting forth the present state of knowledge of his subject the author exhibits independence and good judgment in his attitude towards the work of others. Especially to be commended is his conservatism in rejecting the ingenious speculations which have recently aimed at revolutionizing the generally accepted chronology of Chaucer's poems. On the side of literary criticism Dr. Root shows the same qualities of conservatism and good judgment. Like most books that issue from American universities, it is perhaps too didactic in aim, and the shadow of orthodoxy at times hangs a little heavily over its pages. Yet the book is written so evidently *con amore* that the sympathy of the writer can hardly help becoming infectious. The discussions of the characters in "Troilus and Criseyde" and of the 'litel clergeon' in the "Prioress's Tale" furnish, perhaps, the best examples of our author's work from this point of view. Among errata we may remark that Dr. W. E. Mead's edition of "The Squyr of Lowe Degre" appeared in the Albion Series, not the Athenæum Press Series. Finally, it seems to us that in any enumeration of authors (p. 12) who illustrate the intellectual activity of England about the close of the fourteenth century, it is a mistake not to mention the author of the plays in the nine-line stanza in the Towneley collection.

The large number of students in our universities who occupy themselves with Anglo-Saxon subjects will be pleased to have a handy and easily obtainable translation of Asser's "Life of King Alfred," such as Prof. Alvert S. Cook has supplied (Ginn & Co.). The present is an opportune time for a translation of Asser's work, inasmuch as the authenticity of the book, so long in dispute, has been pretty well vindicated in recent years by Plummer and Stevenson. Indeed, the advantages which Professor Cook's translation enjoys over previous ones is due mainly to the fact that he has been able to use the results of the investigations of these two scholars, especially the latter, whose edition (1904) of Asser's "Life" in its original form has superseded all others. Professor Cook has appropriately added two appendices—one consisting of Alfred's well-known preface to his translation of Gregory's "Pastoral Care," in which the state of learning in England in his day is described, the other of the letter of Fulco, primate of the Franks, in reply to Alfred's request for the services of the priest Grimhald.

Three volumes in the dumpy but attractive World's Classics now issued by the Oxford University Press, contain "The Works of Edmund Burke," vol. ii., with an Introduction by F. W. Raffety; "The Professor," by Charlotte Brontë, with the Brontë Poems, and Defoe's "Adventures of Captain Singleton." Mr. Watts-Dunton contributes the Introductions to the Brontë and Defoe volumes, and in the latter gives

some rather interesting information about the relation of his friend Borrow's style to that of Defoe. The influence of the older author on the younger was, he says, beyond all gauging. "Often and often has he [Borrow] said to me that Defoe was the only 'professional' author who could 'tell a plain story on paper.'" Mr. Watts-Dunton thinks it a curious subject of speculation whether the recent revival of interest in Borrow will cause a revival in the master himself. And what, he asks, will be the effect of Defoe's simple, lucid, direct style of narrative upon the style of the prose fiction of the twentieth century? Mr. Watts-Dunton seems to regard Defoe as a participator in his favorite and much-noised "renaissance of wonder." To bring the "wonder" of "Robinson Crusoe" under the same category as that of "Aylwin" is a bit of critical legerdemain.

Another expensive two-volume memoir now published in a single volume at a cheaper price. This time it is "Mrs. Brookfield and Her Circle," imported by Scribners. The custom of issuing a cheap reprint from the same plates doubtless has its justification from the publisher's point of view, but seems almost an imposition upon the early purchasers of the more expensive edition.

Professor Howard of Leland Stanford publishes through Macmillan a careful study of the German Constitution, under the title of "the German Empire." After a brief introductory chapter he takes the Constitution of the new empire and proceeds to analyze its component parts. Thus we have chapters on the Kaiser, the Reichstag, citizenship, judicial organization, military service, finance, and kindred subjects. The text of the Constitution is given in an appendix, and the book, as a whole, will prove a convenient manual of the subject viewed in its strictly constitutional aspect.

Paul Leland Haworth has chosen as subject for a thesis "The Hayes-Tilden Disputed Presidential Election of 1876" (Burrows Bros.). The author sets forth with care and in a judicial spirit the facts as he finds them in the contemporary newspapers, and in the proceedings of congressional committees. He does not, however, put forward new evidence of any importance, nor does his verdict vary from that which is commonly accepted. It is possible that Tilden should, technically, have been elected; but it is quite certain that the balance of malpractice told against the Republican vote in the South.

Those who like to have history interpreted for them in terms of "Folk-Soul," "Historic Process," "World-Spirit," and "the Self of the Universe," will doubtless find much to please them in Mr. Denton J. Snider's "American Ten Years' War, 1855-1865" (St. Louis: Sigma Publishing Company). The array of incident is, indeed, respectable, and the comments of the author are sometimes keen and suggestive; but as a contribution to the history of the Kansas struggle and the Civil War, it is negligible. It is the kind of book that we fancy a historian would prefer to relinquish to a philosopher, and that a philosopher would gladly pass on to a historian.

That historians of mediæval Italy have

hitherto turned their attention too exclusively to the study of the Communes is a statement which can hardly fail to obtain the assent of every thoughtful reader. We have numerous learned treatises on the private and public life of the cities, their guilds, their magistracies, and their statutes; and, although much yet remains to be done before we can fully appreciate the peculiar characteristics of each separate Commune, we are already able to form a tolerably clear idea of the institutions and customs of the Communes as a whole. When, however, we pass outside the walls of the cities, we are in a country which is practically unexplored. Of the *castelli* and the *ville*, of the serf and the *colonus*, we know hardly anything. Feudalism is treated as dead before it was even moribund, and we lose our way in trackless forests where we expected to find cornfields and vineyards. Our idea of mediæval Italy is like a picture without a background. The foreground is clear, but behind it is well-nigh impenetrable mist. Here and there, it is true, a faint light is shed by monographs on individual villages—monographs such as that of Professor Zdekauer on the *Carta Libertatis* of the Rocca di Tintinano, or the recent pamphlet of Dr. Paolo Piccolomini on the *Statuto del Castello della Triana*, in Monte Amiata (Siena: Tip. Lazzeri); but for many years no serious attempt has, we believe, been made to treat the subject as a whole. It is for this reason that the learned work of Dr. Francesco Briganti, "Città Dominanti e Comuni Minori nel Medio Evo con speciale riguardo alla Repubblica Perugina" (Perugia: Unione Tip. Coöperativa), is especially welcome; for it is the "minor communes," the villages of the Perugian *contado*, which are here studied, and we are thus enabled to understand how the villagers, the tillers of the soil, the *coloni*, the *manentes*, the *vignari*, the *bifulci*, lived after they had exchanged the yoke of the feudal seignior for the lighter yoke of the "Dominant City." As one of the librarians in the Biblioteca Comunale of Perugia, Dr. Briganti has had exceptional advantages, and he has used them well. We may not always agree with his conclusions; but his conclusions are of secondary importance, since he has laid all his evidence before us. Almost half of his pages are made up of notes in which the documents upon which he relies are textually reported. Such a hook on such a subject is invaluable to the student of mediæval Italy. It enables him to obtain a new point of view, to fill in a background to his picture, and to perceive how groundless are many of those generalizations which he has heretofore been taught to regard as axiomatic. An admirable work, which may be profitably studied in connection with Dr. Briganti's volume, is "I Codici delle Sommissioni al Comune di Perugia," edited by Count V. Ansidei and Dr. L. Giannantoni. It was commenced in 1895 and has been published in successive numbers of the *Bollettino della Società Umbra di Storia Patria*. It will, we understand, be completed in the forthcoming issue of that periodical.

A breath of the South American prairies permeates the pages of Rudolf Schmied's "Carlos und Nicolas: Kinderjahre in Argentinien" (Munich: R. Piper & Co.), and

brings us something quite different from the conventional atmosphere in even the best of our own descriptive works on that far-off country. That the author has been there and knows the life whereof he speaks is very apparent, and so is the fact that he is the typical German, possessing the land in advance of his Yankee neighbor, notwithstanding the Monroe Doctrine and its terrifying paragraphs. Carlos and Nicolas are the lusty "young ones" of a wealthy German ranchman, far away from the city and civilization; and on their splendid mounts they wildly course the prairies. Stretched out on their backs on the boundless pampas, these boys dream dreams, and draw on their imagination until Nicolas swaps his *boleadoras* or iron-weighted lasso, for a prospective ship Carlos pretends to possess. Aside from the naïve narrative of the boys, the volume conveys an impression of national life such as one might expect to be given the traveller in Argentina, and is, all in all, refreshing reading.

Another copy of that rare pamphlet, "The Prose Romances of Edgar Allan Poe," Number 1, containing "The Murders in the Rue Morgue" and "The Man That Was Used Up," has been discovered. It was literally "picked up" in the country, and sold to Frank Maier of this city, whose collection of first editions of American authors is now one of the finest in existence. The book is so rare that there is doubt whether in the ordinary sense of the word it was ever published at all. The cover (there is no title-page) reads, "Uniform Serial Edition. Each Number Complete in Itself. No. 1," but no second number is known. The price as printed on the cover was twelve and one-half cents. The only other copy which can be definitely placed was purchased by the late Frederick W. French, about 1896, for about \$90. It had then already been in the hands of three booksellers. A New England bookseller (who may be called No. 1) found the book, and, thinking it to be, probably, only an odd part of Poe's works, sold it to bookseller No. 2 for sixty-five cents. He, knowing what a good item he had acquired, sold it for \$60 to bookseller No. 3, who in turn sold it to Mr. French. After his death, at the sale of his library at auction in 1901, \$1,000 was paid for the little book. It is now in the collection of F. R. Halsey, whose library is famous for containing two of the three known copies of Poe's first book, "Tamerlane, and Minor Poems."

The Librarian of Congress has instituted a search for a volume of the original manuscript Journals of the Continental Congress, which has been missing for many years. It is not known when or how it disappeared. Possibly it is now in the possession of some library or collector who is ignorant of its nature. In hope of recovering the volume Herbert Putnam has issued the following description of it:

The writing should be that of Charles Thomson. It should begin with the entries for March 19, 1778, and end with the entries of May 1, 1778. It may be bound in thin boards, of a bluish color, and if any label is on the front it should be merely "No. 1." The volume immediately preceding it is written on folio paper with the water mark of Britannia seated with shield and spear, in a circle surmounted

by a crown, on one sheet, and the letters "J. W." on the other. The volume immediately succeeding is written on paper bearing the same figure of Britannia on one sheet, and the full name "J. Whatman" on the other. They were evidently made up of quires of the paper, by Charles Thomson, and not by any binder.

The collection of Bibles which Prof. Walter Arthur Copinger of the University of Manchester made for the purpose of writing his book, "The Bible and Its Transmission," has passed into the hands of E. Hartland of Hardwick Court, Chepstow, England. This collection is one of the finest of the kind. It consists of nearly 1,500 editions, in about 350 different languages and dialects. Of the Greek Testament there are over 300 editions.

The committee of the Cambridge Historical Society, which has undertaken to celebrate on February 27 the hundredth anniversary of the birth of Longfellow, has sent out a circular announcing its plans. The occasion will be observed as "Longfellow Day" in all the schools of Cambridge. In the evening in Saunders Theatre, there will be public exercises, at which William Dean Howells, as we noted in our issue of October 11, will be the principal speaker, and President Charles W. Eliot, Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson, and Prof. Charles Eliot Norton also will give addresses. An exhibition will be held of early, rare, and beautiful editions of Longfellow's works, together with memorabilia. As a memorial of the event, a special bronze medal will be struck, to be designed by Bela L. Pratt, who designed the similar medal commemorating the twenty-fifth anniversary of the accession of Charles W. Eliot to the presidency of Harvard. Of the Longfellow medal only 200 copies will be issued at \$10 each, and the subscription list has been opened to libraries, museums, and individual collectors. Subscriptions may be sent to Oscar F. Allen, No. 15 Dunster Street, Cambridge.

The celebration of the quatercentenary of George Buchanan began yesterday at Glasgow with an exhibition of books, portraits, relics, and other memorials in the library of the University. To-day Principal J. M. Lindsay gives a public address on Buchanan.

The name of Elizabeth Barrett Browning will, by permission of the Dean of Westminster, appear in the Poets' Corner of the Abbey. When Robert Browning died, the honor of burial was, according to the London *Athenæum*, offered to the remains of his wife, which rest at Florence; but the offer was refused. Now, on the centenary of her birth, her name is to be inscribed at the foot of her husband's grave in the Abbey.

From Paris news comes that the Librairie Nouvelle has ceased to exist. It was founded in 1849 and passed into the hands of Michel Lévy. Under this publisher the place became in the fifties and sixties the haunt of literary men and politicians. Alexandre Dumas père was a regular customer, and Augier, Jules Verne, Flaubert, Gambetta, Maupassant, and the Duc de Rivoli were frequenters of the shop.

Some months ago the German Kaiser, at the suggestion of his representative in Abyssinia, Dr. Rosen, sent out an expedition to that country, the first report from which has just been made to the Academy

of Sciences in Berlin. The members of the expedition have been at work in the old city of Aksum, have prepared a plan of the city, have examined the rich ruins there found, have reexamined the old inscriptions, and have discovered a number of large new inscriptions, which have been copied and are now in a shape to be studied. These latter take the history of Abyssinia back to the fourth and fifth centuries before Christ.

THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND, 1801-1837.

The Political History of England. 12 vols.

XI.—The History of England from Ad-
dington's Administration to the close of
William IV.'s Reign. 1801-1837. By the
Hon. George C. Brodrick. New York:
Longmans, Green & Co. \$2.60 net.

Wherein does the political England of 1906 differ from the political England of 1837? This is an inquiry inevitably suggested and partly answered by the dry yet accurate summary of events contained in the book before us. To sum up the answer in one formula is scarcely possible. Whoever wants to realize the character of an immense change which every one recognizes but no one can easily define, had best note, after studying the work of the late Mr. Brodrick, a few definite contrasts between the England of to-day and the England of well-nigh seventy years ago.

In 1837 the leading politicians had all been bred under a system which the Reform Act had destroyed. They, however, governed by ideas of a bygone age, hardly perceived the true nature of the revolution which had taken place. Nor is this wonderful. The alteration in the constitution of Parliament was not large. Modern critics are surprised at the limited increase in the electorate worked by the Reform Act. A fundamental innovation had moreover been carried through, much to the amazement of Tories, and even of Whigs, in a strictly legal manner, and with slight and indirect appeal to force. A reform achieved without revolutionary violence seemed, after a year or two, no revolution at all. Yet the Reform Act in fact worked a revolution in the whole scheme of government. The disfranchisement of absolutely rotten boroughs and the moral certainty that as time went on all close or nomination boroughs would be disfranchised, had extraordinary effects. It deprived the Crown and a limited number of wealthy and aristocratic landowners, of whom the King might be considered the head, of the means for exercising that "influence" which at one time was almost a technical term, and which (as ardent Whigs not fifty years before the Reform Act had declared) "had increased, was increasing, and ought to be diminished." A King or Queen of England has never been without genuine authority, but since 1832, or at any rate since 1837, this authority has never been a power which any man feared. George III. prolonged the war with the American colonies after it had ceased to be popular. He forbade the concession of political rights to Roman Catholics when advocated by the most powerful of his ministers. His unbending will strengthened the national resistance to the attacks of France. George IV. was a contemptible voluptuary; he was

reputed, whether truly or not, to be deficient in the personal courage which had distinguished his race; but George IV., according to the belief of the time, could of his own will, if he had so wished, have brought the Whigs into power against the determination of the country to support the policy of the Tories. To the well meaning, though feeble, patriotism of William IV. was due in great measure the peaceful passing of the Reform Act. The will of the King could, even in 1832, have put the possibility of parliamentary reform to the issue of civil war. Such exhibitions of power have been impossible to Queen Victoria or to her son. Note, however, that this assertion does not preclude the possibility that in circumstances utterly different from those of 1837 the authority of the Crown may again increase. It is for the future to show whether King or House of Commons will become the moral representative of the empire.

The act, again, which struck at the roots of royal influence had another curious, though less noticed, effect, to which attention has been called by the acuteness of Walter Bagehot. Parliamentary life was, up till 1832, a profession, a pursuit in which a man might obtain not only honor, but wealth. The game, it is true, was one in which prizes were few and blanks many. Still it had its prizes, and, though they too frequently fell to a low type of politician, they might be attained by such men as Pitt or Burke. Hence the appearance on the political stage of that singular character, the patriotic adventurer. He has vanished, and his disappearance marks a fundamental change in English public life.

Up till 1829-1832 the unreformed Parliament was, if not in theory, yet in truth, an English Parliament. The Scottish members were few. They followed principles which sound purely selfish, but promoted the interests of Scotland; they acted as one body; they supported as a rule the Government of the day; they obtained personal rewards for their services. This was the policy of Dundas, the most skilful of all Scottish managers, but it was also the policy of all his predecessors. It was not ideal; it might be termed by Whigs, who were always, except when in office, patterns of virtue, a system of corruption. But it rested on principles sound enough in themselves. Scotsmen were to stand apart from the party controversies which divided Englishmen. They were sedulously to support the Executive, that thereby the Treaty of Union should become a bargain favorable to the private interest of Scottish members and to the material welfare of Scotland. Various causes made it impossible for the representatives of Ireland to pursue this scheme of enlightened selfishness. But Irish members were exclusively Protestants, members of the United Church of England and Ireland. They were landlords, in full sympathy with the landlords of England. They, too, in the main, adopted on all Imperial questions ideas which commended themselves to the English governing class. But the reform of Parliament, which seemed to introduce nothing but certain modifications of the electoral system, produced one effect of immense importance which was hardly recognized by Englishmen even in

1837. The Parliament which met at Westminster had ceased to be an English Parliament.

Turn, lastly, from domestic affairs and note a singular transformation in the foreign policy of England. From 1689 to 1837 England had been profoundly interested in Continental politics. The "glorious Revolution" had been the work of a Dutch army led by a Dutch King. The accession to the throne of the Hanoverian dynasty linked England, most unfortunately for both countries, with Hanover; the intrigues of German courts interested the first two Georges far more keenly than did the expansion of England's colonial empire. And the Continent, to Englishmen, down to 1837, had practically meant France. The great war which terminated with the battle of Waterloo seemed, though it really bore a different character, a mere prolongation of the secular conflict between Englishmen and Frenchmen. From 1837 onwards, the whole aspect of English foreign policy and of English ways of looking upon foreign affairs has changed. The accession of Queen Victoria broke the ill-starred Hanoverian connection. This meant much; it freed English policy from all the complications with a German State belonging to a political system in which England had no real concern. But the fact that Queen Victoria was not the ruler of Hanover facilitated a far more essential change in relation to Continental Powers. Contests which keenly interested the rest of Europe ceased to be of immediate importance to England. If Englishmen intervened in such contests at all, the grounds of interference were henceforth to be either sympathy with the ideas of some foreign party, *e. g.*, with the aspirations of foreign Constitutionalists, or the determination of England to preserve her Eastern Empire. As a matter of fact, political sympathy has, during the last seventy years, hardly ever of itself involved England in Continental conflicts. The feeling which rightly or wrongly has brought England near to war, has been the fear of attack upon India.

The circumstances which have diminished English interest in Continental conflicts have had a further effect. They have preserved peace with France. It is now over ninety years since France and England have met in battle either on land or on sea. Are we to attribute this happy condition mainly to the growth of pacific sentiment? An optimist may answer yes, but an unbiased observer will reply that amicable sentiment is the sign rather than the cause of peace. The secular warfare between two progressive countries has come to an end, because every man of common sense perceives that the conflict between their real or apparent interests has ceased to exist. France does not menace either the colonial or the Eastern empire of England. Most Englishmen would rejoice could some pacific arrangement restore to France the possessions lost in 1870. Englishmen no longer dread either the revolutionary propaganda of French Democrats or invasion by a French Emperor. French Jacobinism or French Imperialism is to Englishmen as dead as the Jacobitism of the eighteenth century. We need not pursue this matter further. The sentiment which even in 1837 kept England in constant fear of a French inva-

sion is hardly comprehensible to the Englishmen of to-day. In the foreign relations no less than in the Constitution of England the lapse of sixty-nine years has produced a fundamental revolution, and a revolution of which the immensity can be realized only when we try to trace it out in different departments of national policy.

MEMOIRS OF THE VENDEE.

Memoirs of the Count de Cartrie. A record of the extraordinary events in the life of a French royalist during the war in La Vendée and of his flight to Southampton, where he followed the humble occupation of gardener; with an introduction by Frédéric Masson; appendices and notes by Pierre Amédée Pichot and other hands. New York: John Lane Company. \$4.

Enormous as is the literature on the Vendean insurrection, there is no mention of a Count de Cartrie in any of the narratives and documents of the period, or in the subsequent histories based upon them. This seems somewhat strange, for that he existed, that he played an important part in the struggle as a leader, although a subordinate one, and that he was a most curious and attractive figure, can hardly be disputed. Indeed, the result of the prolonged and painstaking investigations of M. Pierre Amédée Pichot, one of the most skilful unravelers of historical problems connected with the Revolution in France, establishes the genuineness of these memoirs and their substantial accuracy beyond reasonable doubt. It is not, however, due to M. Pichot that De Cartrie's name has cropped up nearly a century after his death. The *sacer vates* who has rescued the Vendean chief from undeserved oblivion is a publisher! Surely even Lord Byron would not have praised Napoleon for shooting such a publisher as Mr. Lane, whose feeling for De Cartrie and his "Memoirs" is so purely literary and disinterested. His account of the discovery of the manuscript is one of the romances of publishing. It is an English translation, apparently dictated by the author to an English friend who only caught the sounds of the words and often caught them wrong; and, naturally, the proper names of persons and towns were outrageously spelled throughout. Notwithstanding this, Mr. Lane came to the conclusion that it was genuine, and entered into communication on the subject with M. Pichot. The latter's high social position helped him as much as his erudition in solving every difficulty. He tracked every noble family in France in any way connected with the De Cartries or mentioned in the "Memoirs," restored the true proper names, gave the correct genealogies of the author and of his family, verified the mysteries of adventures so romantic as to appear incredible, found every trail and followed it with the patience and sagacity of a sleuth-hound, explored parish records and army service lists, and forced his way into the most jealously guarded family muniment rooms. All this is told in what Mr. Lane modestly styles "The Publisher's Advertisement," but which really forms a chapter almost as fascinating as any in the volume—being the correspondence between himself and M. Pichot.

In one case, however, or rather in two, M. Pichot is on the wrong track. Madame

Bulkeley, her husband, and Count Walsh de Serrant are about the three most interesting friends of De Cartrie in the book. Madame Bulkeley was his sister. She is well-known to every one acquainted with the history of the Vendean troubles. She was one of the Amazons we meet with so frequently during this period. According to her brother:

My sister, brave as a heroine, never abandoned her husband, by whose side she fought in every action in which he was concerned; and though her clothes were on several occasions pierced by balls, yet she fortunately escaped without a wound. . . . [After the death of Robespierre and her release from prison] she put herself at the head of the remnant of these [her husband's] troops, which, with some new levies, constituted a body of upwards of six thousand men. With this little army she for eighteen months fought an incredible number of battles, sometimes alone, and at others in support of Charette. But in the last she received two wounds, which threw her from her horse.

He then eulogizes her virtues. Other writers give her a different character. She is described by the republican historians of La Vendée as a fierce and cruel leader, fond of torturing her Republican women prisoners, burning their houses, and plundering their property. In any case, she was a decidedly interesting character, and it was natural that M. Pichot should try to get all the information possible about her and her almost equally interesting husband. De Cartrie says of him: "At this time Monsieur Bulkeley, born of a good Irish family, . . . was an elegant young man, in height about 5 feet 10 inches, of a fine figure and most amiable character, and served in the regiment of Walsh-Serrant." Yet M. Pichot writes to Mr. Lane asking him to search in *England* for portraits of Bulkeley and Walsh: "There must still be in England some members of the Walsh and Serrant families." This is the more surprising, as he says in the same letter: "I greatly regret not finding a portrait of Madame Bulkeley; I have an idea that if it is to be found at all, it should be searched for in England. Her husband, William Bulkeley, was born at Clonmel, in Ireland, on December 7, 1766." This sounds something like an Irish bull: William Bulkeley was born and lived in Ireland until he lived and died in France; therefore, if you want to learn anything about him, search for it in England. In fact, the Bulkeleys were established in Tipperary for nearly two centuries before the French Revolution. Some of them may be there still. At least they are more likely to be there than in Yorkshire. Can M. Pichot have been misled by the report of the Mayor of Angers to the Mayor of Paris some time after Bulkeley's execution? "Our holy mother Guillotine," says that vivacious official, "is actively engaged in her work. Within the last three days she has shaved eleven priests, one ex-nun, one general, and a handsome Englishman, six foot high, whose head was in the way! It is now bagged!" As Walsh was hereditary colonel of his regiment in the Irish Brigade, he could scarcely have been an Englishman. In fact, he belonged to a family that for more than four or five centuries was as much hanged, forfeited, and banished as any in the green island. It is therefore the more remarkable that members of it still possess large estates

in several Irish counties. Such families have always been especially eager for the preservation of records of their distinguished relatives on the Continent. So that, if M. Pichot, instead of sending Mr. Lane on a wild-goose chase through England, had written, say, to "Hussey Walsh of Cranagh and Mulhussey, Roscommon," or to "Walsh of Carrickmines, Kings County," or to "Hussey of Rathkenny, Meath," he would probably have learned a good deal about their distinguished kinsman, Count Walsh de Serrant.

The interest of these memoirs is very great, great everywhere, and they have considerable historic value, although the author may not have played a preponderant rôle in the military events he describes. His romantic adventures in his Odyssey across France in company with his son, their hairbreadth escapes, his subsequent travels through Germany and Holland, and his life in England, are even more fascinating than his military exploits in La Vendée. This is altogether an enjoyable volume, and superbly illustrated. A map of the wars in La Vendée would have enabled the reader to follow some of his adventures with more ease and pleasure.

RECENT FICTION.

The Mirror of the Sea. By Joseph Conrad. New York: Harper & Bros.

On the surface, this book is very much like A. H. Bullen's "Idyls of the Sea," a series of impressions and memories which are the fruit of a real and long sea experience. Whether in fore-cabin or captain's cabin, these men earned a knowledge of the sea to which no lubberly amateur may hope to attain. Long exercise of their stern trade has not drained them of their enthusiasm for it, or failed to qualify them for the expression of that enthusiasm. Mr. Bullen, to be sure, is concerned with the fascination of the sea itself and its inhabitants, while Mr. Conrad is absorbed in the ships that go upon the waters. Mr. Conrad does not hesitate to challenge the convention of sea-worship:

. . . Its immensity has never been loved as the mountains, the plains, the desert itself, have been loved. Indeed, I suspect that, leaving aside the protestations and tributes of writers who, one is safe in saying, care for little else in the world than the rhythm of their lines and the cadence of their phrase, the love of the sea, to which some men and nations confess so readily, is a complex sentiment wherein pride enters for much, necessity for not a little, and the love of ships—the untiring servants of our hopes and our self-esteem—for the best and most genuine part. For the hundreds who have reviled the sea, . . . down to the last obscure sea-dog of the "old model," having but few words and still fewer thoughts, there could not be found, I believe, one sailor who has ever coupled a curse with the good or bad name of a ship. If ever his profanity, provoked by the hardships of the sea, went so far as to touch his ship, it would be lightly, as a hand may, without sin, be laid in the way of kindness on a woman.

Pathetic fallacy or not, ships are persons to Mr. Conrad, and not a limb or feature of them lies beyond his way of kindness. He will not have them misunderstood or miscalled; the last detail of seamanly terminology is of importance to him. Such misconceptions of sea-phrase as "casting the anchor" inspire in him a

mournful commiseration bordering upon contempt. On the other hand, his speech is as remote as possible from the lingo of the sea captain of fable. He has no wish to force sea talk upon the landsman as something picturesque and to be desired for its own sake, but wishes us to understand its esoteric value as a perfect vehicle, possessing "all the force and precision and imagery of a technical language that, created by simple men with keen eyes for the real aspect of the things they see in their trade, achieves the just expression, seizing upon the essential, which is the ambition of the artist in words."

The prevailing note in these sketches is elegiac: *ehu!* the fading glories of that old sea life upon the sailing ship, the "ship of yesterday." There indeed the miracle of good seamanship might be developed.

Not for it the unerring precision of steel moved by white steam and living by red fire and fed by black coal. The other seems to draw its strength from the very soul of the world, its formidable ally, held to obedience by the frailest bonds, like a fierce ghost captured in a snare of something even finer than spun silk. For what is the array of the strongest ropes, the tallest spars, the stoutest canvas against the mighty breath of the infinite but thistle-stalks, cobwebs, and gossamer.

Mr. Conrad, of Polish birth, is quite as much French as English in his literary instinct and manner. He often gains, that is, through the medium of a pure and vigorous English, effects which recall Maupassant, or, far oftener, Pierre Loti. For example: "The lulling cadence of the rise and fall, the invariable gentleness of this irresistible force, the great charm of the deep waters, warmed my breast deliciously, like the subtle poison of a love-potion." However he may hate the enchantress, this man is subject to her glamour, and able to impart the sense of it as few men have been.

The Plow-Woman. By Eleanor Gates. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.

This is the story of the Lancaster family, father and two daughters, who, coming up from Texas into Dakota after the war, moored their prairie-schooner on a bend of the Missouri, built a shack, and tilled the ground. All opens peacefully and agriculturally. Dallas picturesquely ploughs with her two mules, and with the tame family bull, Simon, always in attendance. Marylyn, the younger sister, stays within doors and cooks the meals. The crippled father, Evan Lancaster, ex-section-boss, narrow-minded, jealous, suspicious, holds his girls in a tight leash, hating all men, more especially all soldiers, most especially any one who has so much as lifted a finger for the North during the war. How necessary men and soldiers became to him and his daughters in the enmities of rival land-claimants and the uprisings of Indians, is developed in the story.

It is a book where the reader is made to see what it must be to "get the West," as one of the characters phrases it. Dangers and horrors serve only to stimulate enterprise and courage. For him who has the West "in his blood," the open air, the flowery prairie, the springing corn are hardly dearer than the blizzard, the outwitting of the landshark, the fight with the Indian. To young Lounsbury from

"the States" the perils were part of the fascination.

Ingenuity is one of the author's conspicuous endowments. Situation after situation keeps interest expectant up to the last. No less is her skill in definition of character, although here and there a bit may be judged out of drawing. A girl like Dallas, for example, ready as she might be to sacrifice herself, would hardly urge a man to make unwilling love to her sister. This act of Dallas's apart, she is a fine figure of girlhood developed by responsibility and bardship into something like a composite man and woman, with woman dominating. The feeble Marylyn serves chiefly to give Dallas an object for her maternal instinct. The tyrannical father is excellently drawn in all his infirmities. The hero is made attractive and not too omnipresent. Each actor is as real as the principals. In characterization this is a virtue, although it should constrain the author to use not too many actors—fewer we think than this novel includes. But the same fidelity is carried into scenery, descriptions, and narrative to the point of faultiness. It results in a lack of perspective which is lifelike, perhaps, but like life seen with the eye and not with the selecting and omitting faculty which makes for art. And of a very high order of art Miss Gates's pen seems capable, *mutato mutando*.

The Belovéd Vagabond. By William J. Locke. New York: John Lane.

With the publication, last year, of "The Morals of Marcus Ordeyne," Mr. Locke became a novelist of international interest. He had deserved American success long before with such stories as "Derelicts" and "Where Love Is," but had not been able to command it. What books of his had appeared until then in cis-Atlantic covers had been received with quiet appreciation by the critics, but had been buried, so far as the general reading public is concerned, under what Mr. Howells has called the "annual rubbish-fall" of our "best sellers." In "The Morals of Marcus Ordeyne" Mr. Locke grafted romance upon realism with ironic as well as humorous intent. In his new novel he reverses the process with no felicitous result. Here is a twig of realism grafted upon present-day romance, the romance of the open road and the free life. The realism of the vagabond's personal habits spoils the romance of his nobility of character. If ever a well-born vagabond justified the narrowness of English Philistinism, it is this rover of generous impulses, who, when he emerges for a moment from the pothouse to claim the place that is still his, must, through force of habit, take the manners of the pothouse with him into the drawing-room. The knight-errant, while he occasionally interests us mildly, neither attracts nor convinces us; and the sunny roads of France, her farms, villages, and inns have found more eloquent pens than Mr. Locke's ere now to praise their charms. Mr. Locke should not be judged by his "Belovéd Vagabond" alone.

Letters to Women in Love. By Mrs. John Van Vorst. New York: D Appleton & Co.

The letters are numerous; the women to

whom they are written, four. Three of them have names and addresses likely to attract the curiosity and respectful interest of the feminine readers of so-called "society" fiction: Miss Beatrice Tbayer, Fifth Avenue, New York; Mrs. Elizabeth Aiken, Tuxedo, New York; and Mrs. Cairesbrooke, Dupont Circle, Washington. But for all that, the case of the fourth one—bumble, average Mrs. Jack Burnside, wife of a New York bank clerk with a "home" in Newark—is the most interesting after the not very interesting fashion of the whole book.

An elderly woman of wide experience and deep and ready sympathies is supposed to be the writer of these epistles, which reveal amazing confidence in her own wisdom, incredible readiness to give advice in delicate matters, and staggering absence of hesitation about asking leading questions. The plan on which the book has been constructed makes these blemishes unavoidable, and is therefore fundamentally faulty, but this defect is unlikely to disturb the readers for whom the volume is chiefly intended. The elderly woman gives treatment by correspondence, so to speak, for the cure of all kinds of afflictions of the affections, ranging from a young girl's doubt about an "offer" she has received, to all the jealousies, regrets, disillusiones, material worries, and disappointments of married life.

There was abundant material here for the making of an interesting book. Mrs. Van Vorst has done little with it beyond discovering its possibilities. The cases she presents are not lacking in human interest, but the deeper note is lacking.

The Bible as English Literature. By J. H. Gardiner. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50 net.

For years we have been hearing the complaint that the generation which now is, nay, that which is passing, reads and knows its Bible scarcely at all in comparison with the men and women of half a century ago. This complaint, which is probably not exaggerated, has generally been accompanied by a suggested remedy—to wit, the study of the Bible as literature. As aids in the application of this remedy, numerous books have been prepared; none, we think, better than this of Professor Gardiner's, which is the outcome of the courses he has been giving at Harvard and at the Lowell Institute. Good as the book is, however, we must in fairness warn teachers at least that the possession of an excellent text-book will not smooth away the difficulties which confront the advocates of Bible-study in our schools; nor have we great hopes that this or any other book will set a large portion of our adult population to reading and studying what was truly the Word of Life to their fathers and grandfathers. The Bible, which was for so long, and still is, a great force in our civilization, has latterly found itself buffeted by opposing forces which seem unamenable to literary control. Hence, while we welcome Professor Gardiner's book as a valuable aid in a good cause, we can hardly feel that the hopes and convictions that enabled him to attain success are as solid as the learning he has utilized and the expository skill he has displayed.

His general attitude toward what most persons would regard as the crucial difficulty confronting him is well described in a paragraph in his preface:

In all my discussion I have assumed the fact of inspiration, but without attempting to define it or to distinguish between religious and literary inspiration. The two come together in a broad region, where every one who cares for a delimitation must run his line for himself. It is obvious, however, that no literary criticism of the Bible could hope for success which was not reverent in tone. A critic who should approach it superciliously or arrogantly would miss all that has given the book its power as literature and its lasting and universal appeal.

Waiving the point that no good critic would approach any book superciliously or arrogantly, we may ask the question whether the fact that the writer of such a book as this feels at liberty to forbear running a line between religious and literary inspiration is not symptomatic of the spiritual and mental state which is responsible in the main for that neglect of the Bible which he is striving to counteract. Hearers and readers who complacently allow their teacher to refrain from showing his skill in spiritual engineering—Professor Gardiner's metaphor is responsible for the phrase—will presumably not object to a discussion of the prophetic books which contains practically not a word as to the fulfilment of any specific prediction. As we read the chapter, we recalled instinctively an old divine long since gathered to his fathers, who felt it his duty at least once a year to preach a series of sermons designed to prove the truth of Christianity from the fulfilment of a chain of prophecies. That dear old man was of the salt of the earth. What would he have thought, could he have read Professor Gardiner's chapter on "The Prophecy"? Will those who read it without feeling that a necessary element has been omitted ever be quite the same sort of salt as that good preacher? We shall not attempt to answer our own questions, preferring to say that we expected to find Professor Gardiner's book lacking on the one hand the enthusiasm of unction and on the other the piquant force that usually accompanies earnest destructive criticism. In a certain sense, our expectation was realized, but we found so much sincerity of high feeling, so much sound literary appreciation, and so much helpful elucidation of the perplexities that attend the layman's reading of the Bible, that our initial questions and misgivings were laid to rest.

The volume of four hundred pages is divided into nine chapters, of which the first is introductory and deals with the Bible as a single book. Chapters ii.-vii. treat the several *genres* to be found in the Scriptures—the narratives of various types, the poetry, the wisdom books, the epistles, the prophecy, and the Apocalypse. They are specially successful in utilizing the results of the so-called Higher Criticism to furnish a historical background with the result that the documents stand out clearly as embodiments of the life of Israel at the crucial periods of the nation's evolution. On the other hand, Professor Gardiner has succeeded less conspicuously in his endeavors to make us both realize and comprehend the present literary value of the prose and poetry which have so deeply appealed to our race. His il-

lustrative citations are excellent, but he sometimes overworks his epithets (*cf.*, the use of "vivid" on page 37), frequently seems to miss the inevitable phrase, and occasionally appears to have overlooked a chance to retrench the wordiness and to cut out repetitions that were permissible enough in a course of lectures. Yet it must be owned that his criticism is often felicitous, and that it ought to send not a few readers to the great book that used to be read in one's "closet," when "closets" were practicable luxuries.

The two concluding chapters are entitled "The Translation" and "The King James Bible." They form a compendious and most interesting narrative of the labors of Tindale and his successors, and will doubtless prove as useful to teachers as they will be novel and instructive to most readers. Perhaps a few statements in the closing pages, which deal with "The English Bible as a standard for the literature," may be a trifle extravagant and may introduce comparisons between forms of literature that scarcely have a common measure; but in the main one feels on putting down the book that Professor Gardiner, in summing up the position of the Authorized Version in our literature, has been adequate to his important and far from easy task.

Persia: Past and Present. A Book of Travel and Research, with more than 200 illustrations and a map. By A. V. Williams Jackson. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$4 net.

The traveller in Iran must love travel for itself—the raw article, not the Twentieth Century Limited variety. He must be content with the shadow of a rock or mud wall at burning noontide, and be proof at night against the bitter winds which sweep the passes over the mountain ranges that traverse the great Iranian plateau like the edges of gigantic saws. Only within the last decade has the Russian road from the Caspian to Teheran been opened. Other roads, in the ordinary sense, there are none, though one may journey from Teheran to Kum and Kasvin by carriage. The traveller's steed follows the shifting track of caravans across the plains, or steps cautiously in the deep holes which countless pack-animals from the time of Darius have worn in the rocky slopes. Railways do not exist, if we except the nondescript affair which conveys pilgrims over the few miles separating Shah 'Abdu'l-Azi'm from the capital, a "line" whose only interest for the traveller is that of curiosity. A so-called English hotel is to be found at Teheran, whose comforts are of a strictly relative character; and a pretentious caravanserai which, when the writer last visited it, provided a well-worn tooth-brush for its guests, blocks the wide avenue which gives a sense of space and dignity to decayed Kasvin. Elsewhere one must arrive early at the end of the last *farsakh* to find room for one's animals in the crowded court of the *chaparkhanah* or decent shelter for one's own camp-bed within its bare walls. But whoever is willing to pay a literal pound of flesh for exhilarating out-of-door life in the saddle, who is not too sensitive to dirt and insects, and who loves the freedom of wide horizons and regions un-

contaminated by his native civilization, will find in Persia one of the last strongholds of the unadulterated Orient.

The ordinary approach through the Caucasus by rail, either from Batum on the Black Sea, or Moscow and Vladikavkas, to Baku, on the Caspian, and thence by steamer to Enzeli and Resht, was left by our author at Tiflis for the overland route to Tabriz. In either case Tiflis is the jumping-off place of Western civilization. Whether one proceeds overland or by way of the Caspian, one encounters at once the Oriental disdain for sanitary plumbing. Professor Jackson's reason for entering Persia by way of Azarbaijan was that that province, as he believes, was the birthplace of Zoroaster, and the purpose of his journey was antiquarian study and scholarly research, especially with regard to this great prophet of Iran. It would seem as if this fact ought to have been embodied in some form in the title. "Persia: Past and Present" is misleading, in that it conveys no intimation of the real *motif* of the book. Indeed, except for information scattered through the text, a single chapter of eight pages covers the whole range of Persian history, religion, architecture, and language, and as to Persia Present, one searches in vain for any connected account, statistical or otherwise, of its political, economic, religious, or social life. The reader soon discovers, however, that the Zoroastrian, not the Persian, is the author's real game.

Professor Jackson's chapters fall naturally under the two heads indicated in the preface: those of a descriptive and narrative character, likely to interest the general reader, and those in which "certain technical matters are discussed." As to the former, the author cannot be said to possess the happy gift of making the reader see what he sees and share his experiences. The incidents and accidents of his journey are related pleasantly enough, but the narrative is too academic, not to say pedantic, to convey the rude charm of Persian life and manners. Some of his less ambitious predecessors, who were not over-concerned about a reputation for learning, as Miss Sykes, Browne, Mrs. Bishop, or Lady Durand, have caught more of the Persian atmosphere in their pictures. The step which separates a languid interest from the fascination that makes one eager to get into the saddle and follow the author's track is a long one, and we imagine Professor Jackson's work will be more successful in interesting those who know Persia than in stirring the imagination of those who do not.

But, after all, it is Persia as the birthplace of Zoroaster and the home of his religion with which Professor Jackson is concerned, and we know of no volume containing so complete an account of the present condition and religious rites of the fire-worshippers, combined with so much information on the history and traditions of this sect. The study of this subject on the spot is greatly facilitated by the fondness of the Persian for metaphysical speculation, a source of information of which the author avails himself at every opportunity. It is doubtful whether in any other country philosophical discussion plays so important a rôle in ordinary social intercourse. Sects of every description have

flourished in Persia from the earliest times down to the Babis and Sheykhis of to-day. Professor Jackson, who assigns the appearance of Zoroaster to the early half of the seventh century B. C., regards him as beyond doubt an actual historic personage, and seeks to identify various localities historically or traditionally associated with his name. Thus he considers it "reasonably probable" that the tract of reeds on the southern border of Lake Urumiah is the district where he made his first convert as told in the Pahlavi writings; and that Mount Savalan, near Ardabil, is the mountain on which the prophet communed with Ormuzd and received divine revelations. To the present reviewer these and similar identifications seem to rest too largely on the author's evident enthusiasm for his subject. Far more important and tangible are the results of Professor Jackson's investigation of the probable site of ancient Ecbatana, which he places at Hamadan instead of Takht-i-Suleiman. His reasons for differing from the conclusions of Rawlinson are forcibly stated in a wholly scientific spirit, a remark which applies to all his discussions of questions resting on historic as distinguished from mythical data.

But the most important chapter of Professor Jackson's book is that which treats of the great rock sculptures of Behistan and the readings of the cuneiform inscriptions of Darius. Since the days when Rawlinson first copied these almost inaccessible records, no attempt to verify his transcription has proved successful. The immense space of nearly 500 by 100 feet covered by the inscriptions is some 300 feet above the base of the ravine on the precipitous rock, and, as stated by Rawlinson, "the climbing of the rock . . . is a feat . . . which an antiquary alone could be expected to undertake." Professor Jackson succeeded in examining most of the doubtful passages, and in verifying in general the remarkable transcript of Rawlinson made over sixty years ago; and the account both of his perilous climb and its results are given with noteworthy modesty.

The book is not very fully indexed, but is profusely and well illustrated, and provided with an excellent map. Some slight errors, perhaps inseparable from so short a sojourn, are observable, as for example the statement that the American legation at Teheran has occupied the same grounds since its establishment in 1883. Unfortunately, in Teheran, as in most other capitals, the American legation is a literal nomad.

Emma, Lady Hamilton. By Walter Sichel. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$5 net.

Deep violet-gray eyes and tresses of auburn tipped with gold are designed by nature to play an active part in the affairs of mankind. From Horatio Nelson to Walter Sichel the victims of Lady Hamilton's charms are innumerable, and, curiously enough, even her enemies are to be numbered in the category. For few writers have approached this extraordinary woman and retained their balance; those who have seen her bright side have become apologists, those who have seen the reverse only

have defamed her; one of our own historians, Capt. Mahan, is nearly alone in maintaining his composure when dealing with her disconcerting memory.

Every beauty will meet with detractors; the Venus de Medici finds critics. And, moreover, age must tell. Travellers, whom Mr. Sichel does not quote, have asserted that Emma Hamilton was fat and vulgar. Doubtless there were persons to whom, and times at which, that aspect predominated. But, on the whole, such opinions may be disregarded, and there can be not the vestige of a doubt that from her youth until at least the close of her career as ambassadress, she was gloriously beautiful. And more than beautiful, for she was by nature an actress, every expression, every gesture, a skilled heightening of her fascination. She learned to play on the emotions, and so it was that when, after the dismal experiences of youth, after passing through the hands of the calculating Greville and of the uninspiring Hamilton, she met Nelson, a spark was touched that fired both their natures into a mutual blaze.

The compatibility of the temperaments of the two was so great as to make their linked destinies something that now appears inevitable, almost excusable. Nelson was weakest and strongest at once in his high-wrought emotional temperament, driving him at times into folly of speech and action, and at others to a pitch of heroism that gave his country the empire of the seas. To meet such a man at the moment when the struggle for the Mediterranean between France and England was at its supreme crisis, at the moment when she had just risen from the basest rank a woman may hold, to be ambassadress at the court of Naples, the centre of the storm, was decisive of Emma Hamilton's future. Her adoration, like England's, was flung at the feet of the lion-hearted admiral, who was struggling to achieve the destruction of Bonaparte. What more natural? What more deserving of sympathy?

But, and it is here that we must abandon Mr. Sichel, it is possible to see all this and yet go no further. Nelson may have been the greatest of admirals, Emma Hamilton the most beautiful of women, their amours the finest possible frenzy of high-wrought emotion, without disarranging all the facts of history to strengthen these perfectly arguable propositions. But this is, in effect, what Mr. Sichel does. He has undeniable talent, but it clearly is not of the historical variety. His pages continuously shock the reader acquainted with the period, not by gross lapses, but by constant petty distortions that are too minute to criticise, and that may best be summed up as indicating a complete lack of the historical sense. It is essentially this that robs the book of value; and the largest example of the fault is to be found in the treatment of the controversial point concerning the alleged secret order of Queen Mary Caroline for the provisioning of Nelson's ships in 1793. The matter is far too lengthy to be set out adequately here. Suffice it to say that the chief cause of Mr. Sichel's floundering in this question is that he does not grasp the essential fact that King Ferdinand and Acton ruled Naples, while the Queen had no authority whatever, only influence. Another bad instance of his judgment is the contempt with

which he treats the policy of the King, Acton, and Gallo, which, but for the pressure of Nelson and the Queen, would undoubtedly have saved Naples from the French invasion and the horrors of 1799. Mr. Sichel makes a great show of manuscript, the importance of which he altogether overrates, but is very imperfectly acquainted with the printed authorities; his book only adds one more controversial landmark to this much debated topic. The illustrations are, however, most interesting.

Drama.

Garrick and His Circle. By Mrs. Clement Parsons. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This is a work of vastly superior quality to the great majority of books, especially those of recent date, relating to the stage and its associations. It is really a study of a period, showing extraordinary industry in research, rare discrimination in the selection of material, a keen sense of what is vital in characterization, a most commendable desire for accuracy, and a judgment at once sane, acute, and humorous. Of course, it has nothing new in the way of fact to offer, being, in effect, simply a compendious extract from the great body of printed stuff, good, bad, or indifferent, about Garrick and his intimates, but Mrs. Parsons has been so indefatigable that her single volume may be said to contain the essence of a good-sized library. It will be invaluable to all who may desire to acquaint themselves with theatrical and social conditions during the latter half of the eighteenth century in England, but are unable to go to the original sources of information. Her style, moreover, is so vivacious and her comment so keen and witty, so completely free from any appearance of labor or learning, that the casual reader, absorbed in the sprightly gossip, might easily be unmindful of the store of information behind it. The long list of quoted authorities which she furnishes reveals only a part of her ubiquitous inquiries.

Perhaps the clearest idea of the scope of her work may be obtained from a glance at the different sections into which it is subdivided. Each of them, it may be noted, is a finished little essay in itself. As a whole, they tell a continuous story, and although of necessity they overlap to a certain extent, they never repeat. The introduction is a sketch of life in the Lichfield of the eighteenth century, with amusing anecdotes of the social prejudices of the period. Then follows a paper on Garrick's early days in London and the Woffington episode. Next he is exhibited at the zenith of his fame and popularity as the dictator of Old Drury. Later on, after chapters on old theatrical ways, Kitty Clive and others, and Mrs. Garrick, there is a picture of Garrick in his green-room. Then come brief sketches of the contemporary dramatists, an account of the famous "Club," a review of Garrick's literary output, a lively picture of the ways of the beaux and belles of the day, a description of the provincial theatres in England and Ireland, etc. Last of all is the story of Garrick's social triumphs on the Continent, of the pleasant days of his re-

tirement, of his death and his burial in Westminster Abbey. All these are well and compactly done.

Garrick's every peculiarity, physical and mental, has been catalogued with a precision and amplitude which prove how constantly he made himself the centre of observation. Even without the canvases, which represent him in his habit as he lived, it would be comparatively easy to form a mental picture of him. His graceful, well-proportioned figure, his mobility of feature, his lustrous eyes and eloquent mouth, his expressive hands and orchestral voice, his incessant vivacity, his ready wit, his Protean gifts, his vanity, his fascination, his kindness, have been enlarged upon, over and over again, with copious illustration. Mrs. Parsons is unable, nor does she try, to add to the mass of accumulated detail, but she rejects much that is legendary. Thus she works up a highly finished portrait, for the veracity of which such men as Johnson, Burke, Boswell, Goldsmith, and Garrick himself—in his correspondence—stand sponsors. In one respect, at least, she does good service to his memory by showing how little foundation there is for the charge of habitual parsimony which it was once the fashion to bring against him. Some recent biographers have touched upon this point, but she offers indisputable proof that he was not only charitable, but often largely generous, though prudent in minor expenditures, as behooved a man who had heavy financial responsibilities and was subject to innumerable claims upon his private purse. Over his petty vanity she does not attempt to throw any veil. The great genius, who could hold a little world in thrall with his Lear or Macbeth, could descend to the most lamentable buffooneries to get the laugh which he craved. What gross violence he did to the Shakspeare whom he professed to hold—and doubtless did hold after a fashion—in such veneration, is a matter of melancholy notoriety, and Mrs. Parsons remorselessly sets down some of his worst offences in this kind. Doubtless there was more than a grain of truth in Johnson's surly dictum that he was deficient in lofty and serious purpose. The centre of the stage and a full treasury were among his highest ambitions and the character of the play—some of the trash which he put upon the stage is amazing—was of less account in his eyes than the opportunity for personal display.

Mrs. Parsons has an interesting chapter, too, on the theatrical reforms which Garrick effected, but this, of course, to the expert is all ancient history. Some of her most interesting pages are devoted to the admirable domestic life of Garrick and to the virtues of his wife, to whom he gave such life-long devotion, and who was such an invaluable helpmate to him, both in his social and business career. There was a romance which never ended until his dead body was borne from her side to Westminster Abbey. If space permitted it would be pleasant to quote freely from the incident and anecdote which crowd the pages. It may be said, however, in conclusion that the sketches of Garrick's most famous or notorious contemporaries, Kitty Clive, Woffington, Quin, Foote, Sheridan, Burke, Goldsmith, Johnson, Fanny Burney, Reynolds, and count-

less others, are etched with a bold, free, and skilful hand.

In the November *Atlantic*, Prof. George P. Baker prints a number of hitherto unpublished letters of Garrick, taken from the collection of J. H. Leigh. Others are to follow. In the present batch, there is none that sheds additional light upon any statement in Mrs. Parsons's Book. Certain references which she makes, seem, indeed, to indicate that some at least of these Leigh letters passed under her inspection.

The "Cæsar and Cleopatra" of Bernard Shaw, which was played for the first time in this country in the New Amsterdam Theatre, on Tuesday night, cannot be taken very seriously as drama, but merits attention as something new in the way of light entertainment for intelligent persons. It is really a superior form of historical extravaganza, with a semi-serious passage introduced here and there to give it appearance of solidity. As usual, Mr. Shaw has made his characters the mouthpieces of his own opinions upon affairs of the universe, but his views are so wittily expressed, and are productive of so much amusement, that it would be churlish to object to them as inappropriate to either person or period. Really humorous dialogue is too rare upon the stage, nowadays, not to be precious even when it is stuffed with strange heresies; and much of Mr. Shaw's dialogue is comparable with that of W. S. Gilbert. In Forbes Robertson, for whom he wrote the part, Mr. Shaw has found an almost ideal Julius Cæsar. The actor not only looks the character, but plays it the right way, without a trace of exaggeration even in the most fantastic scenes, and in the occasional serious interludes with great intellectual dignity and force. His elocution was admirable. It was a delight to hear the English language spoken with such clearness and crispness and nicety of emphasis. The speech of his whole company, indeed, was uncommonly good, and the general performance of notable excellence. Mr. Robertson's artistic taste asserted itself in the remarkable beauty of the scenery, costumes, and groupings. The representation was warmly received.

Miss Lena Ashwell, accounted one of the most powerful emotional actresses on the London stage, formerly a member of Henry Irving's Lyceum Company, made her first appearance in this city on Monday evening, in the Lyric Theatre, and achieved an emphatic personal success. Her face is highly intelligent; in the quieter passages she acts with close attention to the finer points of suggestive detail, and in more passionate scenes with large and varied control of vocal and facial expression. Beyond question she is a performer of much more than common ability, but no conclusive estimate of her powers can be formed from her one performance in "The Shulamite," which is a gloomy, painful, and rather crude play. It is an adaptation from the novel of that name by Claude Askew and Edward Knoblauch. In it she appears as the lovely drudge of a bigoted and brutal South African Boer. Miss Ashwell, however, dignified the performance by an impersonation which was consistent, and marked with much skill the progressive development, through the inspiration of love, of an ab-

ject, spiritless, and hopeless woman into a resolute and devoted creature, capable of any sacrifice or audacity. It was in the delicate suggestion of hidden suffering that she was most successful, but there was no lack of eloquence or vehemence in her more tempestuous moments. It should be noted that she created her effects without much aid from her associate actors, who were mostly incapable. Artistically, the weakest point in her performance was her elocution, which is often very bad.

H. B. Irving closed his first New York engagement Saturday evening with a performance of "King Charles I." He has achieved an artistic, if not an overwhelming commercial, success. At present his father's fame is rather a handicap than a help, for he has to endure the test of comparisons, which are sometimes founded on prejudice, and are in themselves misleading and unjust. It would be absurd to pretend that he now possesses the extraordinary personal force, the almost mesmeric charm, which made the impersonations of his father—even when most eccentric—so thrilling and authoritative; but his father did not have this power in any marked degree until he was approaching the meridian of his career. Judged solely on his own merits, the young Irving must be assigned to a place in the first rank of living romantic actors. The full extent of his capacities, or his limitations, will not be known until he has been seen in such rôles as Shylock, Hamlet, and Macbeth; but much may be expected of a man capable of playing such diverse parts as Malatesta, Charles I., Dautran, and Markheim.

The Ben Greet Players are again in this country. They will devote the first few weeks of the season to the South; beginning with "Everyman" at the University of Virginia. All the plays included in last year's repertory will be reproduced. About Easter a series of performances will be given at one of the Broadway theatres. "All's Well That Ends Well," the whole of "Hamlet," and possibly both parts of "Henry IV." will be this year's addition to the repertory.

A Malone Society has been formed in England, for the purpose of making accessible material for the study of the early English drama. The society will publish reprints of old plays, chiefly in the Tudor period, and documents illustrative of the history of the stage. The plan is to print the following plays early in the new year: "Wealth and Health," "St. John the Evangelist," Peele's "Battle of Alcazar," 1594; and Greene's "Orlando Furioso," 1594. The first two plays were long thought to be lost, but they have recently been recovered. The extent of the society's activity will depend upon the number of members, at a guinea a subscription. The society hopes to issue each year one play or other such publication for every twenty-five members. The committee in charge of organization consists of F. S. Boas, E. K. Chambers, R. B. McKerrow, A. W. Pollard, and W. W. Greg. The address of Mr. Greg, the secretary, is Park Lodge, Wimbledon, S. W.

Gabriele d'Annunzio's play, "More Than Love," which was presented at Rome for the first time Monday night, is reported to be a complete failure.

Music.

THE COMING MUSICAL SEASON.

The arrival from Europe of Camille Saint-Saëns, the leading composer of France, calls attention to one of the striking features of the musical season now opening. It was inaugurated, three weeks before the usual date, by Signor Leoncavallo, one of the three most prominent composers Italy has produced since Verdi, the other two being Mascagni and Puccini. Mascagni we had with us a few years ago, and Puccini, as we have noted, is to be here later for the production of his latest opera, "Madama Butterfly," at the Metropolitan Opera House. Paderewski also had planned to come here in order to accompany the Boston Orchestra when it plays his new symphony, but his coming is now regarded as extremely doubtful, for the symphony is not yet finished. From Russia we shall get Scriabine. Prominent composers have visited us heretofore—among them Rubinstein, Dvorák, Tchaikovsky, Weingartner, Humperdinck, Elgar, Johann and Richard Strauss; but never have so many been here in one year. Among the few whom we have not had an opportunity to welcome are Grieg, Massenet, Goldmark, and Sibelius.

The only new conductor we shall be called upon to judge is Dr. Muck, the leader, for a year, of the Boston Orchestra. Though one of the "Parsifal" pilots at Bayreuth for a number of years, Dr. Muck is understood to be rather conservative and unemotional. He will thus serve as a foil to the fiery Safonoff, who is to conduct the Philharmonic Society for three years. Mr. Safonoff, however, is by no means always ablaze, or suggestive of the impetuous Cossack; he knows when calmness is called for.

While the Philharmonic Society has not yet issued its prospectus, one gets the impression, from a glance at the general situation, that orchestral novelties will be few. This is not a reason for special regret, since few contemporary composers are distinguishing themselves. But, apart from Paderewski, whose works are not heard as often as they deserve to be, there are at least two European composers who have heretofore been neglected here—the Finnish Sibelius and the Austrian Bruckner. Maud Powell is enthusiastic over the violin concerto of Sibelius, which she is to introduce to us, and Walter Damrosch has on his list for the New York Symphony Orchestra a Bruckner scherzo; but these are only samples. Nor is there any indication that the leading orchestral organizations will devote considerable attention to American composers. In this respect English composers are much more fortunate.

Opera-goers, as a rule, are not clamoring for novelties. If they can hear "Faust," "Carmen," "Lohengrin," and a dozen other favorite works given by the best singers, they are satisfied. Yet it is in the opera houses that the principal novelties of the year are to be looked for. Competition has already had its effect at the Metropolitan Opera House. Richard Strauss's sensational "Salome" is promised as the chief attraction. There will also be six more novelties: Cilea's "Adriana Lecouvreur," Giordano's "Andrea Chenier" and "Fe-

dora," Puccini's "Manon Lescaut" and "Madama Butterfly," and a stage version of Berlioz's "La Damnation de Faust." The Manhattan Opera House is also staging this work. For the rest, the Manhattan relies on the familiar repertory, with a few revivals, like "Norma," "La Juive," "Mignon," and, above all, Auber's masterwork, known here as "Masaniello." In the lists of both managers there is an unusually large proportion of Italian operas. This is due less to a revival of interest than to the fact that the managers place more reliance on their chief tenors—Italians both—than on even their lists of famous prima donnas.

Whether New York can support two grand opera houses at the highest prices for four months, when other American cities find it difficult to support one for a week, is yet to be seen. In 1833-1834, the attempt to run two companies in this city, with a repertory chiefly Italian, resulted in disaster to both. But that was nearly a quarter of a century ago, and in this period New York has not only grown much bigger, but has become more and more the winter resort of wealthy families. Whatever the outcome, we shall have about 150 operatic performances, and perhaps twice that number of concerts. To be sure, we are still far behind the German cities, which have opera ten months a year, or London, which now boasts of having music from the first of January to the 31st of December. But if we do not have 800 concerts a year, like Berlin, or fifty in one week, as sometimes in London, we have all we need.

The death of Germany's most eminent teacher of singing, Julius Stockhausen, has revived the question as to his relations with Richard Wagner. It is certain that Wagner greatly admired Stockhausen, for he invited him, in 1864, to become the head of the vocal department of the projected Academy of Music in Munich. Stockhausen could not accept this offer, because a contract tied him to Hamburg. Some of the German newspapers have tried to convey the impression that Stockhausen did not admire Wagner, and thought that Wagner's music ruined the voice. Stockhausen himself defined his attitude, not long before his death, in these words:

Contrary to the prevalent opinion, I am firmly convinced that Wagner's music absolutely does not ruin the voice or shorten a singer's career. . . . If voices are ruined by Wagner singing, this is not the fault of Wagner, but of the singer who tries, before his voice is properly trained, to make it attempt the most difficult task that can be set—that of mastering the Wagnerian style of song (*Sprachgesang*).

Madame Nordica will give her first concert in this city in seven years at Carnegie Hall, Tuesday evening, January 8. On this occasion she will be assisted by Walter Damrosch and his orchestra.

Art.

American Silver. By R. T. H. Halsey. Boston: Published by the Museum of Fine Arts.

"American Silver," dealing with the work of seventeenth and eighteenth century silversmiths, is a most creditable catalogue of a loan exhibition held during

the past six months at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. The text, which includes an introduction with lives of the chief Boston makers, has been prepared by R. T. H. Halsey, and represents original research in a virtually untrodden field. The press-work is that of the Gillis Press, and is fastidiously elegant, most attractive perhaps in the catalogue proper, with its combination of rubricated numbers, Caslon type, and copies of the inscriptions on the pieces in a cursive character. Thirty-eight half-tone plates illustrate practically the entire collection. How rich is the material here studied in pioneer fashion may be realized from the fact that besides the ninety silversmiths represented by these 332 pieces, Mr. Halsey adds in an appendix the names of 329 other artisans of the period whose work is scarcely known.

To many this handsome catalogue will appeal most strongly as a bit of painstaking antiquarianism. But the silver itself is of considerable artistic merit. The Colonial craftsmen stood by their English models. Their part was not to invent striking designs, but to present accepted forms in admirable workmanship. They appealed to a sober but correct taste. These bowls, flacons, porringers, beakers, urns, teapots, etc., that stood on Colonial sideboards were in preëstablished harmony with the excellent Georgian dwellings they adorned, as with the scraps of Horace and Virgil that furnished the inside of the proprietors' heads. We do well to remind ourselves of a time when American taste, if uninventive, was at least unvulgarized. This silver, with its obvious limitations, is better worth the while of an art museum than any subsequently produced among us.

By providing a loan exhibition catalogue that is really a hand-book of the subject, the Boston Museum of Fine Arts has established a valuable precedent. How many similar exhibitions in the past have gone by with nothing but a flimsy hand-list to commemorate them! This authoritative catalogue gives promise of a time when experts will as readily lend their learning to such a cause as collectors have always lent their more tangible treasures.

The constantly renewed demand for inexpensive houses in the suburbs of the great cities and on the village street causes the publication of "Palliser's Up-to-Date House Plans" (J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co.). It presents on the front cover a half-tone print of a very effective house in old colonial style, the plan of which will be found inside. That house is grandiose enough, and is assumed to cost \$18,000 when built of "Philadelphia pressed brick with white marble trimmings," and if those trimmings include the tetrastyle portico and the pilasters which serve as responds to the four columns (for one must be technical in describing so stately a front), that would seem to be a low price for the work. Few of the houses presented are as elegant as that, although there is one which in cost exceeds it largely, and several more require about the same outlay. The material is generally undetermined, though stone is mentioned in one case and brick veneer in another. The others are all shown as presumably built of frame with clapboard sheathing, and the cost reaches \$9,000 in some cases, and again

falls as low as \$1,000. The little cuts of the exteriors are all from drawings made in perspective in the regulation way, according to the office rules, and they are not attractive; but to the person who is pleased by one of the plans given, such a view of the house shows at least what may be made of it. It would be a good idea to state on the cover or in another prominent place that any one of these plans is susceptible of an exterior in some respects different from the one offered.

In spite of the discouragement Dr. C. Waldstein received from the Italian Government two years ago, he has by no means given up his scheme of excavating Herculaneum. Recent numbers of the *Neue Freie Presse* and the *Corriere della Sera* give accounts of interviews with him, in which he expounds his great project with as much enthusiasm as before. He still believes in making it an international undertaking. Italy—or, indeed, any country—is too poor to sustain the enormous expenses required for the purpose single-handed. Accordingly, Dr. Waldstein proposes that there shall be formed committees composed of eminent men for the purpose of raising subscriptions. These committees are to be connected with an international committee sitting in Rome, of which the head shall be the King of Italy. To this committee each nation shall send two representatives, but Italy shall have four—the minister of public instruction, the sindaco of Naples, and two others. The excavations shall be carried on by the most capable and experienced archæologists of the various nations, under the direction of Italy. All objects found shall remain in Italy. Whatever our opinions on the feasibility of this particular scheme, there is no doubt that the excavation of this place, if ever it comes to pass, will be a matter of great public interest. Herculaneum, buried during the famous outbreak of Vesuvius in 79 A. D., was a richer and more artistic city than Pompeii, its fellow victim. While the latter was a mere provincial town, Herculaneum was a favorite summer residence of fashionable Romans. Moreover, the catastrophe happened before the inhabitants could take refuge in great numbers, as was the case in Pompeii, and they could not, therefore, in this case, return and carry away their most precious possessions. The great objection hitherto raised against the excavations, that Herculaneum is covered with hard lava, is, according to Dr. Waldstein, no longer valid. The strata of lava are due to the eruptions of the last centuries; the city itself was covered with burning mud, a substance comparatively easy to remove.

Excavations on the site of ancient Numantia are to be continued. After last year's successful campaign the Spanish minister of public instruction declares that he will do his utmost to further the work, and if difficulties should arise from exaggerated demands of the present owners of the property, the land will be expropriated. A museum for future finds is to be erected. It will be remembered that, underneath the remains of the Roman city of Numantia, was found the Iberian city which the Roman General Scipio burned in 133 B. C. Still lower were discovered remains of an early pre-

historic settlement, which in some ways resembles the second city of Troy. The pottery is at first quite rude, but later is decorated with geometrical designs. It would seem that during the eighth century B. C. this settlement was in active communication with the eastern part of the Mediterranean. Further excavations should produce interesting results.

The Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts and the T Square Club of Philadelphia announce a joint exhibition to be held in the galleries of the academy from the 1st to the 30th of December. The exhibition will cover the field of architecture in its broadest sense, and will include all the arts to which it is related. As in the twelve previous annual T Square Club exhibitions, the department of architectural design will predominate. The department of mural painting will be conducted with the cooperation of the National Society of Mural Painters.

An exhibition of paintings by Norwegian and Scandinavian artists will be held in Boston by the Copley Society some time during the winter.

An interesting exhibition of Russian art has been opened in Paris, in some dozen halls annexed to the Salon d'Automne. Among the most remarkable works are five portraits by Dmitri Levitsky; a superb bust of the Emperor Paul the First, by Theodore Stchedrine; a bust of Catherine the Second, by Rokotow; several busts by Schoubine, and portraits by Borovikovsky.

Henri Bouchot, recently deceased, in his fifty-seventh year, was an extraordinary combination of bibliophile and art connoisseur such as only France produces. A prolific writer on many topics, he arranged and enumerated the Exposition of French Primitives, 1904, in a monumental work that won him general recognition. He was director of the Print Department of the Bibliothèque Nationale and a member of the Academy of Fine Arts. His latest and perhaps most congenial work was the Exposition of Eighteenth Century French Art at the Bibliothèque. His contributions to the history of early French painting, to the history of engraving, and the typographical art are too numerous to mention here.

Science.

REMARKABLE HUMAN BONES IN A NEBRASKA MOUND.

LINCOLN, Neb., October 26.

In a mound near Omaha, Neb., have been exhumed some human remains which seem likely to attract more than passing attention. The finder, R. F. Gilder, has been interested in the archaeology of the Missouri valley and the region beyond, and has previously unearthed at various points numerous objects of interest and value. In this case the remains were found in a mound located on a conspicuous hill crest, and are unusually well preserved. Mr. Gilder reports that in a cleared area some thirty-five feet in diameter, the skeletons had been arranged so that two were in a sitting posture and the others recumbent with heads to the centre and bodies radiating therefrom. From the positions of the

bones it appeared that the flesh had been stripped off before the skeletons were placed on the area, although no marks of a tool have yet been found on the bones. Once placed, these bones were covered over with clay to a depth of eighteen to twenty-four inches, and a fire was built upon the top. The layer of ashes was later covered by earth which had been scraped up with shells, and the fragments of the shells are still demonstrable in the earth mass. The latter now measures some four feet in thickness. It is, of course, apparent that the half-baked clay would serve as an admirable protection from the destructive elements, especially in view of the naturally perfect drainage of this location. A small triangular flint knife and a number of fine pink quartzite spalls are the only other objects found in the area excavated.

None of the skeletons is complete, and many of the bones are imperfect, yet some peculiar features are apparent on first examination. Most striking of all is undoubtedly the lateral aspect of the cranium. The supra-orbital ridges are massive and prominent, while the frontal bone slopes almost directly backward in a way which forcibly recalls the most primitive human crania yet discovered. The lower jaw is abnormally developed, its muscle attachments are prominent, and the teeth, even the usually unused third molar, are worn down to the gum. The bones are heavy, and their muscle attachments strongly developed, while both femur and ulna display a marked and peculiar curvature forward. In fact almost every part of the skeleton departs from the type of the human skeleton to-day in some particular, and in general these differences indicate a more primitive type. The exact bearing of these peculiarities will be clearer after the completion of the detailed study of the bones already begun by Profs. Erwin H. Barbour and Henry B. Ward of the University of Nebraska, to whom the specimens have been entrusted for exact measurement and comparison with recorded data.

Of the importance of this discovery there can be no doubt, even though its significance is not clear at this moment. The remains are not readily referable to any known aboriginal race of this continent, but before the completion of exact comparative studies all speculation as to the age of the remains, the character and habits of the people they represent, or their relation to later known tribes, appears somewhat premature. This find, together with others important but less widely known, and with some yet unpublished discoveries regarding the remains of prehistoric man in Iowa, Nebraska, and westward, indicate clearly that the thorough examination of this region will add much to our knowledge of early races on this continent.

The Principles of Botany. By Joseph Y. Bergen and Bradley M. Davis. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.50.

There are now so many text-books of botany that nearly all of the available titles have been appropriated, and therefore some of the older titles are being used over again. It is now about sixty years since Dr. Lankester published his excellent trans-

lation of Schleiden's "Principles of Botany," a work which with its polemic had much to do with the stimulation of research at the beginning of one of the most important epochs in the science. It was the point of time when the subject of plant-fertilization was being assiduously studied with imperfect lenses and with more imperfect methods. Protoplasm, the formless creator of form, was just revealing itself, and, under the rude chemistry of that day, appeared to be marvellously simple in its structure. It is extremely interesting to compare such a work as Schleiden's in the forties, with this work by Bergen and Davis, standing as a sane exposition of the views held at the first decade of our new century. We have space for only a few points of contrast. At the outset, it is seen that a good deal of the older foundation-work still stands unmoved by recent investigation, but upon this secure foundation nearly all of the superstructure has been reconstructed. Old partitions, such as that between the flowerless and the flowering plants, have been broken through or taken down, and the whole edifice has been rebuilt symmetrically throughout.

The earlier work did not have the advantage of being prepared in the strong light which theories of evolution have cast over the whole field of affinities; the dawn was then just beginning. Consequently we find, as we should expect to find, totally new views expressed in the newer book, as to relationships between plants, and we may further say, between plants and their environment. Now these subjects are difficult of presentation in a text-book. Even advanced students find some of the matters hard to understand. The evidence of relationship between the lower and some of the higher plants is based for the most part upon examination with the microscope, and in some instances the work of investigation is extremely technical. It is simply impossible to have the average student obtain the evidence of some of these relationships at first hand; he is obliged to take much of it on trust. Here, then, is a perplexing question in pedagogics. The authors are well fitted to meet it, and in our opinion they have met it well. Mr. Bergen is a teacher with large experience, who possesses a certain sympathy with the pupil which goes a long way towards bridging over serious difficulties. Professor Davis is an investigator who has achieved distinction in many portions of the field of morphology, and he has presented his suggestions and statements clearly. The two have been in close touch throughout the preparation of the book, and team-work is always best.

The Harvard Observatory is mounting a sixty-inch reflector which will materially increase the efficiency of the astronomical equipment. The reflector, which is one of the three largest in existence, will be used to make observations on faint stars and nebulae.

The Royal Scottish Museum at Edinburgh has been given the collection of shells of British mollusca, about 5,600 specimens, belonging to the late Richard Rinmer.

The Oxford University Press is publishing Dr. Koenigsberger's "Life of Hermann von Helmholtz," translated by Francis A. Welby. Lord Kelvin furnishes a Preface,

in which he points out Helmholtz's unique position as a master and leader in mathematics, and in biology and physics.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.


Ahendschein, Albert. The Secret of the Old Masters. Appletons. \$1 net.
 Addison, Joseph. Selections from the Works of. Edited by Edward B. Reed. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
 Ade, George. In Pastures New. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Alston, Leonard. Stole and Christian in the Second Century. Longmans.
 Archer-Shepherd, E. H. Burning Questions in the Light of To-day. London: Rivingtons. 2s. 6d. net.
 Austin, Mary. The Flock. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2 net.
 Baker, George Barr, and others. Mother's Geese. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1 net.
 Bates, Arlo. Talks on Teaching Literature. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.30 net.
 Battersby, H. P. Prevost. The Evening Hour. Appleton. \$1.50.
 Beckwith, Clarence Augustine. Realities of Christian Theology. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2.
 Beebe, C. William. The Bird. Henry Holt & Co. \$3.50 net.
 Bell, Lillian. Why Men Remain Bachelors, and Other Luxuries. John Lane Co.
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 Bibliography of the History of the United States Navy. Compiled by Charles T. Harbock. Privately printed.
 Bond, R. Warwick. Montalzae. Henry Frowde.
 Booth, Maud Ballington. Twilight Fairy Tales. Putnams. \$1.25 net.
 Böttger, W. Amerikanisches Hochschulwesen. Leipzig.
 Bourne, Edward Gaylord. Columbus, Ramon Pane and the Beginning of American Anthropology. Worcester, Mass.
 Brandes, Georg. Main Currents in the Nineteenth Century Literature. 6 vols. Macmillan Co.
 Brnton, Davis. Trusia. Philadelphia: Geo. W. Jacobs & Co.
 Brontë, Charlotte. The Professor. Henry Frowde.
 Burgess, Gelett. Are You a Bromide? B. W. Huebsch. 50 cents.
 Burke, Edmund. Vol. II. Henry Frowde.
 Burnett, Frances Hodgson. Queen Silver-Bell.—Racketty-Packetty House. Century Co. 60 cents each.
 Burnham, Clara Louise. The Opened Shutters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
 Cabot, Ellen Lyman. Everyday Ethics. Henry Holt & Co.
 Carey, Rosa Nouchette. No Friend Like a Sister. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
 Carpenter, Edward Childs. Captain Courtesy. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
 Carpenter, George R. Rhetoric and English Composition. Macmillan Co. \$1.10.
 Castleman, Virginia Carter. Roger of Fairfield. Neale Publishing Co.
 Chapman, J. Wilbur. S. H. Hadley of Water Street. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.25 net.
 Charles, Frances. Partner of Blossom Range. Boston: Little Brown & Co. \$1.50.
 Colton, Arthur. The Cruise of the Violetta. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50.
 Conspectus of American Biography. Compiled by George Derby. James T. White & Co. \$10.
 Conway, Moncure Daniel. My Pilgrimage to the Wise Men of the East. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3.
 Cook, Albert S. The Higher Study of English. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1 net.
 Coolidge, Susan. Last Verses. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
 Correspondence of William Pitt. Edited by Gertrude Selwyn Kimball. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. \$6 net.
 Craddock, Charles Eghert. The Amulet. Macmillan Co. \$1.50.
 Crowley, Mary Catherine. In Treaty with Honor. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
 Daly, T. A. Canzoni. Philadelphia: Catholic Standard and Times Publishing Co. \$1.
 Dargan, Olive T'ford. Lords and Lovers and Other Dramas. Scribners.
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 Eichendorf, Joseph F. von. The Happy-Go-Lucky. Translated by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
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 Emerson's Friendship and Character. Century Co. \$1.
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 Fitch, M. H. The Physical Basis of Mind and Morals. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. \$1.
 Fitzgerald, Percy. Sir Henry Irving. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
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 Fullerton, G. S. Introduction to Philosophy. Macmillan Co. \$1.60.
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 Huebsch, Daniel A. Pathway to the Fields of Art. Published by the Author. 25 cents net.
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 Nelson's Encyclopædia. Edited by F. M. Colby and G. Sandeman. Vol. VII. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
 Nibelungenlied, The. Translated by John Storer Cobb. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
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 Porter, Thomas K. City Songs and Country Carols. Boston: The Gorham Press.
 Pratt, Agnes Louise. Aunt Sarah. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
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 Sincère, C. Un Royaliste Français. Paris.
 Singleton, Esther. Historic Buildings of America. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.60 net.
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 Smith, G. Le Blanc. Haddon. London: Elliot Stock.
 Starling, Ernest H. Recent Advances in the Physiology of Digestion. Chicago: W. T. Keener & Co. \$2.
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 Taylor, Mary Imlay. The Impersonator. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
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 Walker, Margaret Coulson. Lady Hollyhock and Her Friends. The Baker & Taylor Co.
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 Weyman, Stanley J. Chippinge Borough. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Whitcomb, Ida. Practice. Young People's Story of Art. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$2.
 White, Fred M. The Slave of Silence. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
 Whitney, Anne. Poems. Privately printed. The Merrymount Press. \$1.50.
 Whitney, J. Parker. Reminiscences of a Sportsman. Forest and Stream Publishing Co.
 Williams, Egerton R., jr. Ridolfo: The Coming of the Dawn. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.50.
 Williams, Sarah Stone. The Man from London Town. Neale Publishing Co. \$1.50.
 Williamson, C. N. and A. M. Rosemary in Search of a Father. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Wilson, Calvin Dill. Canterbury Tales in Simple Language.—The Faery Queen in Simple Language. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 8, 1906.

The Week.

The election of Charles E. Hughes as Governor of New York by a majority of merely 55,000 cannot afford Republicans much ground for elation. Hearst was personally detested by tens of thousands of respectable Democrats who, like Mayor McClellan, scratched the ticket so that Hearst ran far behind his colleagues. He had secured his nomination by pandering to the lowest element in the Democratic party, and by a shameless bargain with Charles F. Murphy, whom he had denounced as a criminal. But he had not captured all the machine politicians; for he was opposed by McCarren in Brooklyn and by Croker's old guard in Manhattan. On the other hand, Charles E. Hughes had an impeccable record in character and attainments. His private and professional life had been irreproachable; he had performed distinguished public service in the legislative investigation of the gas monopoly and the insurance companies. He was brought forward as the candidate, not of the Republican bosses, but of the very best men, like Herbert Parsons, who wished to rehabilitate the party. Business conditions seemed favorable to Republican success. Wages were high, the demand for labor keen. The country was floating on a high tide of prosperity, for which the Republicans have loudly claimed credit. Under such circumstances and on the face of this contrast between a reckless demagogue and a man of ability and conscience, detached observers might suppose that Hearst would suffer an overwhelming defeat; that he would, as some sanguine opponents predicted, be buried under a landslide of 200,000 votes.

What, then, is the meaning of this comparatively narrow escape from Hearst? It means but one thing: the people of New York are tired of oppression and dishonesty in the management of our huge corporations, and tired of the corrupt alliance between corporations and machine politicians. This was the issue which Hearst has been urging for years. This is the issue on which he has secured such a formidable following. Indeed, the result proves that had not Hughes himself won such repute as a scourge of thieving insurance officials, his candidacy would have been hopeless. Had the nerveless Higgins been renominated, he would have hardly been in the race at all; but thousands of conservative men, who are eager for the purification of our public life, turned to Hughes as the man who is more like-

ly than Hearst to help us in this time of need. For his agitation against corporation abuses Hearst could have had abundant material without resorting to exaggeration and misstatement. The cases of the insurance companies, of the Standard Oil Company and its rebates, as exposed by Government investigators, of the rebates to the Sugar Trust, for which the New York Central has been convicted, the stock-jobbing and stock-watering by public utility corporations in New York, Brooklyn, and other cities of this State, the extortions of the anthracite monopoly and the Ice Trust, and the control of political machines by these combinations of capital—all these modern instances have strengthened the popular conviction that plain people are not being dealt with fairly. Hearst promised redress; and to Hearst people turned, not because he was an ideal candidate, but because he seemed to be the weapon at hand.

The warning is unmistakable. If Mr. Hughes fails to do his utmost to check abuses and redress grievances, if in this effort he is thwarted by the hirelings of the machine, Hearst or one of his kind will surely have his innings. The corporations have rights which must be respected as scrupulously as those of the individual; but our common carriers cannot be allowed to use their immensely valuable franchises from the public as instruments of discrimination; our traction and lighting companies are not licensed to loot our cities; our anti-monopoly laws must not be violated with impunity. Such men as John D. Rockefeller and Henry H. Rogers of the Standard Oil; Thomas F. Ryan and Anthony N. Brady, the manipulators of traction stocks; President Charles A. Peabody of the Mutual Life and other life insurance officials who are trying to prevent a free vote by policyholders; such buccaneers in high finance as E. H. Harriman, have heretofore shown little appreciation of popular sentiment. They have acted as if no power on earth had right or might to check the greed of their corporations. To them also the vote of Tuesday should carry its lesson. The faith of thousands in Hearst as a saviour has its pathetic side. In casting their ballots for him they have blindly cried for justice. They will not be denied.

No commentator of Professor Burgess's Berlin remarks on the Monroe Doctrine has struck the real infelicity involved—namely, that these observations meant one thing to Dr. Burgess and quite another to his German hearers and readers. To him the issue was

academic—a mere weighing of a case in international morals and diplomatic propriety; to Germany generally, it is to be feared, it seemed to indicate a revolutionary change in American sentiment and policy. For the view that morally the Monroe Doctrine is obsolete, much may be said. The conditions that gave it dignity have ceased to exist. We no longer fear that any monarchy will snuff out republican government in the Western Hemisphere. Moreover, our former aloofness from European and Asiatic politics, which gave force to the demand that Europe should equally abstain from interfering in the Americas, has been utterly abandoned. When this nation is in world politics from Algeciras to Peking, it is logically absurd to deny the commercial and quasi-colonial interests of Italy and Germany in South America. But logic has unhappily rather little to do with the matter. As a sentiment, devotion to the Monroe Doctrine has become stronger as its moral basis has become more flimsy. For many years to come resentment of European interference in this hemisphere will move our Presidents, and, at a pinch, our armies and navies. In short, the "Doctrine" has passed from the rational to the instinctive stage, and is, if anything, more formidable than before. That such opinions as Professor Purgess's will ultimately prevail, we make no doubt; meanwhile, it is premature to give the impression to any European Power, most of all to Germany, that, because certain of our diplomatic syllogisms have been proved fallacious by events, our traditional conclusions are held less passionately than before.

Since the report of the Eleventh Census upon "Wealth, Debt, and Taxation," in 1892, no comprehensive statistics of Federal, State, and local finance have been published in the United States. We had begun to despair of ever seeing the finance statistics of the Twelfth Census. Recently, however, the first advance sheets have come to hand. The following table of the net indebtedness (*i. e.*, total indebtedness less sinking funds) presents the essential data, stated in millions of dollars:

	1870.	1890.	1890.	1902.
Federal debt	2,331	1,919	890	925
State debt	353	275	212	234
County debt	187	124	145	196
Municipal and other local debt	328	724	781	1,434
Total	3,199	3,042	2,028	2,789
Per capita debt ..	\$82.99	\$60.66	\$32.39	\$35.49

Since 1870 the aggregate net indebtedness has decreased; since 1890 it has increased. Meanwhile, the per capita debt has fallen very materially, but since

1890 has manifested a slight upward tendency. If we separate Federal and State from county and municipal indebtedness, the table will stand as follows:

	1870.	1880.	1890.	1902.
Federal and State debt	2,684	2,194	1,102	1,159
County and municipal debt	515	848	926	1,630
Total	3,199	3,042	2,028	2,789

It is clear that two opposing forces have been at work. Both Federal and State debts were swollen to abnormal proportions in 1870 on account of the civil war; and the subsequent decrease, amounting by 1902 to \$1,525,000,000, was but natural—at least, according to American theory and practice. Upon the other hand, local indebtedness has risen since 1870 by not less than \$1,115,000,000, and, what is more, the rate of increase was never so rapid as at the present time. We find also that, of the aggregate local debts of \$1,630,000,000, not less than 48 per cent. belong to New York, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, which contain but 24 per cent. of the population. In the country at large, the heaviest local debts are in the industrial States having large centres of population. Earlier census reports upon "Wealth, Debt, and Taxation" contained instructive tables showing the purposes for which all debts were contracted. The data thus far published do not give such information for 1902; but we may hope that, since a beginning has at last been made, the rest of the results may be speedily forthcoming.

Gov. Magoon, by dismissing Cuban officials wholesale, has laid his hand seriously to the reform most needed, but he is also in danger of exciting unhappy animosities. The Latin races are a unit in regarding officeholding as the most desirable career, and the lack of a post as something like an ignominy. At many points, Secretary Taft's military emissaries found the chief difficulty of the situation to be that the insurgents expected to take up office as fast as they laid down their antiquated firearms. In fact, the trouble that has to be dealt with in Cuba is the innate propensity of the outs to shoot their way in. It may be said that such sentiments do little credit to our wards; their sensibilities have to be considered all the same. We do not doubt that Gov. Magoon's clean sweep is justified on all practical grounds. We hope, however, that his zeal will be tempered by the recollection that life in the bush is a delightful recreation in Cuba, while the Cuban insurgent is a much more formidable antagonist than his colleague, with whom Mr. Magoon is more familiar, the revolutionist of the Isthmus.

A steady increase in the number of college men entering politics in New York city is evident from the "Voters' Directory" published by the *Evening Post* a few days before election. This Directory contains the names and a brief characterization of all the candidates to be balloted for in Greater New York. This autumn 123, or more than a third of the whole number, were trained either in college or law school. The significance of these figures appears from a comparison with figures for four years. The following table shows both the totals and the distribution of candidates among the several colleges:

	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Yale	4	5	5	6
Harvard	3	3	..	7
Princeton	6	5	5	5
Cornell	1	5	3	4
New York University	4	7	9	5
City College	11	15	14	17
Columbia	10	8	11	6
Amherst	2	3	4
Hamilton	1	..	2	2
Williams	1	1	..	3
Other colleges	10	15	20	31
Law School only	29	21	30	33
	80	87	102	123

The preponderance of men from the free College of the City of New York is, of course, to be expected. The interest of college men in politics is a gratifying sign: it means among our office-holders greater intelligence. We believe it also means higher character. So far as our own observation goes, however, the defect of our office-holding class to-day is moral, not mental; the members of the New York Legislature, for example, suffer less from ignorance than from instability. They are clever enough, but they are afraid to resist the machine politician; they compromise too easily with conscience.

Andover Theological Seminary's low estate is again brought to public notice by the figures of this year's enrolment. There are, it seems, but eleven students, all told—actually fewer than the professors. This is a sorrowful pass for the ancient seminary, once regarded as head of all the theological schools of the country. The alumni and trustees have made great efforts to keep the institution going, but discussion will now be renewed, we presume, of the project to settle, like the Episcopal Theological School, under the wing of Harvard at Cambridge. It is commonly supposed that the decayed prestige of Andover is due to doctrinal reasons. The "Andover controversy" is ordinarily referred to as the cause of the marked falling off in the number of students. That acrimonious theological struggle, no doubt, had something to do with the seminary's decline, but it probably did little more than accelerate the working of a larger cause. The "drift of the cities" has strongly affected theological education. To be directly in touch with

organized Christianity and charity, on a large scale, has become the great desire of theological students. They "pine for their slums," as Professor Park of Andover once sarcastically put it. At any rate, New Haven and Chicago and Hartford have grown at the expense of Andover. Union Seminary in this city had its own theological hatreds, and was at one time almost taboo by the Presbyterian Church; but the pull of the city brought it students as before. The old conception of a theological seminary as a quiet place where a man could do athletic reading and needle's-point thinking, is giving way. These are the days when the theologian, too, has to "hustle" and "do things."

Christian Science and mental healing were the topics to which Dr. Pierre Janet of Paris, chiefly devoted himself in a recent lecture at the Lowell Institute on "Psychotherapeutics." In some cases he admitted that healers had accomplished good results; but he complained of the absence of precise data in the reports of "cures." A recovery of 80, 90, and even of 98 per cent. had been claimed, but no diagnosis of the cases was made, and the statistics were scientifically inconclusive. This neglect of diagnosis and contempt for the medical profession has been characteristic of all healers since P. Quimby's labors in 1840. Cure by faith resembles the old mediæval "theriac," a mixture of drugs, some one of which might prove to be a good shot, and hit the bull's-eye. Dr. Janet thinks that the miracles of Christian Science are on a higher plane than those of Lourdes, but he puts hypnotism above the method of either. Every educated Frenchman is surprised that faith-healing should be with us a religious process. But in demanding of the Christian Science advocates a diagnosis of the cases cured, and authoritative statistics, Dr. Janet is surely addressing deaf ears.

The virtual abolition of the Mathematical Tripos at Cambridge University was briefly announced in the dispatches a few days ago. The reasons for this step now appear more fully in the English papers. In a letter published on October 22, eleven of the Cambridge professors and lecturers in mathematics, including Robert S. Ball, G. H. Darwin, A. R. Forsyth, and J. J. Thomson, set forth their arguments in support of the change, then pending. They felt that the old system involved "too great a sacrifice of the educational interests of many students, the character of whose work during their course at Cambridge is dominated by the requirements of the final examination." Men spend "far too much time in elaborating the details of the general mathematical course." One of the chief ob-

jects of the new scheme is "to provide for the needs of the important class of men who ought to spend part, but not the whole, of their time at Cambridge in studying mathematics." The problem at Cambridge is in one point the reverse of that which American universities, with the elective system, are forced to consider. Here the difficulty is to keep too many students—especially those who have no definite career in view—from dissipating their efforts over too wide a field. The attempt to counteract this tendency toward diffusion is met in some institutions by the offering of "honors" and other prizes for excellence in one line. In no American university, however, have we an honor which carries the distinction accorded to the leader of the Mathematical Tripos at Cambridge, the senior wrangler, and consequently there is not such a general temptation to concentration along one line. Yet our prizes, such as they are, together with a desire to hasten preparation for professional work, indubitably encourage the ambitious in the tendency deplored at Cambridge—immature and excessive specialization.

Premier Clemenceau has received the extraordinary vote of confidence of 395 to 96. The programme that elicited so unprecedented an expression may be briefly characterized as radical. The Premier engages to enforce the Separation Act, though the method is not specified; to vote old-age pensions, a progressive income tax, and increased privileges to labor unions. "Democratic" was the word chosen to describe the Government projects. In a general way, the Clemenceau prospectus is merely a continuation of the policy of several Ministries past. Evidently, the keeping of these promises depends mainly on money in hand, and the large deficit in the current budget pretty well reduces the more costly plans to pious wishes. As regards European policy, also, M. Clemenceau will apparently continue in the footsteps of Rouvier and Bourgeois, confirming the new friendships with Italy and England, while abiding by the Dual Alliance. We have already pointed out that the actual sincerity of that compact was in doubt from the very beginning. Its value to-day is largely factitious. But it seems as if, beside the more genuine understandings which are gradually forming, there must be maintained a solemn equilibrium of paper alliances—if only to please an international Mrs. Grundy who still dominates the chancelleries. M. Clemenceau's tenure, finally, is by no means as comfortable as his great majority indicates. He has ahead the thorny problem of applying the Separation Act and of financing his humanitarian projects. His course is perilous and will require a skilful pilot.

A possible solution of the deadlock between the French Government and the Church over the Separation Law is suggested in the *Revue Politique*, by M. Esmein, an eminent authority on public law. M. Esmein finds the crux of the difficulty in the failure of the law to make specific mention of the Catholic Church. But if it is impossible for the bishops to accept the associations of public worship prescribed in the law, why may not the laity proceed with the formation of such associations, taking care to insert in their by-laws the fullest guarantees that the bishops may demand? If the bishops will not accept religious associations organized under an obnoxious law, it is within their power to bring about the formation of associations *before* the law comes into effect. Up to that date (December 11) they would retain power over the Church property and be the only judges whether any association formed is in conformity with the general organization of the Church. Such an association can make itself, in fact, the instrument of the bishop's will. If the faithful are wise and anticipate the enforcement of the law, they have nothing to fear. "The orthodox association will be in possession and *beati possidentes*."

Which is worse—to be blind or to be deaf and dumb? Kant discussed that question in his "Anthropologie," and concluded that the blind were less to be pitied than the deaf-mutes, whom he found, as a rule, more morose. The eminent Berlin oculist, Dr. Ludwig Cohn, considers the same problem in the *Berlin Tageblatt*, apropos of the one-hundredth anniversary of the opening of the first asylum for the blind in Germany. All the blind persons whom he has questioned hold their affliction to be more endurable than that of the deaf-mutes. Yet at social gatherings, and in the theatre, not to speak of the opera, the eye makes amends for the lack of hearing to a much greater degree than the ear does for the absence of sight. But "if we ask a deaf-mute if he would change places with a blind person, he always answers, No." The latest published figures, for 1900, show that there were at that time in the German Empire 48,750 deaf-mutes, as against 34,334 blind. Much more has been done for the deaf-mutes than for the blind in enabling them to earn their own living; and Dr. Cohn regards it as one of the main problems of the future to devise means of making the blind self-supporting. To that problem humane people in this country have applied themselves with much success.

If certain practices now common among small tradesmen and domestic

servants continue much longer, there will be little need of agitating for a graduated income tax, or for a limitation of great fortunes. The wealth of the unhappy employers will be distributed in commissions. In his famous advice to servants, Dean Swift observes:

Take all tradesmen's parts against your master, and when sent to buy anything, never offer to cheapen it, but generously pay the full demand. This is highly to your master's honor, and may be some shillings in your pocket; and you are to consider, if your master has paid too much, he can better afford the loss than the poor tradesman.

The custom of giving and taking commissions on all articles bought for household use has grown until many cooks receive more from the purveyors than they do from their employers. Some marketmen will pay as much as 10 per cent. to a cook to keep the patronage of a large family. No one maintains that competent domestic servants are greatly overpaid. Often they render services which no wages could secure. But if a large percentage on the cost of provisions is to go into the servant's pocket, then employers will no doubt seek some way of self-protection. The commission system, which is bad enough in the kitchen, is even worse in the stable. No doubt the blacksmiths and harness dealers would themselves welcome a remedy for the present state of things, when the employer's purchasing power is too often regulated by the coachman's greed.

A struggle of twenty-five years in the Colonial Parliament of the Bermudas has ended in the appropriation of £70,000 for the deepening of the channel of St. George's Harbor. This is a landlocked body of water within a mile of the open sea. By this project the Bermudians hope to create such harbor facilities as will make their islands a great coaling station for steamships plying the North Atlantic. As Bermuda lies in the trade routes from the Continent to the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, her position as a port of call is singularly advantageous. At present, she cannot boast of one safe or convenient anchorage for coaling. The advocates of the St. George's channel scheme met with strong local opposition. Even the Imperial authorities frowned on the project. But after the Spanish-American war the Home Government withdrew all objection. To-day, public opinion in Bermuda is unanimously in favor of the improvement. The change of feeling is largely due to financial depression. As the winter tourist trade will not make up to the colony for its other losses, the Bermudians have concluded to make a bid for the Atlantic coaling trade.

PEARY'S ARCTIC WORK.

In the short dispatch of Saturday announcing the return of Commander Peary, we have the bare record of what must for many years be regarded as one of the most remarkable pieces of exploration ever accomplished. Whether able to justify itself in the light of a contribution to science or not, whether it is to act as a stimulus or a deterrent to further exploration in the same field, the journey itself proves a courage and an ability on the part of individual man to battle with the forces of nature, which are but rarely found illumining even the brightest pages in the annals of discovery. Indeed, Mr. Peary, in his numerous Arctic ventures, entirely apart from the importance or significance of his discoveries, has set a standard for exploration which few will have the daring to emulate, and still fewer the physical capacity to carry through. Starting systematically on his great work in 1891, he has since that time devoted all his energies to the accomplishment of the one end in view—the clearing up of the mysteries of the Far North. Ten years and more—virtually all of the period between 1891 and 1906 that was not taken up in preparations for his several expeditions—have been passed in the Arctic desert of ice and snow.

The chief results of Mr. Peary's explorations are to be found in the determination of the insularity of Greenland (1892); the fixation of the Arctic boundaries of what is seemingly the most northerly land-mass of our planet (Cape Morris Jesup, latitude 83° 39' north) (1900); and the tracing (1906) east and westward of the Arctic shore-line through 80° of longitude; that is, from the northeastern extremity of Greenland to nearly 20° of longitude beyond the furthest point that, in Grant Land, was reached in 1876 by Aldrich. Aldrich, it will be remembered, was one of the lieutenants of the British national expedition under command of Capt. (Sir) George Nares. To this major work of Mr. Peary must be added the close charting of the inner waters of a large section of Northwestern Greenland, and the most complete study that has ever been made of that small band of true Greenlanders, hardly 250 to 300 in number, who inhabit the region lying northward of Melville Bay, and who appear in the early explorations of Sir John Ross under the name of Arctic Highlanders. Many of the more strictly scientific details of the explorations have not been elaborated, or at least have not yet been published. Our knowledge of the great ice-cap of Greenland—the physical conditions prevailing over it and its relation to the uncovered or ice-free land that lies northward of it—which was initiated by the late Baron Nordenskjöld in 1883, and furthered by the "first crossing" of Nansen,

we owe in the main to Mr. Peary. We likewise owe to him the presentation of a number of interesting problems in the domain of zoögeography. Among the latter is the occurrence in the land beyond the ice-cap of Greenland of the musk-ox. The presence of this animal, which the explorers have used as food, has alone on two occasions made it possible for Mr. Peary to escape starvation.

The record of the "farthest north" that is now made (87° 6') surpasses by thirty-eight statute miles the earlier brilliant achievement, northward of Franz Josef Land, of Capt. Cagni, the long arm of the "Stella Polare" expedition of the singularly successful Duke of the Abruzzi. It also eclipses by 196 statute miles Mr. Peary's own best previous record of 84° 17', northward of Cape Hecla, on Grant Land, in 1902. In the final days of the heroic struggle of Captain (now Admiral) Markham, one of the lieutenants of the British expedition of 1876, the advance over the hummocky pack-ice in the same field which was traversed this year, was made at the rate of not more than one-quarter or half of a mile a day. This distance is considerably less than the retrograde movement of the ice that carried the explorers southward. This experience affords an insight into the labor which has permitted Mr. Peary to pass Markham's furthest point by 250 statute miles. Two hundred miles still intervene between the furthest of this year and the Pole, while the area of the regions in the extreme north that remain unknown, or at best vaguely known, is still reckoned in millions of square miles.

One of the most important lessons to be drawn from the various Peary expeditions—one, unfortunately, that has not yet been able to break through the barrier of accepted notions—is the value of a critical study of clothing and food. In a knowledge of these all-important adjuncts to travel, Mr. Peary is *facile princeps*. The almost complete absence of every form of illness from the Peary camps through so many years of severe trial and exposure, the absolute elimination of that plague of Polar exploration, scurvy, is a triumph which points to success in future ventures of this kind. And yet one reads with regret that the otherwise brilliant achievements of the British National Antarctic Expedition of 1902-1904 were shorn of probably their best results through the breaking out of scurvy and the death of the dogs, as a consequence of improper food. And, seemingly, it was chiefly a matter of clothing which prevented Nansen from making a higher northing at the time that he abandoned the Fram to its famous drift. Troubles of this class never beset the Peary expeditions. Nature's elements are still the force that

baffles the best efforts put forth to conquer them.

THE CASE OF MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

It is not surprising that the League of American Municipalities declined to adopt a general resolution favoring municipal ownership. Its adoption would at best be premature. There is no present agreement among economists either for or against the further extension of the functions of American municipalities. There was a period when municipal enterprises were advocated and, in some cases, taken up in this country on more or less vague reports of similar experiments in Great Britain and elsewhere. This time has passed, and has been followed by one of inquiry, the results of which have not yet been fully ascertained. The evidence is not yet all in; obviously, the time has not arrived finally to decide the case.

The facts, to date, are that municipal functions both in Europe and America have greatly expanded within the last few years. Great Britain leads the way, with Germany close upon her heels, and America following more slowly. Great Britain numbers among the enterprises undertaken by her cities, not only the familiar water works, gas and electric lighting plants, and tramways, but also municipal markets, baths, dwelling houses, telephones, theatres, warehouses, hotels, lodging-houses, abattoirs, golf links, savings banks, crematories and cemeteries, oyster fisheries, rabbit warrens, sheep farms, hop farms, coke and tar factories, and brick yards. Germany has gone extensively into municipal lighting and street-car service. American cities have thus far generally confined themselves to municipal water works, gas works, and electric lighting plants. No American city has yet undertaken to operate street cars, though there are several instances, as in New York and Boston, where the city owns the right of way and leases to an operating company which supplies the equipment.

Have the results thus far been favorable or unfavorable? Here the conflict begins. Dr. E. W. Bemis and Professor Howe have one opinion; Prof. L. S. Rowe and Prof. Hugo R. Meyer hold another. The report of the Bureau of Labor, based on three separate investigations of the results of municipal trading in Great Britain, admits a principal charge against the system—that it increases municipal debt and raises the tax rate—but, on the whole, is mildly favorable. The most complete presentation by a single economist, "Municipal Ownership in Great Britain," by Professor Meyer, is strongly against the substitution of municipal management for private enterprise. The Civic Federa-

tion, which promises an elaborate report, is yet to be heard from.

Of the results in this country, no complete summary is available. It seems to be generally agreed that American municipalities can satisfactorily maintain and operate their water works, but opponents of municipalization urge, with some force, that the case of water is exceptional, not only because the supply is in most cases wholly natural and the means of distribution simple, but also because water is required by all, while gas, electricity, and street cars are used by only a portion of the community. Apart from water, the reports from American cities are as confusing as the conflicting testimony from Great Britain. Toledo, Ohio, pays interest annually on a million-dollar debt for which the city has absolutely nothing to show, having sold for a tenth of its cost the natural gas enterprise embarked upon a dozen years ago. Richmond, Virginia, has waked up to the fact that her supposed profit from a municipal gas enterprise was a matter of bookkeeping, and that instead of a profit there is a serious loss, which must now be made up in cash—renovating a worn-out plant—or the business abandoned. Alexandria, Virginia, has within a few months sold for \$3,000 an electric plant costing \$17,000. Current news dispatches tell of four Indiana cities which are preparing to wind up their lighting ventures as soon as they can find purchasers for the plants. Many American cities, on the other hand, point with great pride to their municipal electric plants. This may mean that their experience is to be counted on the affirmative side—or it may mean that they have not yet called in an expert accountant.

One might gather from the tenderness with which the subject is treated by the politicians that all the voters are in favor of municipal ownership and operation, but there happens to be proof that this is not true. Chicago, it will be remembered, voted for municipal ownership but not for municipal operation; and if the street cars of Chicago are to be run by the city, specific authorization for it must still be secured at the polls. San Francisco was forced to take over a street car line, where the franchise had expired, but refused, on submission to the voters, to authorize municipal operation of the cars. Cleveland, Ohio, being urged by Mayor Johnson in 1903 to undertake the construction and operation of a municipal lighting plant, and the question being submitted to the electors, declined by a substantial majority. The city of Seattle, which in March of this year elected the mayoralty candidate of the municipal ownership party, thought better of it, and on September 12, by a majority of more than 1,500 out of a total of 14,000 votes cast at a special election, refused to authorize a bond issue for municipal street car lines.

Certainly, there is nothing now in the record which calls for a generalization in favor of the wide extension of municipal functions, commonly implied within the term "municipal ownership." For the present, at least, each proposal should be compelled to prove its own case, and the closer the scrutiny the better.

UNIVERSITY TEACHING OF ENGLISH.

One who marks current discussion of college English will be reminded of an ungrammatical but expressive catchword of twenty-five years ago: "Hit him again; he's Irish, and he han't no friends." The latest castigator of these studies, Prof. George Rice Carpenter, deals the faithful wounds of a friend, being himself the incumbent of a chair of English in Columbia University. His criticism, as contained in the *Columbia Quarterly*, affects English as taught in the universities. He notes that many Ph.D.'s in English have received a training wholly scrappy, and quite apart from the subjects they are to teach in the colleges. Thus we fill our chairs with erudite scholars, to be sure, but myopic teachers, disqualified from taking comprehensive views even of their specialty. Naturally, such men are poor leaders of youth, having merely vague conceptions both of literary values and of pedagogical possibilities.

A little acquaintance with college faculties will show that professors of this limited sort are by no means rare. We venture further, and assert that most of the good teachers of English have become so through a combination of native ability and vitality sufficient to overcome the defects of their university education. Many a faithful teacher, reviewing his own university career, would say, not that it was bad in itself or wasted, but that it had been grossly un-systematic and relatively unprofitable as regards the actual service of teaching. In similar fashion, many a Grecian who has gloriously "settled *hoti's* business," is compelled, tardily and ingloriously, to acquire some familiarity with Greek literature. In fine, the university often not merely neglects the more valuable studies, but so urgently puts forward the less valuable, that the student has no leisure for repairing individually the gaps in a haphazard curriculum. Nothing is more common than to find a doctor of philosophy whose mental acquisition, after all, consists of uncoördinated snippets of literary history and philology—a dash of Chaucer, and the Chester Plays; a smattering of Gothic, and a sample of the Minnesänger; a semester of Gower, and one of Dr. Donne; a *souçon* of Anglo-Saxon metre, and Aristotelian critiques of poetry—such is the ragout that is frequently served up in the name of uni-

versity education. Evidently a student who escapes such a course with his associative faculties unimpaired is a monument to his own mental equipoise, not to the intelligence of the university that made him a doctor.

The cause of this confusion is largely false ideals of research inherited from Germany, but even more the absence of clear thinking in university administrators and teachers. From Germany we have imported the notion that the process of investigation is everything; the materials quite indifferent. In this view there is a plausible disinterestedness, and just enough truth to obscure the fundamental error. We would not minimize the value of any sort of truth, nor the desirability of research, however minute and remote from contemporary importance; but there is a world-wide difference between such self-effacing investigation pursued by a trained scholar as part of a large and well-reasoned plan, and similar studies pursued by a novice in the name of education. The distinction is fundamental; what in the first case may seem necessary and heroic, becomes in the second merely casual and foolish.

If Germany has thus imposed upon us an eminently unphilosophical notion of the relation of research to university education and college teaching, she has unconsciously done us a deeper harm by confounding in the one word "philology" a great variety of linguistic and literary studies, of differing importance and availability. The ignorant sort of dilettanteism we have already had; we have added a more insidious because a learned and plausible sort. The gushing person who imagines that he can teach English literature by plenary inspiration, without any knowledge of the history of the language, or even without first-hand study of the history of the literature, is, after all, becoming rapidly discredited; the philologist who, on the basis of inarticulate enthusiasms and incommunicable tastes, fixes himself in a chair of literature is far more detrimental to sound studies. He is learned, and he gives to college presidents the impression of being also wise, which too often he is not. The quarrel here is not with philology, as such, but with those who, without comprehensive views or noteworthy attainment even in that subject, dabble languidly in both philology and literature; whose vaunted investigations frequently consist merely of marginalia; whose teaching is regulated not by any plan either philological or literary, but by the passing curiosity of the year or by the casual pressure of publisher or editor. Men of this type, however vast their merely cumulative attainments, are dilettantes—true successors of the Alexandrian scholiasts and the Della-Cruscans.

Without exaggeration, this is the tem-

per that our university education tends to produce, and this is the reason why both our college teaching and our productive scholarship are of a scrappy and ineffective order. Of course, the remedy for impressionism is principle, and for intellectual disorder, logic. What we need in the present instance is a clear perception of ends. When the conditions of a rationalized education and the practical qualifications for college teaching are fairly considered, it will seem absurd to equip all college teachers of English as investigators in the German sense; it will seem culpable to impose merely random philological studies, and still worse to prescribe them for the student of literary history. It will seem indispensable to observe a certain sequence, and preposterous to omit the most rewarding authors and periods simply because these do not afford likely topics for doctoral dissertations. The real reform will come when university authorities gain some conception of the distinctions between linguistic and literary study; realize that the scholar's conscience may be produced without ignoring the finer enthusiasms; and insist that no subject shall be taught without some recognition of its educational values and its relations to the whole field of the humanities. And this implies a generation of university professors more forceful as personalities and better oriented as intellects, than the average of to-day.

CODES OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS.

Writing on "The Ideal Lawyer" in the current *Atlantic*, Justice David J. Brewer of the Supreme Court cites with approval the action of the committee of the American Bar Association in advising the adoption of a code of professional ethics. This committee was appointed in 1905 to report upon the advisability and practicability of such a code, and its recent report is worthy of wider attention than it has thus far received. In Justice Brewer's opinion, it is plain proof that the profession as a whole recognizes that there is an ideal lawyer, and intends that "no one shall be tolerated who does not possess one at least of the elements of such a lawyer, to wit: a high moral character."

The committee, denouncing the conduct of certain lawyers, declared:

Members of the bar, like judges, are officers of the courts, and, like judges, should hold office only during good behavior. "Good behavior" should not be a vague, meaningless, or shadowy term, devoid of practical application save in flagrant cases. It should be defined and measured by such ethical standards, however high, as are necessary to keep the administration of justice pure and unsullied. Such standards may be crystallized into a written code of professional organizations, local or national, formed . . . to promote the administration of justice and

uphold the honor of the profession. Such a code in time will doubtless become of very great practical value by leading to action through the judiciary; for the courts may, as conditions warrant, require all candidates for the bar to subscribe a suitable and reasonable canon of ethics as a condition precedent to admission. . . . Indeed, eventually the people, for the welfare of the community and to further the administration of justice, may, either by constitutional provisions or legislative enactments, demand that all, before being granted by the State the valuable franchise to practise, shall take an oath to support not only the Constitution, but such canons of ethics as may be established by law.

With this plan lawyers of the type of Edward M. Shepard and Joseph H. Choate will be in hearty accord. They realize that the rush for wealth, as Mr. Shepard recently pointed out, has in many cases undermined old-fashioned standards of professional ethics. They have seen an ever-increasing number of men enter the profession solely as a means of obtaining political office or of getting into some lucrative business by means of their legal knowledge. These birds of passage naturally care little or nothing for the calling which they make merely a means to an end.

If the increase in the number of law schools of high standing has done much to instil a respect for the profession, there still are, as every one knows, far too many men who prostitute their abilities by using them only to show people how to avoid the penalties of the law while committing acts contrary to its spirit. We gravely doubt whether there has been an actual multiplication of shysters out of proportion to the general growth of the profession. There were blacklegs in the law centuries ago, as well as in the time of Marshall and Webster. But the increase in the number of lawyers has made the corps too unwieldy to act quickly, and thus the process of punishing by disbarment is long and difficult, except in clear-cut cases; and many a rascal escapes because his wronged client either does not know how to press for punishment or would rather avoid further notoriety and unpleasantness. Plainly, the best way to tone up the profession, besides contriving some machinery to make disbarment speedier and more frequent, is to fix a standard at the beginning, and make sure that candidates for admission have a clear understanding that, in accordance with a written code, as honorable conduct is expected of them as is traditionally demanded of officers of the army and navy.

If it is gratifying to see one of the oldest of the learned professions seeking to keep itself pure, it is even more encouraging to find a new one striving to establish an ethical code by which its members shall be bound. At the twenty-third annual convention of the Ameri-

can Institute of Electrical Engineers, held in Milwaukee this year, the president, Schuyler Skaats Wheeler, devoted his address to the question of engineering honor, and cited as his text these words from Francis Bacon's "Maxims of Law":

I hold every man a debtor to his profession; from the which as men of course do seek to receive contenance and profit, so ought they of duty to endeavor themselves by way of amends to be a help and ornament thereto.

Besides expounding the ordinary reasons for a code of ethics which apply to all professions, Mr. Wheeler dwelt at some length upon the duty the electrical engineer owes to the public, if only to protect it from the charlatan and the impostor. As a result of the president's address the Institute decided that, in imitation of such examples as the rules governing the relation of physician to patient and architect to client, a committee should be appointed to draft a code of electrical engineering ethics. This committee is now at work, on the understanding that the result of its labors will be submitted at the next annual meeting.

It is with such voluntary acts as these that the defender of American business and professional life can best reply to the critic, whether native or foreign, who would have it that our ideals are perishing in an age of materialism. Just as ethical standards are higher and ethical teachings more insistent and systematic than at any time in our history, so there is in every profession a growing desire to oust the quacks and the immoral. Even in the dental profession, debased as it is by countless frauds and fakirs, there is a stirring which bodes well for the future. Indeed, if this striving after ideals continues, we may yet see a professional code among newspaper men. Miracles have happened, and we may yet see such a portent. The time may come when journalists who pander to the basest passions, who deliberately incite to crime and immorality, or who sell their opinions for gain, will be professional outcasts.

THOREAU AND GERMAN ROMANTICISM.

After forty-four years of waiting, the *Journal of Thoreau* has been published in practically complete form, filling fourteen out of the twenty volumes that make the attractive new Walden Edition (Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.). Of the value of the *Journal* itself in this extended form, there may well be at first some doubt. Most of the memorable reflections and descriptive passages had already been transferred by the author to "Walden" and his other regular works. What remains is made up largely of trivial daily memoranda, often written down in the field and then copied out at home for more convenient reference. There are, of course, recompenses for the wary reader who has learned the gentle art of

skipping—new fragments of magic⁶ description, shrewd bookish criticisms, glimpses of serene vision, the old familiar thoughts struck out in fresh language. And apart from any question of immediate interest, this simple record of a life in nature offers a real profit to the student of the larger intellectual currents. From Thoreau's comparative poverty in original ideas and from the practical independence of his character we can see, better than in the case of Emerson or any other of the group, wherein the transcendentalism of Concord was an echo of the German school, and wherein it differed.

No one has yet traced the exact channels by which the formulæ of Romanticism migrated from Germany to New England, although it is known in a general way that the direct influence through translations in the American magazines and elsewhere was considerable. Moreover, most of the Concord scholars dabbled at one time or another in the German language. The strongest impulse, no doubt, came indirectly through Coleridge, Carlyle, and the other British Teutonizers, but once here it found a far more suitable soil than in England. Something in the mental constitution of our people fitted them to absorb the nebulous ideas that were in the air, and something in their spiritual antecedents drew them particularly close to Germany. They had just thrown off the strait-jacket of Puritan religion and were revelling in the always perilous consciousness of spiritual liberty. The situation in Germany at the time of the Romantic School was not altogether dissimilar. Lessing and the Titans of the *Sturm und Drang* had wrestled against the deadening tyranny of the Lutheran Church; they had discarded the formalism of French literary law, and with it pretty much all sense of form whatever; they had, with the help of Kant, broken down the official philosophy of Leibniz and Wolff. On all sides resounded the watchword of *Freiheit*, liberty—except in politics, where neither then nor now have the Germans, as a people, reached any notion of individual liberty submitting to the discipline of self-imposed restraint, without need of the strong hand of Government or the bonds of socialistic regulation. So far as the aim of the Storm and Stress can be described, it might be called a rejection of the eighteenth-century principle of selection for that of universality. The whole of human nature should be embraced and developed, and this development was to come through a setting loose of every impulse and passion of the breast to run its full unhampered course. What that career meant, the *Geniesucht*, the *Unendlichkeitsstreben*, the *ringende Titanenthum*, the *Emanzipation des Fleisches*, the *Seelenpriapismus*—may all be seen, by whoever cares to read it, in such a work as Wilhelm Heine's "Ardinghello." Out of this blind ferment of freedom came at last the spirit of a new and more compact school, the cultus of the *Ich*, the romantic I, as formulated by Fichte, the Schlegels, Schleiermacher, and Schelling, and as practised by Tieck, Novalis, and a small band of contemporaries.

German romanticism is often defined as a return to mediæval ideals, and for the decline of the movement such a definition is fairly exact. And even in the beginning,

although such a master of the school as Friedrich Schlegel preferred to call himself a Grecian, his interest in that land was mainly a sentimental nostalgia for some imagined home of happiness in the past, and his kinship, vague at first, and entirely unconscious, was rather with the mediæval Church. Through all the years after the Renaissance, the memory and habit of the Middle Ages had run beneath civilization like one of those underground rivers, sending up its fountains here and there, even in the disciplined years of the eighteenth century. And when at last the depths had been broken up by the wild license of the Storm and Stress, it reappeared at the surface, its old name forgotten and its current charged with many deposits from its hidden pilgrimage. We are accustomed to find the relationship between Romanticism and the Middle Ages chiefly in a common feeling of infinity, in their *Unendlichkeitsstreben*, and this in a way is true. But we must restrict the meaning of the word closely. In the narrower acceptance, the Middle Ages had less of the feeling than the centuries either preceding or immediately following. There is more of the infinite in Virgil's *loca nocte tacentia late* than in Dante's vision of petrified eternity; there is more of the infinite in Shakspeare than in all the mediæval poets put together, more in Plato and Spinoza than in all the intervening schoolmen. What the Middle Ages really strove for was to combine the ideas of personality and limitlessness; the human personality was to be protracted unchanged through unending periods of time, the deity was to be at once human in nature and unbounded in power—a conception of the world which could have arisen only when the feeling for the infinite as something positive in itself and different from a mere quantitative limitlessness had been lost. Necessarily such an effort to contain the infinite within the vessel of the finite brought its penalty—to some minds an unwholesome exaltation and relaxing reverie, to others, as to St. Augustine, the anguish of mortal self-contradiction. This was the burden of the Confessions: "How shall I call upon my God, God and my Lord? For I call him into myself when I call upon him (*quoniam utique in meipsum cum vocabo, cum invocabo eum*). And what room is there in me, where my God may enter in, where God may enter in, God who made heaven and earth?" And this combat between the thought of a limited and an unlimited personality passed through the Middle Ages, disappeared for a time, and then returned to be absorbed and modified in the writings of the Romantic school.

Only so can we understand the *Ich* which Fichte erected into that tortured system of philosophy, whose chief value is that it gave a backbone of rigid articulate logic to a body of otherwise flabby sentiment. The spirit of revolt is the beginning of the movement. Not only in art does the will or whim (*willkür*) of the poet suffer no law over itself, as Friedrich Schlegel avers, but, more mystically, this liberty is necessary for the expansion of the I into the desired state of limitless self-satisfaction. Here is no true sense of infinity, nor yet much talk of God and the soul—these had withered away under the *Aufklärung*—but

an attempt to account for the world by some juggling with the personal I and the not-I. In place of the mediæval contrast of a divine Person and a world created out of nothing by His fiat, Fichte substitutes a formula begotten of logic on lyricism. Bring together the logical law of identity ($A = A$, and not-A is not = A) and the craving of unrestrained egotism, and you get the romantic equivalent for mediævalism: God is replaced by the human personality, lifted as the transcendental I above the ordinary I of commerce and society, and the world is the not-I called into being as a field for its exercise and enjoyment.

Here is room for endless reverie, for unbounded exaltations, for insatiable self-tormentings. This I has in practice no concern with the reason, which is the faculty of defining and delimiting; it has no kinship with the will which means self-restraint; it is the child of the feelings which are essentially rebellious to limitations. So in religion there was a general repudiation of Luther and the Reformation, as the source of "a dry rational emptiness which leaves the heart to pine away." To Schleiermacher, the great preacher of the band, religion was neither reason nor morality, neither thought nor action, but an emotional contemplation of the universe by which the soul is thrown into a state of indistinguishing reverie, and the I and the not-I swoon together into one. The religious feeling, he thought, should "accompany all the doings of a man as it were a holy music; he should do all *with* religion, nothing *through* religion." And the aim of poetry was the same. It, too, should avoid all that is sharply defined, and should blend all the *genres* into a kind of ineffable music, appealing neither to the thought nor the will. "Poems which sound melodiously and are full of beautiful words, but without any sense or connection"—that, according to Novalis, is the consummation of art.

From the same source spring those peculiar accompaniments of the movement—the so-called romantic irony, the aloofness from society, the sacred idleness. Given this outreaching egotism, together with this contempt of limitations, and inevitably there arises an inner state which is the modern counterpart of St. Augustine's wrestling with the personality of God. Fichte might argue calmly about the world as not-I, but to the inflamed imagination of a Schlegel this division of nature was a disruption of self from self; it became the everlasting, uncompromising discord between the ideal and the real. The only escape from this anguish of dissatisfaction was to ascend into those towers of indifference from which the transcendental I might survey the life of mankind, even its own activities, with unconcerned irony. In art this is the quality by which the artist "appears to smile down upon his own masterpiece from the heights of his spirit"; in life it is the feeling which leads a man to move about in society as in an alien world whose concerns are to him nothing—a mere piece of "transcendental buffoonery." Hence the contempt of business and of the Philistines follows as a kind of seal set upon the romantic soul which is conscious of itself. It cultivates a divine idleness; the summons to loaf and invite one's

soul came from over the sea long before the scandalous outbreak of Walt Whitman.

And the theatre of this vagrant aloofness was nature. To the wanderer in the field and on the mountain side, with his spirit bathed in the shifting glamour of color and form, with no troublesome call upon his reason or his will, this visible music of nature might seem now to be spun like a dream from the depths of his own being and now to be absorbed in silence back into himself. Schelling had modified this mystic reverie into a vast metaphysical parallelism. "The system of nature," he said, "is at the same time the system of our spirit"; and again, "Nature is the visible spirit, the spirit is invisible nature." And Novalis, to whom thought was "only a dream of the feelings," held that by a kind of transcendental "magic," to use his famous word, a man might juggle or shuffle spirit and nature together. In his "Lehrlinge zu Sais" romanticism received perhaps its purest expression. "At the well of freedom," says one in that book, "we sit and spy; it is the great magic-mirror wherein serene and clear the whole creation reveals itself; herein bathe the tender spirits and images of all natures, and here we behold all chambers laid open. . . . And when we wander from this view into nature herself, all is to us well known and without error we recognize every form. . . . It is all a great scroll, to which we have the key." Whereto another prophet in the book replies in the language of Fichte, telling how a man is lord of the world, and how his I, brooding mightily over the abyss of mutable forms, reduces them slowly to the eternal order of its own law of being, *der Veste seiues Ichs*.

Now, of the systematic romanticism of Fichte and Schelling there is little or nothing in the writings of our New England transcendentalists. Many of their ideas may be found in Emerson, but divested of their logical coherence; and as for Thoreau, "metaphysics was his aversion," says William Ellery Channing; "speculation on the special faculties of the mind, or whether the Not Me comes out of the 'I' or the All out of the infinite Nothing, he could not entertain." Nevertheless, in its more superficial aspects, almost the whole body of romanticism may be found reflected, explicitly or implicitly, in his Journal and formal works. He, too, had sat spying in the well of freedom, and the whole art and practice of his life were a pæan of liberty: "For a man to act himself he must be perfectly free." And this was his mission, to act himself, and to point to others the path of freedom. Calvinism had been discarded in Concord as Lutheranism had been by the romanticists at Berlin. There is little talk in Thoreau of God and the soul, but in its place a sense of individualism, of sublime egotism, reaching out to embrace the world in ecstatic communion. His religion was on the surface not dissimilar to Schleiermacher's mystical contemplation of the universe; "vast films of thought floated through my brain," he says on one occasion; and the true harvest of his daily life he pronounced "a little star-dust caught, a segment of the rainbow which I have clutched." This reverie, or contemplation that spurned at limitations, passed easily into the romantic ideal of music—and that in a very literal, some-

times ludicrous, sense. A music box was sufficient to console him for the loss of his brother; a hand-organ was an instrument of the gods; and the humming wires on a cold day—his telegraph harp he called it—seemed to him to convey to his soul some secret harmony of the universe. "The wire is my redeemer; it always brings a special message to me from the Highest." This is the thought that occurs over and over again in the Journal. More particularly in one passage dated September 3, 1851, and given by Channing in fuller form than by the present editor, he expatiates on this modern harmony of the spheres:

As I went under the new telegraph wire, I heard it vibrating like a harp high overhead; it was as the sound of a far-off glorious life; a supernal life which came down to us and vibrated the lattice work of this life of ours—an Aeolian harp. It reminded me, I say, with a certain pathetic moderation, of what finer and deeper stirrings I was susceptible, which grandly set all argument and dispute aside, a triumphant though transient exhibition of the truth.

There is something bordering on the grotesque in this rhapsodical homage to a humming telegraph wire, but it might be paralleled by many a like enthusiasm of the German brotherhood. Nor was Thoreau unaware of this intrusion of humor into his ecstasy. Like Friedrich Schlegel, he indulges in the romantic irony of smiling down upon himself and walking through life as a *doppelgänger*:

I only know myself as a human entity; the scene, so to speak, of thoughts and affections; and am sensible of a certain doubleness by which I can stand remote from myself as from another. However intense my experience, I am conscious of the presence and criticism of a part of me, which, as it were, is not a part of me, but spectator, sharing no experience, but taking note of it; and that is no more I than it is you. When the play, it may be the tragedy, of life is over, the spectator goes his way. It is a kind of fiction, a work of the imagination only, so far as he was concerned.

How far this irony carried him in his hatred of Philistinism and his aloofness from society, no reader of his books need be told. The life of the business man he compared to the tortures of an ascetic, and the California gold-fever threw him into a rage of disgust:—"going to California. It is only three thousand miles nearer to hell. . . . The gold of California is a touchstone which has betrayed the rottenness, the baseness, of mankind."

Nor did the daily commerce of man with man come off much better. He was not one who would "feebly fabulate and paddle in the social slush." "I live," he says, "in the angle of a leaden wall, into whose alloy was poured a little bell-metal. Sometimes in the repose of my mid-day there reaches my ears a confused tintinnabulum from without. It is the noise of my contemporaries."—Could an image be more sublimely impertinent?

Often a passage in the Journal bears the stamp of German romanticism so plainly upon it, that we stop to trace it back in memory to Tieck or Novalis or one of the followers of the earlier Storm and Stress. Such are his scattered observations on childhood, on sleep, and the all-enveloping sacrament of silence; such is his constant thought of a new mythology which is to be the end of our study and our art—"all the phenomena of nature need to be seen from the point of view of wonder and awe. . . .

Men are probably nearer to the essential truth in their superstitions than in their science." These, I take it, are not cases of translation or plagiarism, but rather of that larger and vaguer migration of thought from one land to another. They show how thoroughly the transcendental philosophy of New England had absorbed the language and ideas of German romanticism, if not its inmost spirit.

P. E. M.

Correspondence.

REAL SIMPLIFIED SPELLING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As one who has come into perhaps exceptionally close touch with the orthography exhibited by the graduates of our secondary schools, will you permit me to add a word to the current discussion of the "simplified" spelling? During the last fourteen years, the instructors in the department of English at Northwestern University have tested the spelling of somewhat more than three thousand freshmen, coming to us from more than two hundred reputable preparatory schools, and representing nearly every State in the Union. In order to be sure that we were using, in these annual tests, only such words as belong to the ordinary vocabulary of freshmen, we have taken our lists, regularly, from themes written by freshmen of the previous year in the course of their college work. Now, in comparing the words misspelled in these annual tests, and in thousands of college themes, with the three hundred words in the so-called "simplified" list, we find that only two or three words in that list have been generally misspelled by freshmen. Such words as the possessive form "their" and the common verb "lose" are misspelled with vastly greater frequency than any word in the three hundred arbitrarily selected by the simplifying committee. If, then, it be admitted that our data from over three thousand graduates of over two hundred schools are sufficiently wide to form a fair basis for generalization, one conclusion is obvious, namely: if all our secondary school graduates were fully to adopt the "simplified" spelling, it would not reduce their errors in orthography to any perceptible degree.

One or two other deductions from our long direct observation may be mentioned as bearing on the discussion. We have uniformly given, in the tests, one hundred and fifty words, and have marked "passed" all who misspelled not more than twenty out of the hundred and fifty. Yet, although great pains were taken, uniformly, to pronounce every word distinctly, and to define it both directly and by giving a sentence containing it, nearly 60 per cent. of the freshmen, on an average, have failed to pass the test from year to year. For many years we have required all who thus failed to enter a sub-freshman class, one hour a week, and to continue there until they either materially improved their spelling or demonstrated to us that they positively could not learn to spell. The work of this sub-freshman class, significantly dubbed by our students "the pity sakes class," has, of course, not count-

ed among the required number of hours in the college curriculum. Although most of the young people who have gravitated into this class have been vehement in declaring that they positively never could learn to spell, we have found, from year to year, less than one per cent. of incorrigibly bad spellers among them. We have not pretended to perform miracles or to render carefully observant, during the rest of their lives, young people who came to us habitually careless and non-observant. But we have found that a very few hours of drill have been sufficient to cause practically all the members of each successive class to pass readily tests quite as severe as those in which they failed on entering college.

Our methods have been extremely simple. In the first place, we have drilled the delinquents on those well-established rules for doubling consonants, dropping final letters, etc., which should have been, but were not, made very familiar to these students in their grammar school and high school days. In the second place, we have called particular attention to the etymology of English words derived from the Latin, so far as such a relation bears upon English orthography. For example, the student who has spelled "amatory" "amitory" is not likely to repeat such a blunder after he realizes that this word retains the connecting vowel of the first conjugation. But nearly all the improvement that we have been able to secure in the spelling of our students in this sub-freshman class has been obtained simply by requiring them to spell by syllables analytically. In other words, we have insisted that they learn to observe carefully the successive construction of polysyllables.

After this somewhat wide experience and observation, I am convinced that much of the talk about the difficulty of learning to spell English is not founded on fact. I am also convinced that most of the bad orthography exhibited by our secondary school graduates is due to the unwise, unscientific, and unpsychological method of teaching orthography to young pupils in our grammar and high schools, generally known as "the word method." Invaluable as this method is in teaching the young child to read, it certainly teaches him *not* to spell. I am informed by specialists in experimental psychology that it is impossible for the ordinary person to perceive intelligently at one volition more than four letters of a polysyllable. The consequence is that when even such a common and "easy" polysyllable as "multiplication" is placed before a child and then erased, the child, when asked to reproduce, is quite as likely to begin "m-u-p" as in any other way. He has gained simply a confused jumble instead of a clear analysis of the word. Another deduction, then, is obvious, namely: if the time, money, and energy that are now being expended to secure the "simplified" spelling were used toward securing, in our high schools and grammar schools, a wiser method of teaching orthography than that which generally prevails—if our schools would cease teaching pupils *not* to spell and would begin scientifically to teach them to spell, the results would be vastly more valuable and more easily attainable than any that can possibly be obtained by Mr. Carnegie's committee; and they would be

secured without doing violence to the history and the genealogy of our mother tongue.

J. S. CLARK.

Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., October 31.

SHALL THE ALHAMBRA BE SAVED?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been surprised to see in our papers no reference, except your own incidental allusion of some weeks ago, to the reported dangerous condition of the Alhambra. When in Granada, a year ago (or later, while in Spain), the writer heard disquieting rumors as to the insecurity of the precious building and the possibility of its falling. Besides the peril arising from the decay and obstruction of the ancient aqueducts which pervade the palace in all parts, it was said that the corrosive action of the river Darro, which encircles the hill which the Alhambra crowns, had so far proceeded as to threaten to undermine the structure.

The mere contemplation of such a catastrophe as the fall, even in part, of such an edifice fills with dismay whoever has any regard for art or history or romance. As need not be said, the Alhambra is unique both in its aesthetic charm and in its associations. It is a world-treasure and belongs to civilization. That the Hall of the Ambassadors or that of the Two Sisters should fall would deeply impoverish the world of art forever.

The only question, if the alleged facts of its condition are authentic, is how to save it? While current repairs are at present judiciously provided for, it may well be that the Spanish Government, through its poverty, would not be justified in making the large expenditures involved in the radical measures needed for security of the structure. What can be done, before it is too late? Could there be organized an international commission as in certain other cases even now before the public, which should inquire into the subject and obtain the means which may be required? Your own modestly offered suggestion is the finest, if it could find a response. When one thinks of the Aladdin-power of the mighty private fortunes of to-day, one can but long that it should sometimes be directed to magnanimous aims like this of rescuing an incomparable world-monument and preserving it to dazzle and delight men for eight more centuries. Is there not among us some large-minded possessor of great wealth, some man or woman, who shall be touched by the contemplation of such a possible loss to the world and be prompted individually to avert it? If a miscreant still survives in memory as the destroyer of the great fane of Ephesus, how long and well shall he or she be remembered who shall invert the ambition of Herostratus and come forward to save the Alhambra?

IRVING.

Philadelphia, November 5.

A PURE MENTAL FOOD LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I take it that I am an older man than the correspondent in your issue of October 25, Prof. Clarence G. Child of the University of Pennsylvania; hence it will not be presumptuous in me to say that for a generation I have held and cham-

pioned the position he defends. It seems to me the position is logical and impregnable. For centuries the degree of A.B. has stood for more or less Greek and Latin—that it may often have been less rather than more has nothing to do with the question. Let those who think that an education without the ancient classics is "just as good" label it B.S. or B.Ph. or whatever they choose. We who think differently have no quarrel with their decision; we simply object to placing an old label on new goods. Perhaps the recently enacted Pure Food law can be made to apply to mental as well as to bodily pabulum. That a man will thrive just as well on oatmeal as on wheat flour does not justify a dealer in selling the former under the latter name.

C. W. SUPER.

Athens, O., October 29.

Notes.

The Merrymount Press of Boston has sent out a prospectus of what promises to be a delightful series of books, to be called The Humanists' Library. The first four volumes announced are: Leonardo da Vinci's "Thoughts on Art and Life," edited by Lewis Einstein (general editor of the series); Erasmus "Against War," edited by J. W. Mackail; Pierre de Nolhac's "Petrarch and the Ancient World"; Sidney's "The Defense of Poesie," edited by George E. Woodberry. A considerable number of other volumes are promised. The character of the bookmaking is guaranteed by the name of the printer.

The second volume of Saintsbury's "Minor Poets of the Caroline Period" is soon to be issued by the Oxford University Press. Some of the poems have never before been printed and some are now reprinted for the first time. Altogether, we regard this as the most useful of Professor Saintsbury's literary works.

A number of years ago T. Fisher Unwin published "Napoleon's Last Voyages," which contained the diaries of Admiral Sir Thomas Usher (of the Undaunted) and of John R. Glover, secretary to Rear-Admiral Cockburn (of the Northumberland). Dr. Holland Rose is now editing a new edition of this book and writing an introduction for it.

The late Henry George, who dealt in the romance of economics, is now made the hero of a novel, "The Romance of John Bainbridge" (The Macmillan Co.), by Henry George, jr. It is the story of a young lawyer who enters politics from a sense of duty.

Cuba is the main topic of the *National Geographic Magazine* for October. A valuable summary of facts concerning the island, its people, resources, and industries, is accompanied by a large map and numerous full-page reproductions of photographs. From an interesting account of ostrich farming we learn that there are now 2,500 birds on farms in the United States, more than half of which are the progeny of a single pair, owned in Arizona in 1891. Other subjects treated are Korea, Russia's wheat crop, and the hurning of clay roads, an economical method of good road-making originated in Mississippi by the Office of Public Roads.

The Century Co. has brought out a "trade" edition, at a reduced price, of Gen. Horace Porter's "Campaigning with Grant," available hitherto only in a limited edition. The chapters originally appeared serially in the *Century* magazine in 1896-97. The lapse of time has not changed the general impression produced by the work at its first appearance. It is in no sense a formal or comprehensive history of Grant's campaigns; indeed, it does not pretend to be such. It is, rather, a sketchy account of Grant's personal life from day to day by one who stood close to him during the Virginia campaigns, and who has industriously noted the personal habits and tastes of the great commander, his comments on men and events, and the happenings, grave and gay, of camp and battlefield. The book is undeniably entertaining, and in its present attractive dress should have a new lease of life.

The new issue, in one volume, of B. E. and C. M. Martin's "The Stones of Paris in History and Letters" (Charles Scribner's Sons) presents no important change save the correction of a certain number of errors of detail to which attention was originally drawn in our columns. The authors still hold that the philosophical or literary vitality of Rousseau is an extinct quantity nowadays (p. 206), likewise that all he knew of music was "by intuition." In all essential respects the work holds its own as an interesting guide to the antiquities of *Lutetia Parisiorum*.

The possession of a photograph of a manuscript copy of Lincoln's Gettysburg address, which, upon examination, turned out to be a photograph, not of the original of November 19, 1863, but of a copy made by Lincoln in April, 1864, has led Dr. Henry S. Burrage into a minute study of the history of this famous address, with special reference to the changes in phraseology which the address underwent in manuscript and print. The results of the inquiry form about one-fifth of the contents of a volume entitled "Gettysburg and Lincoln" (Putnam). The rest of the book contains a readable description of the Gettysburg battle, an account of the dedication of the national cemetery and its subsequent history, and a detailed history of the national park and its administration. The text is embellished with numerous pictures of the localities described.

The last issue of the "American Jewish Year Book" (Jewish Publication Society, 1906) is of even more melancholy interest than usual. Thirty-five pages are given to an elaborate, tabulated history of "pogroms" from Kishineff in April, 1903, to Bialystok in June, 1906, and 254 are reckoned. The narrative is plain, unsensational, and heartrending. Dealt with more shortly are the Jewish situation in Morocco—brought out in connection with the Algeciras conference—and the new laws on immigration and naturalization. The account of the past year has the usual strong interest of history from an unfamiliar angle and the touch of nature which makes kin.

Under the title "Briefs for our Times," the Rev. Morgan M. Sheedy, Rector of St. John's Church of Altoona, Pa., issues a volume of some thirty-five sermons (New York: Thomas Whittaker). Mr. Sheedy seems to be a fearless, straightforward

preacher, with a turn for the moral and practical, and with ability to couch his thought in vigorous English. It cannot be said that he has anything surprisingly new to convey, or that his thought rises much above ordinary reaches, but in spheres in which the majority of people are at home, he deals out common-sense, good morals, and a modicum of religion, in a trenchant and pleasing manner. His subjects embrace ethical topics such as "The Value of Self-Control," "The Duty of Service," also social themes like "The Gospel of Wealth," "Social Unrest," with now and then a more specifically religious subject.

The first volume of the noteworthy German work on the New Testament edited by Prof. Johannes Weiss of Marburg, "Die Schriften des Neuen Testaments, neu übersetzt und für die Gegenwart erklärt," appears in a second and enlarged edition (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht). Professor Weiss has had the coöperation of some of the most eminent scholars of the liberal school, among them Professors Gunkel, Jülicher, Bousset, and Baumgarten. The endeavor has been to afford an historical understanding of the New Testament, and to provide for the non-specialist a clear presentation of the results of critical inquiry. The success of the undertaking has been notable, and the volume in hand is a striking witness to the painstaking diligence and the powers of insight of German Biblical students. The Synoptic Gospels and the Acts of the Apostles are treated in Volume I, and a second volume covering the remainder of the New Testament is promised before the new year.

One of the most important psychological texts in the history of philosophy is certainly Avicenna's concise little treatise on the existence and faculties of the soul. It took up the Aristotelian and Platonic systems and classifications, recast them in a queer combination, and was very largely formative of Muslim thought on the subject. Thus it may be said to have stated the standard Arabic position on the functions of the brain; other systems might diverge, but they were philosophically heretical, more or less. In mediæval Europe it was also formative in Latin versions; through it Chaucer could speak of Arcite's "celle fantastyk." But the only accessible form of it for non-Arabists has hitherto been Landauer's German version hidden away in vol. xxix. of the *Zeitschrift* of the German Oriental Society. It seems worth notice, therefore, that an English version has now been published by Dr. E. A. van Dyck ("A Compendium on the Soul," by . . . Ibn Sina. Verona: 1906. Pp. 94). Dr. van Dyck translates very literally, as he has in mind students in Egyptian schools, but his version will be generally intelligible. To the references on Avicenna he might have added Shahrastani's extended treatment as translated by Haarbrücker ("Religionspartheien," ii. 213-332); De Boer's book, also, which he mentions, is in German, not Dutch.

In his "Enigmas of Psychical Research," Dr. James H. Hyslop was occupied with certain abnormal or supernormal psychical events, which, although as he supposed attested by competent witnesses, were as yet incapable of explanation. In his new vol-

ume, "Borderland of Psychical Research" (Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co.), he deals with certain abnormal phenomena which have been or which can be explained. Among them are illusions, hallucinations, frauds of the medium, and self-deceptions of the credulous. He explains certain hallucinations and apparitions by changes confined to the organs of sense, which have no extra-organic cause. He traces the history of spiritualism, and maintains that the contempt of philosophers, not the inherent absurdity of its claims, has put it so completely in the hands of charlatans. He notices also the mistakes made by observers, owing to the dexterity and the tricks of false mediums. But the discussions contained in these 400 pages and more, are long and diffuse; and the "Enigmas," his earlier work, is more entertaining by reason of its naïveté and credulity. Those who are interested in the issue between parallelism and interactionism should read Dr. Hyslop's chapter on "Mind and Body." He opposes the former theory, and presents some strong reasons for believing that there is a causal relation between the psychical and the physical. Since the book is written for "the laity," we refrain from wondering why so much old psychological lumber has been put into Dr. Hyslop's earlier chapters.

Many years ago Budget Meakin determined to do for Morocco what Lane had done for Egypt in his "Modern Egyptians." Thence came a three-volume thesaurus of really great value and one fatal defect. Mr. Meakin had, evidently, not thought it worth while to learn Arabic thoroughly as Lane had done; he contented himself with learning to talk the Moroccan dialect after a fashion. His information, therefore, wherever it touched upon book knowledge, was fantastic and unreliable, though his eye and instinct for life were evidently keen and his industry great. It is natural then that his last book, "Life in Morocco" (E. P. Dutton & Co.), as a series of sketches should be more uniformly successful. Barring a few unlucky wanderings into Arabic, its pictures and impressions, dashed in, it is true, in a broad, exclamatory style, are very vivid, interesting, and substantially correct. The spirit of the life of the masses, too, has been caught, though of that of the educated and learned, after Moorish fashion, there is not a sign. Mr. Meakin might, perhaps, say that there is no learned, educated side to Moroccan life, but that is hardly so. There are students of theology, canon law, poetry, and history still. Instructive, but not so brightly interesting, are the inevitable chapters on the political situation, the moral—probably sound—of which seems to be, Don't believe anything in the newspapers about Morocco. The last chapters are short views of Algeria, Tunis, Tripoli, Spain, as contrasted with Morocco. The French colonizing method in Algeria—to make of it an "Africa Provincia" or "Afrique Mineure"—the modification of this in Tunis on more English lines, the Turkish rule in Tripoli, are well brought out. The chapter on Moorish remains in Spain is the weakest; everything in it has been said and said again. The illustrations are all good.

It marks an improvement in the requirements for the doctor's degree in our universities when, instead of a dissertation

lahoring, as is often the case, some insignificant point in early English phonology, candidates for that degree are permitted to present as a proof of their capacity an edition of a work of some standard writer—especially in the older periods. The change unquestionably means a gain for the culture of the individual student, and, so we believe, is in the interests of scholarship in general. An example of a recent "thesis" (if we may extend the meaning of the term) of this character is Ezra Lehman's edition of "The Tragedie of Chahot Admirall of France," by George Chapman and James Shirley, which has appeared among the publications of the University of Pennsylvania (1906) as vol. x. of the Series in Philology and Literature. The edition consists of an exact reprint in every particular of the original quarto of 1639 (of which the university possesses a copy), without change of punctuation or even of passages obviously corrupt. In a well-written introduction prefixed to the text of the play the editor discusses the relation of its plot to Pasquier's "Recherches de la France" (1621), the only source hitherto identified—also the question who bore the chief part in the composition of the play. His conclusion that Shirley merely revised Chapman's work is manifestly correct. On the other hand, the editor is not very happy in his explanation why this play failed on the stage. "The first four acts," he says, "have all the elements of serious comedy; there is nothing in them to prepare for the tragic scene of the fifth act." This is stretching the use of the term "comedy" with a vengeance. As a matter of fact, if the first four acts had been comedy, provided they were good comedy, the men of Chapman's time would not have bothered about the rest. The real cause for the failure, however, lies on the surface, viz., that Chapman was deficient in every quality of a good dramatist. In this play there is far too much talking in proportion to action; the characters, with the possible exception of Chahot, are mere shadows, and the language, though habitually elevated and often even beautiful, is too involved and labored to suit a popular audience. In the formal speeches of the trial scenes Chapman's dramatic incompetence is most apparent. The editor has given only a few notes to the text and even of these some are very elementary. In this respect the edition appears to great disadvantage when compared with the editions of Ben Jonson's plays in the corresponding Yale series, even after allowance is made for the different character of the works of the two authors.

Just what is being accomplished in post-graduate research in Columbia, particularly in the Department of Germanics, may be seen in Dr. John Louis Kind's thesis, "Edward Young in Germany," issued by the Columbia University Press. Young, though at times a wearisome personality, has always been of interest to the student of German literature, because of his contemporary repute and the influence which he exerted on many writers in Germany. Dr. Kind, sometime Carl Schurz fellow in German at Columbia, has apparently well surveyed the field. Chapter I. deals with Young's relation to early English writers of the eighteenth century, and

gives an outline and a critical consideration of the "Conjectures on Original Composition." Chapter II., taking up the "Conjectures" in Germany, gives a general survey of German thought on original composition prior to 1760, notes the translations of 1760 and 1787, the *Litteraturbriefe* and the Idea of Originality (1759-65), picks out the same theme in the *Hamburgische Dramaturgie*, and discusses Hamann and Herder and their attitude toward Young. Chapter III. contains an historical survey of the "Night Thoughts" in Germany, and sets forth its influence on the Swiss School, the didactic poets, Gottsched and his followers, the philosophical poets, and the Göttingen *Dichterbund*. Some thirty-two well-known authors are considered in detail, not to mention those of lesser fame. A part of the chapter of unusual interest is that devoted to the reaction against the "Night Thoughts." Wieland, who early fed on Young, rejected him later; Lessing and Herder also cooled in their admiration for the English poet, and even Goethe, who wrote to his sister in 1766 that he had learned much English from studying Young, and who reflected Young in his "Werther," forsook him later. The other works of Young and their audience in Germany are also presented, and there is a bibliography. The hook is printed in the simplified spelling.

Books on bridge whist are as thick as the autumn leaves. The latest are "Dalton's Complete Bridge" (New York; Stokes & Co.), and "Bridge Ahrided" (New York: Duffield & Co.). In the former there is little variation from the many that have preceded, except that Mr. Dalton, in writing on the discard, makes the astonishing statement that American opinion is about equally divided between discarding from strength or weakness. He makes some good arguments in favor of strength, and then cavalierly dismisses them with the statement that "they are not convincing." They appear, however, to be better than his own in favor of the discard from weakness. In "Bridge Ahrided," Annie Blanche Shelby follows in general the beaten track, but differs from Mr. Dalton on the question of discard, declaring herself in favor of strength.

"The Arab Horse," by Spencer Borden (New York: Douhleday, Page & Co.), is an interesting history of the animal, both on his native heath and in the countries to which he has been exported. Considerable space is given to the Arabs in America; and their pedigrees and history are interesting to the lovers of the breed.

An important work in a new field of American bibliography is Charles T. Harbeck's "Contribution to the Bibliography of the United States Navy," just from the press. The bibliography now printed had its beginning (Mr. Harbeck says in his Preface) in the collecting of titles of books not in his possession, with the view of adding these books to his library. The volume which now appears is based, primarily, on Mr. Harbeck's own collection, but with copious additions. He has had the assistance of Miss Agnes C. Doyle of the Boston Public Library and of Axel Mothe of the New York Public Library, who have added titles from those two great collections. Though of lesser interest to

the reading public and to the book collector, the various publications on the navy by the different departments of the Government are actually of the greatest importance to the student or historian. The lists of United States documents are very full. The lists of naval registers are the most complete and accurate yet printed. In a first work of this kind there are certain to be numerous omissions, how numerous or important only use will determine. Although the 1865 reprint of "Two Letters from W. Graves, Esq.; respecting the Conduct of Rear-Admiral Graves in North America during his Accidental Command there for Four Months in 1781" is recorded, the original edition, printed in 1781 or 1782, is not. The Battle of Lake Erie has a separate section, and several entries refer to the dispute between Commodore Perry and Capt. J. D. Elliott, but the "Review of a Pamphlet purporting to be Documents in Relation to the Differences which subsisted between the late Commodore Oliver H. Perry and Capt. Jesse D. Elliott, By a Citizen of Massachusetts, Boston, 1843" has been overlooked. A number of titles of hooks by Commodore Goldshorough have been entered, but not his "Reply to an Attack made upon the Navy of the United States by Samuel Coues, Portsmouth, 1845." Nor do we find the original pamphlet by Samuel Coues, which brought forth the reply. According to Sahin this was a thin tract of eight pages published in Boston by the American Peace Society with the title "United States Navy. What Is Its Use? By Samuel E. Coues." One of the rarest of hooks on the Navy in the Revolution, the Narrative of Nathaniel Fanning, has also been omitted. As first published it had the title: "A Narrative of the Adventures of an American Navy Officer, who served during part of the American Revolution under Paul Jones. New York, 1806." The first issue is without the author's name. Two years later the title was reprinted, and in this later issue it reads: "Memoirs of the Life of Captain Fanning, an American Naval Officer, who served during Part of the American Revolution under . . . Commodore John Paul Jones. New York, 1808." The hook is a large octavo of 256 pages, in large, clear type, with wide margins, in an edition of 350 copies. The compiler, for his personal use, will be glad to know of additional titles relating to the United States Navy which are not included in his Bibliography. Inquiries may be addressed to Charles T. Harbeck, No. 32 Broadway, New York.

The city of Berlin has inherited from the lately deceased book-dealer, Cohn, a valuable Shakspeare bibliography, which, however, is still fragmentary, although Cohn had given the titles of more than 30,000 hooks and articles. The authorities of the city have determined to complete this list, and the managers of the city libraries at a late meeting made arrangements with the indefatigable German Shakspeare Society to have the work done. Ten or twelve years' work will probably be required for this task.

Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge of London will sell the library of the Duke of Sutherland at auction November 19 to 24. The 1,787 lots, however, include few items which can be considered of the first class.

Among those likely to interest American collectors are the following:

Coryat's "Cruities," first edition, 1611, a large copy, but with the Strasburg clock, as usual, slightly cut into.

Davenant's "Gondibert," the 4th edition, 1651 (the 8vo of the same date is generally considered the first), having an original signed poem by Sir John Denham on the fly-leaf.

Esquemeling's "Bucaniers of America," 1684, first edition, and with the fourth part published in 1685.

"The Spectator," "The Examlner," "The Guardian," and "The Englishman," all in the original folio numbers.

Florio's "First Frutes," 1578, and his "Second Frutes," 1591, both first editions.

Froissart's "Cronycles," translated by Lord Berners, the first edition in English, printed by Richard Pynson; the first volume in 1523, the second in 1525.

A series of Gould's books on birds, described as an original subscriber's copy.

Gower's "De Confessione Amantis," second edition, printed by Thomas Berthelet, 1554.

Higden's "Polycronicon," the edition printed by Peter Treveris in 1527.

Vol. I. of Ben Jonson's "Workes," 1616, first edition, large paper, but with one sheet supplied from a smaller copy.

A Third Folio Shakspeare, 1664, described as "a perfect and very sound and clean copy, but shortish and outside margins of two of the preliminary leaves cut close."

An English manuscript on vellum of the fourteenth century, containing a poem, "Speculum Vitæ or Mirror of Life," composed by Richard Rolle of Hampole, who died in 1349.

The family of the late Herman Melville, author of "Typee," "Moby Dick," etc., are collecting materials for a memoir and would be grateful if any persons having letters by him would lend them to Miss Elizabeth Melville, "The Florence," Fourth Avenue and Eighteenth Street, New York. Such letters will be carefully kept and promptly copied and returned.

Waldo G. Leland of the Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C., and Prof. William E. Dodd of Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Va., are endeavoring to collect for publication the letters of Chief Justice Marshall. Since comparatively few Marshall papers are known to have been preserved—except those in the Library of Congress—it becomes necessary to "rake the country" for the remnants of a correspondence that must have covered a period of nearly fifty years. Any one who has knowledge of the existence of Marshall letters will confer a favor by reporting the fact to either Mr. Leland or Professor Dodd.

The literary remains of Theodor Mommsen, as reported by the *Nationalzeitung* in Berlin, have recently been put into the possession of the Royal Library in that city. Of chief interest among these papers are four large chests of letters, which Mommsen declared should not be published till thirty years after his death. To these letters received by Mommsen the library will try to add as many as possible of the thousands which he himself wrote. This collection of material will throw much light on the political and literary history of the last fifty years.

The annual report of the Boston Public Library, just issued, offers some striking contrasts to that of the New York Library, which was summarized in the *Nation* of October 18. The New York Library gained 115,851 volumes; Boston, 7,883; in New York the increase of registered borrowers was 101,161; in Boston, 3,450; in New York

the gain in circulation for home use was 1,061,128; in Boston there was a loss of 594. When, however, the difference in population is taken into account, it will be seen that the Boston Library is still ahead in relative resources and work done. To equal the per capita circulation for Boston the New York Public Library must add more than a million to its present circulation; and to supply this city with books in the same ratio to population as in Boston, the New York Library must increase its present stock of books threefold. In current fiction the Boston Library confines its purchases to books of the highest merit according to a rather conservative standard. This policy has been justified; for, as the report says, "the experience of several years has shown that nearly all of the works of fiction which for various reasons we have found it impossible to buy, have failed to demonstrate their ability to live for even a few months. The demand for some of them was insistent for a short time; now their names are for the most part forgotten, and nobody cares to read them. If we had purchased a considerable number of these volumes, the money, so far as present demand is concerned, would have been wasted." Out of the year's total output of fiction, only 161 titles were accepted. From these titles, 1,230 volumes were bought, costing \$1,260. The total expenditure for all books was \$34,460.

The recent annual report of the City Library of Berlin shows that the average German takes more kindly to solid reading than the American. Of the 45,129 volumes carried home, no less than 22,327 were of a strictly scientific character, history and biography leading, with 4,088 works. The tendency in this direction is apparently growing. The percentage of scientific works this year was 33, while a year ago it was only 31. These data are significant, as 52 per cent. of the readers belong to the working classes, and the educated and professional classes constitute a very small proportion of those drawing books.

Dean Andrew F. West of Princeton has decided to abide by his present duties as director of the Graduate School, but the moral value of his call to the presidency of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology remains. It confirms, as we have pointed out, the late Francis Walker's belief that scientific education should also be liberal, and it sets a precedent which trustees of technical schools must consider for the future. It may be inferred that Dean West would hardly have refused so attractive an offer if he had not had assurances that the Princeton Graduate School would be rapidly developed in a university direction.

The idea of an international exchange of professors is being applied on a large scale by the city of Hamburg in the arrangement of its academic winter course, which has now been enlarged to cover many of the departments of a full university. Hamburg has secured the services of five foreign scholars: Prof. J. H. B. Masterman, Birmingham, who lectures on Robert Browning; Professor Rosset, Grenoble, the poetry of the Romance languages, and especially Victor Hugo; Dr. W. H. Tolman, New York, industrial reform movements in America; Consul Dr. Solé y Radriguez, Uru-

guay, the export trade and industry of his native land; and Miss Gelati, Italy, on the literary movements in Italy. It is proposed in the course of a few years to establish in this commercial metropolis of Germany a fully equipped university.

The Leinster Training College for Irish will soon be opened in Dublin for the purpose of promoting the study of the modern spoken language and training teachers for primary and secondary schools. The School of Irish Learning, founded several years ago by Dr. Kuno Meyer and others, is chiefly devoted to the study of Old and Middle Irish texts.

RECENT VERSE.

"The Two Arcadias," by Rosalind Travers (Brimley Johnson & Ince), is that rare thing, an altogether readable first volume of verse. Miss Travers has an exuberant poetic fancy; she has a great deal of literature—though she imitates methods rather than effects; and she has true poetic humor. The opening piece, which chiefly gives the atmosphere of the little book, is a dramatic phantasy entitled "Arcady in Peril." To Silvio and Phoebe, engaged in woodland love-making in the Arcadian fashion of strict poetic tradition, enter two cockneys, Albert and Maria, attended by a chorus of "trippers." The sharp contrast between the old ideal and the present reality makes possible some entertaining business between the four, including the conventional interchange of lovers. Phoebe thereupon invokes Diana's aid:

O Forest Queen!

Hear from thy dreamy bowers
Far in the secret, cool, and winding glen,
Where quenched sunbeams fall in sparkling show-
ers

(Dark houghs between)

On strange and starry flowers,
Azure and silver-streaked, unknown of men,

Hear, and give aid, O Queen!

By the moorland, wild and wide,
On the sunny mountain-side;
By the torrent, cool as snow,
Murmuring to the fields below;
By the pinewoods, breathing halm;
By the moonbeam's holy calm;
By all nature's joys, that he
Tameless, strong and pure as thee,
Hear, and give aid, O Queen!

Diana naturally gives heed to so melodious an incantation and promises her succor. A monster is introduced, which Silvio takes to be a dragon, but Maria, his moment's paramour, undeceives him:

Sil. Ye gods!!—there is a fearful dragon yonder!

Mar. O-o-ooh! Where?

Sil. On the near highway—his squat and bulky scarlet form rests on four short, gray paws—his huge eyes glare—the earth shakes at his breath—oh, terror!—oh, hideous monster!

Mar. Let me see, though—let me see! (*Scrambling up the mound.*) Why, you silly cuckoo, it's nothing but a motor-car!

Silvio refuses to "touch the accursed thing," which is "too loathly-formed, too vile." Maria thereupon returns to Albert, and they make off with the motor. It blows up, in accordance with the goddess's plan of vengeance, hurling the trippers far cityward; and Silvio is restored to the arms of Phoebe in a reestablished Arcady. The piece then concludes with a significant chorus of nymphs:

Where the hues of sunset fall,
Where the sky is primrose-pale,

And the silver moon hangs low;
Faint and few the starry gleams,
'Tis the land of fancy-dreams:
Thither, mortals, let us go!

Westward burns the splendid sky;
There's the Realm of Poesy,
Sought of many, found of few.
In that lambent air and fire
Fragile-winged thoughts expire;
Withered, drop to earth anew.

But to Fancy's paler sphere
Ye may journey free of fear,
Even as our light verses fly.
Ye have wings, though cramped and small;
Fancy-flights upbear you all;
Mortals! spread your wings and try!

Miss Travers was particularly discreet in choosing to draw her pastoral air from the artificial Arcadias of Ramsay, Milton, and Sidney, thus limiting herself resolutely within the sphere of Fancy. And fantastic as the fable is, it is made poetically convincing by the delicate *flair* of the author.

The second of the two Arcadias is found in "The Suburbia," a celebration in the manner and metre of Pope of

Mammon's gay mistress crowned,
The willing nymph Suburbia.

The hectic, gaudy life of climbing suburbs is pictured with a metrical neatness and a firmness of satiric tone that, coming after the long disuse of the *genre*, have an effect of pleasing novelty. But a deeper poetic spirit moves under the satirical surface than one at first suspects: as we near the end, we come upon a passage which, read in connection with some of the shorter and less whimsical pieces in the volume, gives high hopes of poetic pleasure from Miss Travers's future work.

Yet many a City man may slowly fare
Riverward, seeking peace and twilight there.
But all in vain pale dreams of far delight
Steal o'er the dusky violet-beds of night;
While great elms slumber in the meadows gray,
And the white moon begins her tranced way.
For still his anxious purpose never leaves
The hope of gain; still cunning nets he weaves
To catch the elusive gold; dark webs that lie
Sad o'er the thought, and cloud the wistful eye.

"Ah, could I plunge deep in some quiet river!
And rise, newborn in splendid strength, to shiver
The old, unshapely life to pieces! tear
Away the tawdry vain-delight; lay bare
The waste of years, the wrong of mean desires
and sordid care!

Then build the home anew, on pillars firm;
Of comradeship and trust which years confirm;
With simple joys and kindly neighborhood,
And general labor for the common good!"
Thus will the sad, suburban father dream;
Resting his gaze upon the cool, slow stream.

Then, breaking the couplet's bonds—

Look up, O men!
Shnt in with little miseries, futile task,
And meanest self-inflicted care, arise!
Fling wide the dusty windows of your soul
On spring and sunshine, melody and mirth!
A newer morning breaks o'er field and town;
The sad air quickens; kindly gods are near!

The "Poems" of Anne Whitney, privately reprinted with some rearrangement, forty-eight years after their original publication, are a gracious echo from that *tempus acceptabile*, the transcendental period. One could hardly be young in New England in the thirties and forties and not write poetry, certainly not a person of Miss Whitney's temperament and receptivity. Her poems are full of the engaging agitation, the alert catholicity, the earnest joyousness of those eager emancipated years. The defects of the transcendental quality are hers too, and not a few of the pieces have a cer-

tain mystical prolixity that reminds us that they were written in the day of utterances. Yet Miss Whitney has, probably as the result of a vivid artistic temperament, a distinct quality of her own. In the concluding poem, the only new piece, we believe, in the volume, she is seen at her best:

Even as a rose,
Fulfilled of beauty and desire,
Lets fall its petals one by one,
The good day goes.
Subsides with mellow note the wave's long
swell;

The twilight gathers in the dell,
And all hues melt in one. A small bird tops
His cedar on the cliff

And in the listening quiet of the copse
Trills forth his evensong.—'Tis evening's own—
The rest, the peace,
The strife of day outgrown.

We know the sign and heed the low command;
And hand in hand,
Bearing our treasure safe above the blight
And waste of years—the slow surcease
Of Life's full fount—we journey free
With trust in the great Mystery
Toward the fast-coming night.

The easily-won, temperamental optimism, the gentle if somewhat thin piety, which marked the poetic work of Susan Coolidge and won many readers, is the most notable trait in her "Last Verses" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). How much may be attained without great heat of imagination, distinction of thought, or richness of style, by sensitive perceptions and a fluent and lucid manner, may be seen from these lines on Helen Keller:

Behind her triple prison-bars shut in
She sits, the whitest soul on earth to-day.
No shadowing stain, no whispered hint of sin,
Into that sanctuary finds the way.
There enters only clear and proven truth
Apportioned for her use by loving hands
And winnowed from all knowledge of all lands
To satisfy her ardent thirst of youth.

Like a strange alabaster mask her face,
Rayless and sightless, set in patience dumb,
Until like quick electric currents come
The signals of life into her lonely place;
Then, like a lamp just lit, an inward gleam
Flashes within the mask's opacity,
The features glow and dimple suddenly,
And fun and tenderness and sparkle seem
To irradiate the lines once dull and blind,
While the white slender fingers reach and cling
With quick imploring gestures, questioning
The mysteries and the meanings: to her mind

The world is not the sordid world we know;
It is a happy and benignant spot
Where kindness reigns, and jealousy is not,
And men move softly, dropping as they go
The golden fruit of knowledge for all to share.
And Love is King, and Heaven is very near,
And God to whom each separate soul is dear
Makes fatherly answer to each whispered prayer.
Ah, little stainless soul, shut in so close,
May never hint of doubt creep in to be
A shadow on the calm security
Which wraps thee, as its fragrance wraps a rose.

The title of William Byron Forbush's "Ecclesiastes in the Metre of Omar" (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is perhaps a little misleading. It is not so much a consecutive rendering of the words of Koheleth as an imaginative construction of the Rubaiyat he might have written, made by a very eclectic assembling of words, phrases, and images from the Scripture, woven to a single texture and skilfully colored and cadenced to resemble the manner of FitzGerald. It is none the less, despite some roughness, a successful bit of work—in its sympathetic insight as well as in its technical ability. The brooding, skeptical old poet, who has had the odd fortune to retain for so long a place among the canon-

ical writers, is well represented by such stanzas as these of "The Fulness of Life," based chiefly upon the ninth chapter of the book:

Above the endless Fury, Fever, Fret,
Above the grief of suns that rose and set,
The Silent One answers my ceaseless Quest
When I have learned one lesson—to forget. . . .

So go thy way in garments white to dine,
And with rare ointments make thy visage shine.
Forget the Door of which He holds the Key,
But not the one which holds thy cherish'd wine.

"Drink! since to-morrow life may all be o'er?"
Nay, drink because to-morrow may bring more.
The voice may speak from out the brooding
cloud,
A message waft us from the Silent Shore.

And seek to prove Life's solace year by year
With one whom thy fond heart may find most
dear.

Her will may be the wind's will, yet to thee
The home-bound breeze that brings the Haven
near.

She never has the Eternal Puzzle guesst.
A portion has she borne; nor sought the Quest.
Ah! but the heaven of her patient arms,
Her little palms' soft hollows full of rest!

If we mistake not, all or nearly all of the poems in Richard Watson Gilder's "A Book of Music" (New York: The Century Co.) have already appeared in preceding collections of his work. Yet it was a fortunate thought that grouped them between covers. We have long held Mr. Gilder's interpretations of the moods of the listener to music to be his most distinctive and enduring work. This opinion is strengthened by the grouping. The concluding sequence, "Music in Solitude," "Music at Twilight," "Music in Moonlight," and "Music in Darkness," is poignant and lovely poetry, which, with very little of the *Andersstreben*, common in poems of music, weaves, nevertheless, a musical spell over the reader's mood.

"Panama Patchwork," by James Stanley Gilbert (Cooke), though handicapped by a high-erected "foreword" by Tracy Robinson, is a volume of interesting, if not at all memorable, verse. Mr. Gilbert's quality was that of a talented gentleman who writes with ease. Ease, indeed, as with his avowed master, John Payne, was often his undoing. Many times in his book we find the effect of some vivid exotic picture, some striking bit of sentiment or humorous conception, distorted by a lapse into fluent poetic commonplace. At his best, however, as in these first three stanzas of "A Frijoles Washer-Girl" before the initial energy of concentration is dissipated in undue and ineffective detail and trite classical allusion, Mr. Gilbert's work is highly picturesque:

A dream in living bronze is she,
A dusky goddess full revealed;
Clad in Nature's modesty—
Her wondrous beauty unconcealed.

Half to her knee, the rushing stream
An instant pauses on its way;
The ripples in the sunshine gleam,
And tiny rainbows round her play.

Lithe as the bamboo growing near
Within the tangled tropic glade;
As graceful as the startled deer
Half hidden in the distant shade.

"Night and Morning," by Katrina Trask (The John Lane Co.), is the story of the woman taken in adultery retold in picturesquely colored blank verse, with the imaginative addition of the personality of her lover, a "subtle Greek" Leonidas. As set forth by the author in "The Argument," the

purpose of the piece is to elucidate the divorce problem by maintaining the "higher, inner law of love itself which in itself is the highest freedom," and which is "a Beatitude rather than a Law." The poem is not very explicit in its embodiment of the argument, and there is some contradiction. The meaning seems to be the rather hazy one that the higher love being a state of Beatitude demands the renunciation of human relations—though just how this bears upon the crux of marital infelicity does not clearly appear. The mood of the poem is admirable throughout, and the workmanship respectable.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Dragon Painter. By Mary McNeil Fenollosa. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Unfortunately, statistics are hardly attainable as to the actual proportion of fond little Japanese maidens who have been willing victims to the triumphant allurements of large, inconsiderate foreign lovers. In the Japanese stories we read—usually written by ourselves—this theme is so prevalent that our general conception of love in Japan might be visualized by a collapsed female figure weeping in the wake of a departing steamer. Mrs. Fenollosa, in her study of the artistic temperament in Japan, entirely avoids this hackneyed subject. "The Dragon Painter" is smoothly told, full of careful and satisfactory descriptions. It also gives an idea of contemporary Japan, a Japan of enterprising daily papers, whose print makers hang about old Kano's gate, endeavoring to snatch a likeness of his famous son-in-law.

Kano himself is in the uncomfortable position of the enthusiastic artist who suddenly finds himself cast for the rôle of hide-bound ignoramus by the discovery of a genius at once greater and more untrammelled than himself. Since Kano adores this Katsuo and only wishes to instruct and cherish him, it is not a public discomfiture, but merely a case of complete, unconscious blanketing. To secure the genius (lacking a son of his own) Kano marries the wild mountain lad to his own carefully brought-up daughter. Instead of barely suffering this alliance from filial piety, Umè-to falls undutifully, not to say indecorously, in love with her husband, and the pair have so pleasant a honeymoon that no earthly power will induce the genius to get back to his brushes.

The most interesting part of Mrs. Fenollosa's story is her description of the painter, his feeling toward his art, and towards the foreign invasion. If the rest of the book contains nothing particularly striking, it is at least one more able revelation of the spell which Nippon never fails to cast upon the conquering stranger.

Beyond the Rocks. By Elinor Glyn. New York: Harper & Brothers.

All the parents who were in doubt about letting their débutante daughters browse upon "The Visits of Elizabeth" may turn them loose upon "Beyond the Rocks" without a twinge of misgiving. Laying aside satire and cynicism, Elinor Glyn tells a straightforward love story of the kind specially suited to young ladies in their teens. This statement must, however,

be qualified by a confession that the spotless Theodora is kissed, and vulgarly speaking, hugged, on several occasions by her irresistible lover, Lord Bracondale. Nevertheless, as her invincible goodness transforms him from a thorough-paced Lovelace into a patient and considerate Ritter Toggenburg, the impression left by her history is one of unflawed discretion. Her sweetness furthermore transforms Josiah Brown, her plebeian husband, into as fine a gentleman as King Mark of Cornwall; and after exactly the suitable amount of despair, danger, and nobility on the part of the lovers, Josiah opportunely succumbs to a trifling ailment.

The curious fact about this story is that it should ring so very old-fashioned, not in theme—since an innocent young girl sacrificed by rapacious relatives belongs to all time—but in manner and treatment. The witty and frivolous pen of "The Visits of Elizabeth" has quite lost its Gyp-like audacity. Unfortunately, with the audacity, the sparkle also evaporated. The light touch, the exaggerated modernity, have vanished with the malice, till ladies who once thrilled over the "Duchess" may (with the assurance that Elinor Glyn's syntax is more solid) feel no apprehension when they see their young daughters similarly thrilling over the temptations and triumphs of the lovely Theodora.

The Call of the Blood. By Robert Hichens. New York: Harper & Bros.

Not long ago we were hearing much from persons who for one reason or other read many novels, of a story by Robert Hichens called "The Garden of Allah." Here at last, we gathered, was a work of real importance, something which could be counted on to arrest the attention of the most indifferent or the most skeptical. We read it with care, and were disheartened to find that it could not do for us what it had apparently done for others. We found here and there descriptive passages which were undoubtedly "vivid" and picturesque. Elsewhere we found a pomp of phrase and portentousness of mien which at second glance appeared to be empty—like a brocade supported by its own stiffness, and really containing nothing human. The tale and the persons, like the style, seemed hollow inventions. Yet we observed many earnest people applying a reverent ear to this artificial shell, and announcing that they heard the ocean.

The "Call of the Blood" is in many ways a better book—a sincere book, if not a great one. It contains less speech, and more matter. The emotional tone is less forced, and the utterance less strained and oracular. We are not expected to gasp at every scene or thrill at every situation. A Southern setting is again employed. An Englishwoman, past her first youth, marries a young Mercury, nominally English, whose temperament is really determined by a strain of Sicilian blood. At the bride's instance, they go to Sicily for their honeymoon. Presently, being a person with an advanced sense of duty, she leaves him to nurse an old friend, a man whom she might have married. The bridegroom is sufficiently magnanimous to approve of this act; but, left to himself, he listens to "the call of the blood," seduces a peasant girl, and is killed by her father. This

consummation hardly amounts to tragedy, for the culprit is not so much a person as a temperamental victim of heredity. He does not greatly engage the sympathies, and the details of his error rather pall in the rehearsal. Nor are Mr. Hichens's erotic touches grateful to a normal palate; they smack of that sentimental voluptuousness which has marred and, one fears, popularized not a few modern novels of merit; for example, those of James Lane Allen.

In the end one is impressed with the fact that the true theme of this story is not suggested by its title. As a study of true friendship it is worthy of note. The faun-like hero, whose acquired sense of duty, whose true affection even, is not proof against the working of inherited temperament, is hardly more than a foil for the contained virtue of the friends who suffer by his existence.

The Cruise of the Violetta. By Arthur Colton. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

Arthur Colton has in the past proved himself too accomplished a story teller to turn out with impunity a bit of fooling so mediocre as "The Cruise of the Violetta." He writes admirably, sees and describes with unusual charm, and possesses a marked and delightful sense of fun. But in this case the humor is forced. He approaches the ticklish realm of burlesque with too great cocksureness. After a beginning as promising as the opening to "Mrs. Lecks and Mrs. Aleshine" (a conscientious, Presbyterian lady from the Middle West scotching a Haytian revolution with knock-out drops is worthy of Stockton at his pleasantest) the pace is not kept up. Or, to be exact, the story turns into a sort of musical comedy libretto, in which the comic intention is more apparent than the achievement. By the time that Mrs. Mink has settled the affairs of Hayti, outridden a tornado, married the doctor, spanked (vicariously) a Kanaka king (incidentally settling a bout of Polynesian politics), picked up an orphan in the Malay Archipelago, buncoed and kidnapped a high-class Hindu fakir, and taken a hand in the electric light system (and revolution) in a small South American seaport, you are fully convinced of Mr. Colton's cosmopolitanism, but rather tired of fantastic adventure.

After reading "The Cruise of the Violetta," to regain faith in Mr. Colton's ability and intention, one has, however, only to read, or re-read, his earlier volume, "The Belted Seas."

Princess Maritza. By Percy Brebner. New York: T. J. McBride & Son.

The hero of Mr. Brebner's "Princess Maritza" is an English officer, who, convicted, unjustly, of course, of cheating at cards, is cashiered and turns his back on his country to dedicate his sword as a soldier of fortune to the service of the King of Wallaria. This small but important State, which may be supposed to stand for Servia or Bulgaria, since its affairs rivet the attention of all the European cabinets, has all the equipment of a novel of the type of "The Prisoner of Zenda": a stupid puppet of a king, an intriguing queen, a lovely pretender to the throne, the copper-haired Princess Maritza, and, not least,

the reckless English captain of horse. The incidents are numerous though unconvincing, the streets run with blood, the best-dressed and most frivolous women of the court turn out to be expert diplomats, more than a match for a seasoned English ambassador, and mysterious signals are given from every house and street corner. But all this may be present and one thing be lacking. The personages do not live, we are indifferent to their fates, and when a lovely countess dies, in the main square, a case of heroic self-sacrifice, we feel that we could have watched the heroine fall instead, without a qualm. This is not so with the Seraphinas and Flavias of the masters of this type of fiction.

The German Workman: A Study in National Efficiency. By W. H. Dawson. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50 net.

Agitation of the "fiscal question" in Great Britain has had at least one wholesome effect; it has marvellously stimulated interest in the economic and social policies of those countries which are felt to be her chief rivals in the contest for the markets of the world. Of this fact William Harbutt Dawson's useful volume is the latest and not least significant bit of evidence.

Unlike Ashley's "Progress of the German Working Classes," the book is not concerned with the industrial effects of the German tariff; nor does it, like Shadwell's "Industrial Efficiency," deal broadly with all important factors in national economic progress. Confining himself to the social legislation by which for a generation past the Germans have sought to guarantee workers a tolerable standard of living, Mr. Dawson undertakes to investigate the methods employed and results achieved, to the end that his own countrymen may profit by the experience of their redoubtable competitor. Previous study had qualified him thoroughly for his task, and he has produced a volume which, if not attractively written, is probably the most convenient guide for English readers who would venture into the mazes of German *Sozialpolitik*.

One's head fairly swims as one contemplates the various and complicated institutions which a paternal Government has created for the benefit of the working classes. Decent housing for the married laborer, temporary shelter for the homeless, hospitals for the sick, convalescent homes to insure a permanent cure, crusades against such plagues as tuberculosis, medical treatment for children in the schools—these are some of the provisions designed to promote health and industrial efficiency. Public employment bureaus, lodging-houses for the entertainment of travelling workmen, labor colonies for travellers who do not desire to find work, insurance against unemployment, relief works for the actually unemployed, and information bureaus for those who need nothing but seasonable advice, cooperate in keeping able-bodied men from becoming public charges. When these agencies fail, there are the poor laws, which, although not perfect, are administered by men of intelligence and practical sense; and not, as often in England, by persons "without special qualifications, who join boards of guardians for the mere pleasure of over-assessing their neighbors' property and under-assessing their own."

But further than this, as we all know, German legislation provides insurance, on a national scale, against sickness, accident, and old age; and it is upon these topics that Mr. Dawson's volume is disappointing. Since the beneficiaries of the industrial insurance laws are now numbered by the tens and scores of millions, and the system in some of its branches has been in operation long enough to enable one to estimate fairly the results, there is opportunity here for a more searching investigation than any foreign observer has yet made of the actual outcome of the legislation by which Bismarck sought to outbid the Social Democrats. German writers, it is true, assure us that the results of compulsory insurance have been generally favorable; and there is no reason to doubt the intelligence and honesty of their reports. But it is to be wished that some one who can write with more detachment would undertake a searching, first-hand study of the entire problem. Our own Prof. Henry W. Farnum has made one or two successful forays into this field; and it is to be regretted that Mr. Dawson did not essay something of the sort. Instead of this, however, he gives us merely a conventional summary of the provisions of the law, and describes the machinery through which it operates.

Our author is not blind to the possible dangers of the experiments which Germany has tried; neither, it is fair to say, are some of the Germans, who have shown no little "horse sense" in administering undertakings which approach very closely the danger line. In Frankfurt, for instance, where it has become the established policy to provide "relief" work in seasons of unemployment, the town council has deliberately avoided committing itself to the doctrine that the municipality should find work for all its citizens. It proceeds consistently on the theory that the relief work is undertaken simply "to prevent any extensive call for public relief," and denies that its obligations extend any further than such safeguarding of its financial interests. Nor does Mr. Dawson allow his reader to suppose that every arrangement which works well in Germany would operate equally well in Great Britain; on the contrary, he never fails to make due allowance for differences in national temperament, institutions, and inherited traditions. Yet, upon the whole, his verdict is distinctly favorable to the work which the Germans have been pushing with persistence and intelligence for a full generation. He believes that in social legislation, as well as in science or technology, Great Britain has much to learn from Germany; and his book should bring not a few of his countrymen to a hopefully receptive frame of mind.

Lectures on Modern History. By Lord Acton. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$3.25 net.

The late Regius Professor of History at Cambridge has been so lauded by those who came under his influence that it is perhaps worth while to inquire what should be the exact measure of his praise. For such an inquiry, the volume before us

will serve as a convenient starting point. In the first place, then, it may be asked, How great a scholar was he? To answer the question a standard must be adopted, and as to gauge Acton the highest will be necessary, we may select Mommsen for the purpose. The component factors of Mommsen's worth may be said to have been erudition, criticism, expression. In each one of these he was great: great in learning, great in critical sense, great in literary output. But now, what of Acton? In erudition he was, if not the equal of Mommsen, yet unquestionably great; in critical sense he was weak; in production—we have the present book and the promise of another course of lectures, in book form.

Leaving his critical faculty and literary output for the moment, it must, however, be added that Acton's chief merit was one just alongside of the scholar's work—his influence on others. His curious personality and burning enthusiasm aroused attention and inspired effort. Crowds of interested listeners nearly elbowed the undergraduates out of his lecture room; while his former students, among whom are the editors of this volume, have continuously voiced their admiration. One of the most brilliant and enthusiastic, John Pollock, has put it on record that one of Acton's lectures "was, in truth, an emotional performance of the first order; . . . a wonderful work of art." There was his strength; he struck the imagination of his hearers.

Acton was not, however, a critic. It was his vast store of accumulated details that kept him near truth, not his critical sense. His Roman education had subtly warped his mind, so that when he revolted from the decisions of the Vatican Council, he was yet unable to free himself from the dull burden of Authority. He was, in fact, a living paradox, and perhaps that explains why his mind turned so constantly to epigram for relief from the restraint under which it suffered. At their best his flashes of wit were charged with the very essence of historical thought; at their worst they were an intellectual bad habit. At their best we have the already famous dictum from the letters to Mary Gladstone, that the Council of Trent erected the dogma of an austere immorality; at their worst we find, in the volume now under review, such statements as the following on Peter the Great and Frederick William I.: "Without the first Europe might be French, and without the other it might be Russian."

And lastly, as to Acton's literary output. His letters to Mary Gladstone constitute one of the most remarkable and stimulating volumes of correspondence published of recent years, but correspondence cannot be treated as the chief product of a scholar. His admirers have been anxious that his name should be associated with something more directly representative, and the two very competent editors of this volume have set to work to elaborate these "Lectures on Modern History" from the notes of one of the courses he delivered at Cambridge. The result is, on the whole, disappointing, and the reasons for this are not far to seek. To begin with, notes for lectures generally make poor books, and it is

so in this case. Again, the subject is too large for the space in which it is treated, and suffers from overcompression. For in nineteen lectures, Acton covers modern history from the fall of Constantinople to the framing of our Constitution in 1787. This need for compression, coupled with his almost morbid desire for stating generalities, produces occasionally whole paragraphs in which history gets strangely distorted; of these, perhaps, the most conspicuous example is the last paragraph of the book, in which, within the space of six or seven lines, he commits himself to the following propositions: that our Civil War arose from the lack of a definition of State rights in the Constitution; that "weighed in the scales of Liberalism" the Constitution "was a monstrous fraud"; and that the principle of Federalism has made our present community more powerful, more free, and more intelligent than any other in the world; in all of which propositions, the reader will easily discern the dangers of hasty generalizing from part truths. In the lectures as a whole the stress is laid on the early period, the wars of religion; while the eighteenth century gets very little attention. This is doubtless owing to the fact that in his following course, on the French Revolution, Acton dealt largely with the movement of opinion in the years preceding. Running through the book may be traced the dominant phase of Acton's thought, that, from the Renaissance to the present day, the mainspring of Western history is the change from the superiority of religion over politics to that of politics over religion. As to this line of thought, pregnant though it be, the student may take this word of warning, that Acton was not at his strongest on questions of economics.

As to the editorial work, it should be noted that the editors do not vouchsafe one word about the text they have used; and that they make no attempt to correct the not infrequent errors of detail.

Tarry at Home Travels. By Edward Everett Hale. Illustrated. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2.50 net.

Dr. Hale's new volume embraces with but little alteration the series of papers contributed to the *Outlook* under the same general title during the past two years. The literature of travel, he thinks, is noticeably scant in the section devoted to the United States. If we limit ourselves to formal books of travel, written by Americans, this may be true, but Dr. Hale's own effort to supply the gap contains ample proof that the literary traveller here at home is hard pressed to find much of an objective character that a well-informed reader has not already met with in one form or another. Formally, the volume is divided into sections dealing with the six New England States in order, New York, and Washington city. It is in the guide himself, however, and not in the localities visited or the historical incidents related, that the reader will find his chief interest. On the whole, we should classify the book rather with the stream of personal reminiscence that has been flowing out of New England so copiously of recent years than with the literature of travel strictly so called. On that score, however, the work loses none of its potential value.

One defect of the work we may illustrate by a quotation: "'A little college,' Daniel Webster said; 'but she has children who love her.'" Now that is just what Mr. Webster would have said if he had been Mr. Hale, but being Mr. Webster his words were, "It is, sir, as I have said, a small college. And yet there are those who love it." We would not overrate the importance of what is in itself a mere trifle, but it is typical of an inexactness against which one must always be on his guard in reading Dr. Hale, or any other writer who falls into the habit of drawing upon a richly stored memory without checking results by the aid of external authorities. There are nearly two hundred illustrations, on the whole well selected.

Drama.

Sir Henry Irving, a Biography. By Percy Fitzgerald. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.

It is too soon yet to look for anything like an authoritative and judicial estimate of the histrionic genius of Henry Irving—for genius he undoubtedly possessed, though it was limited by arbitrary bounds. Already he has been the subject of a considerable mass of printed matter, but most of it has proceeded from enthusiastic eulogists, either intimate friends or interested scribblers. Mr. Fitzgerald belongs to the former category, and reveals the relationship clearly enough in many of his glowing periods; but he is not so blinded that he cannot see the spots upon his luminary. Moreover, he is a practised workman in biography, and his book gives a really comprehensive view of the actor's career. It would be better if it were a little more conservative and a little less discursive, but as a rule his selection of matter and his arrangement of it are both good, while his comment is generally pertinent and well informed.

Without indulging in repetition of wearisome details, he shows how much Irving was indebted for his mastery of the technical business of the stage to his long training in the old stock companies, and especially to his service, or rather servitude, in Dublin and Manchester. Bills were often changed half a dozen times a week, and it was a common thing for him to play three parts in an evening. He acted in pantomime, farce, comedy, and tragedy. Even then he attracted attention by the care he devoted to his make-up. He would spend his last penny to get a correct costume. From his earliest boyhood he frequented Sadler's Wells to study the acting and elocution of Phelps in Shakspeare. In earlier days his speech was almost entirely free from the tricks which disfigured it later. His first marked successes in London, as Chevenix, Rawdon Scudamore, and Digby Grant, were due to the minute finish of his work rather than inspiration. He was not suspected of having any peculiar power of emotional expression until he found himself, so to speak, in Hood's "Dream of Eugene Aram" and in "The Bells"; and it is worthy of note that to the end of his career, in tragedy or melodrama, it was in the portrayal of the terrors of a guilty conscience that he chiefly excelled. His Louis

XI, Vanderdecken, Richard III., and Macbeth are cases in point. It is curious that Mr. Fitzgerald, generally a pretty sound critic, seems to prefer Coquelin's dull Mathias to Irving's imaginative conception.

Speaking of Irving's Macbeth, Mr. Fitzgerald notes that it underwent many changes. At first its moral and intellectual feebleness excited much derision. Later on it became firmer and bolder, though never a satisfactory impersonation. In reading the part on the platform he made it much more impressive. His Hamlet, although the cause of much controversy, was always popular. Mr. Fitzgerald regards Philip, in Tennyson's play, as one of his masterpieces in the portrayal of eccentric character. When the famous production of "The Merchant of Venice" was made, the event was celebrated by a great supper, at which many illustrious persons were present. An awkward situation was brought about by Lord Houghton, who, in a satirical speech, intimated that Shakspeare had been entirely eclipsed by the scenery. Irving parried the attack with smiling good temper, and thus averted what might have been a painful scene. Lord Houghton's complaint, according to Mr. Fitzgerald, would have been much more justifiable in the case of "Romeo and Juliet," when Shakspeare was, he says, literally "smothered in scenery." Irving's Romeo he describes as absolutely grotesque. His Iago, on the other hand, was, he says, one of the best things he ever did. He prefers it, apparently, to that of Edwin Booth, but his judgment in this case will not be generally accepted. Perhaps there is a little prejudice in it, for he intimates that Booth, who had been treated with great generosity by Irving, did not attempt to return the compliment when the English player was in the United States. It would be interesting to know whether Irving had any grievance on this score.

But it is impossible to note all the interesting points in Mr. Fitzgerald's pages. Only one or two more can be mentioned. It certainly is not generally known that "Twelfth Night" had a hostile reception when first presented at the Lyceum, and that Irving was forced to make a protest before the curtain. It appears that his Malvolio, an admirable conception, was quite misunderstood. That his Joseph Surface, played at a memorable benefit, was an utter failure, is not surprising. He tried to play it along new lines, and seems to have spoiled it utterly. Mr. Fitzgerald traces the beginning of Irving's decline to his separation from Ellen Terry. He draws a pathetic picture of the last few months of the great actor's life. Misfortune after misfortune overtook him. He lost his theatre, his great stores of scenery were burned, he was crushed by debt, and his health was failing. He was broken both in mind and spirit, but he struggled on courageously in the hope of making money enough to keep him in old age. In his prosperity he had been recklessly prodigal both of money and of strength, and in his need he had neither the one nor the other. Death was merciful, saved him from humiliation, and crowned him with honor in Westminster Abbey, before the memory of all his triumphs, theatrical and social, had begun to grow dim.

The new classic tragedy, "The Virgin Goddess," the first work of a new dramat-

ist, Rudolf Besier, which has just been produced at the London Adelphi, appears to be a remarkable work, in spite of some faults, largely due to youth and inexperience. It is, as we noted in our issue of October 25, written upon the lines of the old Greek plays; and it is said to be as interesting as it is bold and imaginative. Artis, a legendary city, is in peril of the enemy. Cresphontes, the king, is willing to make a disgraceful truce, but his Queen Althea and his people are all for resistance. Althea then sends for Hæphestion (*sic*), the exiled brother of her husband, who alone can reanimate the fainting troops. He returns, and as the king still insists upon capitulation, kills him. As the king's dead body is borne to the temple of Artemis, it is met by his mother, who calls for vengeance. She consents to pardon Hæphestion, however, if the deed was really done for love of country. In the next act there is but one scene; Althea and Hæphestion are alone, and the latter confesses that it was for her, and not for country, that he slew his brother. She reciprocates his passion, and both rejoice that there is nothing to bar their union. But Artemis, the Virgin Goddess of the city, will not permit the crime to go unpunished; she proclaims, through her oracle, that Cresphontes must be avenged, that Althea must be put to death by no other hand than that of Hæphestion, or Artis and all its people shall perish. Moreover, adds the oracle, Hæphestion shall not stir from the altar until this vengeance be accomplished. In the fourth act Hæphestion is disclosed at the altar steps. The troops are clamoring for their leader; the enemy is advancing. But Hæphestion cannot move. Again and again he strides forward, defying Heaven; again and again he is paralyzed by an unseen force. Powerless as he is, he cries out that Artis may fall and all its people perish, but he will not slay the Queen. The contempt and rage of his mother and cries of the despairing women cannot change him. Not till Althea herself comes and tells him that this is the crown and glory of their love does he lead her within the temple, there to fulfil the decree of Fate. Soon he returns and announces, "The Queen is dead." At the words victory comes, and the enraptured people shout their joy. But he stands rigid, a figure of stone, and so the play ends. It seems to have been acted very finely. Miss Brayton was a noble figure as Althea; Miss Genevieve Warde acted the old blind Queen mother with wonderful effect; while Oscar Asche made Hæphestion heroic in his fierce love and furious despair. The representation, as a whole, seems to have been one of the most notable of recent events on the English stage.

Whatever degree of success—and it is likely to be considerable—awaits Arthur Conan Doyle's military romance, "Brigadier Gerard," which was produced in the Savoy Theatre of this city Monday evening, must be placed to the credit of Kyrle Bellew, who played the hero with a dash and grace which few, if any, of his younger contemporaries could equal. The play itself, although pretty well furnished with more or less picturesque incident, is but poor stuff dramatically, the plot being a mixture of very old stage materials, and the rough

machinery at times creaking rather dismally.

Charles Scribner's Sons publish in an attractive little volume three farces by Richard Harding Davis. "The Dictator," "The Galloper," and "Miss Civilization," all of which enjoyed a considerable measure of popularity upon the stage. They are illustrated by photographs of various scenes with the groups of actors who played in them, which will gratify the collectors of such theatrical souvenirs.

Next week Houghton, Mifflin & Co. publish "The Struggle for a Free Stage in London," by Watson Nicholson, an instructor in English at Yale. The book gives the history of the theatrical monopoly which reigned in London until 1843, and has lessons for the present day.

The Early English Drama Society announces that it has under collation all the plays that were included in its first six volumes without such treatment, and that future issues will in all cases be compared with the original texts or photographic copies. The society will also issue as an extra volume to its first series the recently recovered plays, "Wealth and Health" and "Impatient Poverty," with other matter of interest.

Music.

THE SAINT-SAËNS CONCERT.

It had been arranged that M. Saint-Saëns should make his American début in Boston; a temporary indisposition, however, made necessary a rearrangement of dates, and thus the honor of welcoming France's greatest composer fell to New York. He was announced for two appearances with the New York Symphony Orchestra, last Saturday and Sunday; but the demand for tickets was so great that two extra concerts, with Saint-Saëns programmes exclusively, were scheduled for November 15 and 18. He was welcomed to Carnegie Hall with a cordiality that contrasted sharply with the coldly polite greeting accorded last season to another French composer, Vincent d'Indy, who represents the Parisian branch of the modern school of cacophony. Unlike D'Indy, Saint-Saëns believes in using dissonance as a means, and not as an end, and the musical public is certainly with him.

With his fresh and abundant melody, his piquant harmonies, his sparkling rhythms, his polish, and his never-failing musical *esprit*, Saint-Saëns represents the true French spirit in music—the spirit of Auber, Berlioz, Bizet, and Gounod. The pieces which he played, and which were new to New York concert-goers—his "Africa" fantasia, an "Allegro Appassionata," and a "Valse Caprice," oddly entitled "Wedding Cake" (perhaps because of its delicate rhythmic "frosting")—were all unmistakably French. They sounded amazingly juvenile for a composer who has passed his seventy-first birthday; indeed, Saint-Saëns is still what he was called twelve years ago, *ce jeune maître*. The sparkle of youth is in his playing, as well as in his eyes and his music. His playing perhaps resembles that of Mr. Joseffy more than that of any other pianist known here; it has the same

dainty charm, clearness, and elegance without being in the least cold; the same subtle accents and tints; and when he plays his own pieces there is the super-added charm of being in direct communion with one of the greatest masters of our time.

M. Saint-Saëns will give an organ recital in Brooklyn on December 3, either at the Plymouth Church or the Baptist Temple. He was organist for nearly twenty years at the Madeleine in Paris. While in that position he composed an immense amount of music for the organ, especially for the church festivals, but all these compositions, which are said to include some of his most inspired work, lie buried in the library of the Madeleine. They belong to the church, according to the organist's contract, and will be published only after Saint-Saëns's death.

Modern Music and Musicians. By R. A. Streatfeild. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2.75.

Mr. Streatfeild uses the word "modern" in a very comprehensive sense, inasmuch as his book begins with chapters on Palestrina, who was born in 1514, and Bach and Handel, who were born in 1685. He was led to undertake the book, he says, by the hope of being able to trace, in a study of the works of the great composers, the growth of the idea of a poetic basis in music, and he hopes that this will tempt some one else to write a complete history of programme music. He believes that music is not a mere science, such as the advocates of absolute music would have it, but that it is a means of expressing human emotion as definite and incisive as any of its sister arts. After this preamble one is rather surprised to find so little about programme music in the volume. That, however, we do not note as a fault. As a matter of fact the subject of programme music has received, in recent years, rather more than its share of attention.

There is a good deal that is insular in Mr. Streatfeild. To him Handel is the Shakespeare of music, and he has the usual English aversion to deep musical emotion apart from the religious sphere. One reads with mingled amusement and weariness that "over all Chopin's music lies the deadly trail of disease," and that Tchaikovsky "sinks to morbid pessimism, he rises to hysteria." In his remarks on two English idols—Purcell and Mendelssohn—our author shows, on the other hand, a surprising degree of emancipation from insular prejudices. He often feels sorry "for earnest students who, after reading the glowing eulogies showered upon Purcell by historians, turn to his works and find in them so much that is puerile, ineffective, and absurd that they give up the composer and his eulogists, bag and baggage, as a set of humbugs." Purcell's strong and weak points are judiciously balanced by the writer. He has the courage not only to say of Mendelssohn's "St. Paul" that the music is "often arid and expressionless, and not unfrequently suggests the laborious scholar, rather than the inspired musician"; but that dramatic oratorio, in spite of "Elijah," remains "a hybrid and unsatisfactory form of art."

Other opinions of Mr. Streatfeild that will make some nod assent, others dissent

violently, are that "Gluck's achievements as a reformer have been overestimated"; that "Wagner was great, not because of his theories, but in spite of them"; that at the present moment "Italy is the only country in which opera is a living force." Concerning this last sentiment may we gently suggest to the author that there is more real genius in the "Shamus O'Brien" of the Irishman, Charles Villiers Stanford, than in all the combined operas of Mascagni, Leoncavallo, and Puccini, none of whom reaches even to the knees of Verdi, Italy's last great master.

Puccini's opera, "Madama Butterfly," will have its first New York performance, in English, at the Garden Theatre on November 12.

A monumental life of Chopin is being prepared by Ferdinand Hoesick. The first volume, of 881 pages, is out in Polish, and is being translated into German, French, and English. It is said to contain not only new and interesting details, but corrections of numerous errors in previous books on Chopin.

Wilhelm Tappert has brought out a new edition of his "Erking" brochure. It contains a list of settings of Goethe's great ballad by seventy different composers, together with critical comments (Berlin: Albert Stahl).

Art.

TREASURES FROM THE ARTEMISIUM AT EPHEBUS.

LONDON, October 31.

Archæologists who are looking forward to a complete account of the latest finds in the Artemisium of Ephesus during last winter will have to wait until spring, when D. G. Hogarth's official work on the temple is published by the British Museum. The objects themselves are all destined for the museum at Constantinople, where, unfortunately, only a limited number of scholars will find them within reach.

Mr. Hogarth has been fortunate enough to discover one of the most valuable pockets of antiquarian treasure which have yet come to light, whether artistic, archæological, or contributory to the history of religion. Although much has been unearthed of various dates in the great temple, the present treasure includes approximately 4,000 objects, which must be attributed to dates roughly comprised between 700 B. C. and 600 B. C.; that is, they antedate the time of Cræsus. The only considerable exception to this limit of antiquity must be made in the case of the coins, many of which run to remoter periods, and, probably, antedate any known existing coins. Some must certainly be attributed to the eighth century before Christ. Among them are mere lumps of metal without any impression or mark of stamp. Others, very archaic, are imprinted with four characters, Digamma, Alpha, Lambda, Digamma—which have been interpreted as the first four letters of the name of King Alyates, supposing that his name had been spelled with two digammas as the first and fourth letters, which subsequently dropped out. But as there is no other evidence that his name

was thus spelled, the matter must remain pure conjecture.

The Artemisium excavated last year is not the Temple of Diana of Ephesus, which was the scene of the exploits of Demetrius and the silversmiths. That was a much later temple, the seat of a more decadent form of worship. The most interesting, if intrinsically less valuable, portion of the find, to many will be the rude terracotta figures of Artemis, of which there are several examples. She is nowhere represented as the luxuriant many-breasted figure of later date. Her form is straight, stiff, but not ungainly. Sometimes, and these figures are the most archaic of all, she has an infant in her arms in an attitude strongly recalling many representations of the Madonna and Child. In this connection it is worth while to recall that probably the worship of motherhood was a legacy transmitted from prehistoric times to Christianity in this very city of Ephesus. It was at Ephesus that the Council of the Church was held which condemned Nestorius and raised the worship of the mother of Christ into a Catholic rite. It was said that the passionate devotion of the populace to the sanctity of the Virgin largely contributed to the decision of the council.

Other figures of Artemis show her accompanied by two images, or one, of her sacred bird, the hawk. Sometimes, as in an exquisite tablet, she is shown winged, with a lion suspended by the tail in each hand. The hawk is probably the most ancient and most frequent of her emblems, appearing in the most curious disguises. There is one extremely rude, squat figure, absolutely novel, painted black, with yellow spots, only recognizable as a bird or hawk by its eyes and hooked beak. In others, minutely finished in silver or gold, the hawk comes to resemble so nearly an owl or an eagle that only its association with Artemis enables one to recognize it.

When on exhibition, the objects will probably be classified by their materials: jewels and crystals, amber and beads, bone and ivory, bronzes, articles made with gold, silver, and electrum. This latter compound raises an interesting question as to how it came to be used. It might well be an intentional amalgam of gold and silver, but for various reasons it seems probable that the Ionians found it in a raw state and so used it. Pliny speaks of a natural mixture of gold and silver being found in the Hierius sands. Another circumstance which confirms this view is that the objects made of electrum show all variations of the compound, but with the gold largely predominating. It is improbable that this would have been the case if any artificial alloys of the metals had been used, which must necessarily have conformed to some standards as a mere affair of habit.

But as a matter of description it is perhaps simpler to adopt another classification in accordance with the purpose of the offerings or their character rather than with their material or value. The primary interest attaches, as mentioned above, to the representations of Artemis herself, of which there are surprisingly few, and those of a character which indicate an elevated religious feeling. Her attributes and accompanying emblems are far more common. There are innumerable

able hawks in gold, silver, bronze, stamped in relief, or carved in the round. Almost more frequent still is her bee—the *melissa*—which appears again symbolically everywhere. An elaborately worked bee is one of the most beautiful of the gold jewels. The bee's body and wings are the basis, too, of many stereotyped patterns and ornaments.

Besides these especial emblems, there are various animals which by their style and shape connect Ionian art with the civilizations of which it was the common meeting-place. There are Egyptian scarabs and sphinxes; Persian sphinxes; a lion passant with a strong Assyrian character. Harpies, too, are frequent. There is a peculiar couching boar; also a rough sketch of a calf, which strongly recalls in shape some of the latest finds made by Mr. Bosanquet at Sparta. Add some frogs and sheep, but curiously enough no cows or horses.

Next to the goddess and her emblems come in the range of interest, though hardly in artistic merit, the various *ex voto* offerings. It takes one with a jump from Ephesus to Lourdes, over 2,500 years, to see a pathetic pair of hands and arms beaten in thin gold and joined above so that they resemble a delicate pair of sugar tongs. Yet this represents, perhaps, a cure of leprosy or some curious wound on both arms. There are thin plates of gold just distinguishable as eyes or ears; legs, feet, and hands in plenty.

Among objects once in use the largest is a three-wicked marble lamp. There are bronze bowls, knives, ivory knife handles, musical pipes, and some large cowries, which may have been currency or mere necklace ornaments like beads. There is a large and important set of *astragali*, the earliest form of dice. They are mostly carved in bone and ivory, and are of all shapes, from mere knucklebones to elaborately carved ivories, studded with gold and amber, resembling nothing so much as two draughts joined at one edge. The *astragali*, with differing sides, were thrown by the petitioner to the goddess in order to ascertain by their fall whether his prayer would be granted or not. In connection with the *astragali* there are some mysterious circular rock crystal disks with fluted edges, which may be of this character, except that they were always found singly, and no one could fit another exactly. Another explanation may be that they were worn as buttons on some ceremonial dress, but their purpose cannot as yet be exactly determined.

The kernel of the treasure is, of course, the abundant stock of personal ornaments mostly made of the precious metals, but some also of bronze and lead. There are more than a thousand of these made of gold and electrum alone, with a small quantity of silver. They range from heavy bracelets, chains, *fibula*, and earrings down to the most minute trinkets. There is a wonderful collection of repoussé gold plates, evidently intended to be sewn on dress materials. Some patterns which are of the purest design and highest artistic value are multiplied to serve the purpose of embroidery on a very rich dress. On the repoussé work and especially on the *fibula* is repeated the *melissa* pattern, and also, though not so frequently, that of the *labrys*, or double axe, which played so large

a part in the Cretan discoveries. The *fibulae* and earrings predominate among the gold jewels, and next to them come a large number of hair ornaments, some obviously hairpins, but others of a more mysterious shape. Probably no woman could now compass their use, but their appearance suggests that a single lock was placed within them and given a double twist, to keep it apart from the rest of the hair.

The hypothesis as to the vast number of precious ornaments is that they were devoted by pious worshippers to the personal use of the goddess. They were found segregated from the other and more bulky part of the treasure in the very centre of the temple site, buried within a small rectangular space, which was situated at the crossing place of the two long halls forming the building. Evidently this must have been the base of the statue of the goddess herself, and this rather naïve devotion of material wealth to her tends to confirm the early date of the find and the value of the objects.

The presence of the large number of coins and the tendency of some of the inscriptions, which are, however, at present conjectural, lead one also to suppose that the temple at this early date or perhaps later served some secular purpose as a treasury or even as a mint; but whether this be so or not, we must wait for Mr. Hogarth's book to explain to us. G. B. D.

Frits Thaulow, whose death at Volendam, Holland, was announced this week, was the first Norwegian painter of modern times to receive international recognition. He was born in 1847 at Christiania, studied with Soerensen at Copenhagen, and with Gude at Carlsruhe, but his painting was chiefly influenced by the example of the French impressionists, whose mode of vision, if not technical method, he fully adopted. In the representation of snow scenes and of frozen rivers he was remarkable. For more than twenty years past he had been settled at Paris, making occasional visits to this country, where in particular he painted some pictures of the steel foundries at Pittsburgh. In his later years, owing to over-production, the pressure of dealers, and removal from his home scenes, his painting lost much of its vitality and charm. Honors and prizes of all sorts were showered upon him; and while by no means a great artist, he is likely to be remembered as a cunning practitioner in landscape.

The Watts Memorial Gallery has recently been opened at the artist's country home at Limnerslease. Among the important works to be seen there are "Progress," "Paolo and Francesca," "Godiva," "The Slumber of the Ages," "Green Summer," "Diana and Endymion," and portraits of Walter Crane, Joachim, Swinburne, Meredith, Mrs. Langtry, and others. There are also many drawings and studies; and when the sculpture gallery is completed, the models of the artist's statue "Physical Energy," his statue of Tennyson at Lincoln, and the tomb of the Bishop of Lichfield will be placed on view.

A new portrait, presumably of Charlotte Brontë, acquired by the National Portrait Gallery of London, has provoked a sharp controversy. This portrait was attribut-

ed to Paul Heger, who was acquainted with Miss Brontë about 1844 in Brussels. This attribution has now been upset by a letter from Heger's son, who says that neither he nor his father was either painter or draughtsman. Nor can the dates involved be made to fit by five or six years.

The exhibition of works of art of the eighteenth century at the Bibliothèque Nationale comprises proofs of works by the finest English engravers of the latter half of the eighteenth century, hanging side by side with examples of French aquatint, stipple, and rare engravings printed in color. As lack of space made it impossible to exhibit oil paintings to show the sources of the inspiration of the engravers, a collection of miniatures and gouaches is exhibited for the same purpose. To these are added medals and "biscuits de Sèvres," a collection containing more than a thousand examples.

M. S. Prichard writes correcting an inadvertence in the editorial, "Museum Extension in Schools," in our issue of November 1. He was never "acting-director" of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, but had been assistant director, and was bursar at the time of his resignation to take the secretaryship of the Committee on the Utilization of the Museum by the Schools and Colleges.

Science.

Theory of the Algebraic Functions of a Complex Variable. By J. C. Fields. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.

This is a serious and daring essay in one of the most difficult fields of modern mathematics. While the subject is primarily analytic or algebraic, its investigation has been mainly carried on since the great memoirs of Puiseux in 1854 and of Riemann in 1857 by the powerful assistance of geometric considerations. Indeed, geometric notions have dominated to such an extent in the leading developments that the student scarcely thinks of the subject in other terms; and the chief treatises, such as those of Neumann and of Appell and Goursat, are little else than expositions of the doctrine in terms of the theory of Riemann surfaces. All the advantages of that fertile and illuminating method will be missed by the readers of Professor Fields's volume, for the method is purely algebraic. This mode of treatment is undoubtedly legitimate, and may have certain purely logical advantages of its own, but it will hardly win the approval of that larger mathematical constituency that Klein and Poincaré have called intuitionists. At all events, the author should not, we think, have failed to indicate explicitly the connections of his own exposition with the masterful geometric treatises of his predecessors.

Not only is Professor Fields's method purely algebraic, but it aims at perfect generality; that is, it undertakes to give a theory for any algebraic equation whatever, reducible or irreducible, no matter how complicated the singularities and no matter what its character at infinity. Here surely is an impressive programme, and

at many points it is well performed. The summit of the steep ascent is reached in chapter xii., where we encounter the commanding "complementary theorem": the number of arbitrary constants involved in the expression of the most general rational function constructed on a given basis of coincidences, added to half the sum of the orders of the coincidences explicitly required by the basis, is equal to the like number constructed with reference to the complementary basis. From the eminence here attained one is permitted to behold readily a variety of classic propositions that have hitherto been found only by difficult and circuitous paths. In this service is found, we think, the chief claim of the work to distinction; for the propositions thus disclosed to view are such as the Riemann-Roch theorem, the reciprocity theorem of Brill and Nöther, the so-called gap theorem of Weierstrass, and the related theorem of Hurwitz.

The volume contains an excellent table of contents, but no index. The page is a delight to the eye. In the interest, however, of accentuation and convenience, important theorems should have been set apart and italicised.

While opinions may differ as to the need of more such books, it must be admitted that the "Manual of Anatomy" (vol. 1: Osteology; Upper Limb; Lower Limb) prepared by Prof. A. M. Buchanan of Anderson's College, Glasgow (Chicago: W. T. Keener & Co.), is an eminently practical book, convenient in form and beautifully printed. The illustrations are numerous and for the most part clear and helpful, the judicious use of color playing no inconsiderable part. The text is clear and concise, with constant attention to the demands of the dissecting room and the training of the surgeon, the rational treatment of topographical matters being particularly commendable. On the other hand it is to be regretted that varieties and abnormalities are not noted more fully, and that the more important questions of comparative anatomy are not brought to the notice of the student. The index is liberal, but contains no mention of the ligament of Poupert.

For the use of schools, Little, Brown & Co. have published an "Atlas of Physiology and Anatomy of the Human Body," made up of nine figures, each consisting of a number of leaves, or layers, to show the parts as they appear when the region or organ is dissected. A very brief descriptive text has been supplied by Dr. A. M. Amadon. Such a book may be helpful to students when a manikin or good models are not accessible, but it must be used cautiously, as some of the figures are difficult to understand, or are actually wrong, as, for example, the relation of the liver to the duodenum, on the fifth leaf of the first plate. The appearance of the skeleton on the third leaf is very unsatisfactory, and the textual statement (p. 31) that the vagus supplies "the heart with motion" is bad for the beginner, even though his teacher be a "neurogenist."

With the title "Tuberculosis, its Origin and Extinction" (The Macmillan Co.), Dr. W. Pickett Turner has printed an enlargement of a lecture given by him on this sub-

ject. His theories are novel, but the evidence presented is far too fragmentary and inconclusive to appeal very strongly to those who are familiar with the questions involved. Dr. Turner's contention is briefly that the extinction of tuberculosis is to be brought about by actinism, *i. e.*, by the action of the ultra-violet rays which are supposed to penetrate the body and affect the bacteria either directly or indirectly.

Dr. Dudley A. Sargent of the Harvard gymnasium has given much valuable information upon physical training in his book of that title (Boston: Ginn & Co.). Reasons for exercise are many and varied, and the value of almost every kind is set forth clearly. There is much of interest in the volume.

"Farm Animals," by E. V. Wilcox (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is a practical book for general farm use, judiciously arranged for the largest helpfulness to the largest number of readers. It does not furnish essays on any one animal, nor does it give anything like complete information on any single topic; that is, it will not make a good dairyman or a good shepherd, nor will it cover all the needs of a stableman. It is rather an excellent compend of general information about the horse, the mule, beef cattle, dairy cows, pigs, sheep, goats, and poultry. The chapter on dairy stock is the best in the book, but every chapter is good. The illustrations have the advantage of being well related to the subject. Every part of the discussion is brought down to date, and nothing is admitted which has not passed scrutiny at our agricultural experiment stations.

A new feature of the New York Botanical Garden will be an economic patch, devoted to specimens of growing plants which are of practical use to man. A great many economic plants have already been brought together in the conservatories, but these are, naturally, from warm or tropical regions, and the new collection is intended to show such as are hardy in this latitude. Planting will be begun very soon, and will be continued next spring. Following the classification of the plant products in the economic museum, the groups of the species grown here will consist of food, drug, and fibre plants, and those yielding miscellaneous products used in arts, sciences, and industries.

The chemical industry in Germany is the principal subject treated in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number nine. The facts are taken from the returns of the census of 1895, the main purpose of the author, Dr. W. Dall, being to show the geographical distribution of the industry throughout the Empire. Some details are given of a few of the works, and from the accompanying map we learn that the largest number, 12,000 hands, are employed at Ludwigshafen, in Baden, where are the greatest aniline and soda factories in the world, and where artificial indigo was first put upon the market. N. A. Busch describes a journey through the northern Caucasus region for the purpose of studying its botany, especially that of the Alpenzones.

Sir David Gill, who has been His Majesty's astronomer at the Cape of Good Hope since 1879, has offered his resignation, to take effect next February.

Finance.

SNATCHING CONTROL OF RAILWAYS.

The ousting of Stuyvesant Fish from the presidency of the Illinois Central Railway, this week, by vote of his own directors acting in the interest of E. H. Harriman, has again directed attention to the effort of powerful financiers to increase, by hook or crook, the number of railways under their personal control. This movement reached remarkable proportions at the time of the excited financial "boom" at the opening of 1901. During two or three successive months, such announcements were made as the purchase of the \$101,000,000 Southern Pacific Railway, by the Union Pacific; of the \$98,000,000 Chicago, Burlington, & Quincy, by the Northern Pacific and the Great Northern; and of the \$27,000,000 New Jersey Central, by the Reading. All of these purchases, some of them made in open market at extravagant prices, were paid for with proceeds of bonds, issued by the purchasing companies and sold to the eager investing public. The "game of grab," as it was called even then, culminated in the famous fight between Union Pacific and Great Northern for control of the Northern Pacific's \$80,000,000 stock. The movement came to an end when the markets broke down in May, 1901, under the load of new securities.

Efforts of the same sort were renewed when the Stock Exchange got its breath again. Shares of half a dozen great railways were bid up to unheard-of figures by capitalists trying to get control in open market. In 1902 a band of stock-jobbing adventurers started in to buy up, with borrowed money, shares of some of the few independent railways. These people thus secured possession of the \$10,000,000 Chicago, Indianapolis, and Louisville, and of the \$52,000,000 Louisville and Nashville. They could not have kept their purchase; but their object was to force banking interests, connected with rival railways, to take over the stock at a still higher figure, rather than risk demoralizing competition in rates. The blackmailed bankers meekly paid the price, and issued bonds of their own railway companies to raise the money.

To this kind of performance the financial collapse of 1903—the "rich men's panic"—put an end; and it was two years before the talk of "buying up other railways" was heard again in Wall Street. But with the country's recent great prosperity, and the revival of daring speculation, on the part both of the public and of the railway millionaires, the attempt to capture independent railways was resumed. The achievement was not so easy as in 1902, however, and for several reasons. Resources of capital had been so overstrained by heavy trade and extensive speculation that new bonds could not find a ready market; such operations as those of 1901 were therefore too dangerous. Again, the Wall Street millionaires who arranged the "railway deals" of 1901 had the surplus of life insurance companies placed at their disposal, to guarantee the undertakings. This was no longer possible after the Armstrong investigation. Finally, owners of the independent roads had in the interim fortified their own position, and with many of

them, control could not be bought at any price.

The Illinois Central episode shows what expedients were at the last adopted in the "game of grab." E. H. Harriman of the Union Pacific wanted the road—partly for a southern outlet from his own lines; partly, so Wall Street inferred, because Stuyvesant Fish had, as chairman of the Mutual Life trustees' investigating committee, pushed his inquiries uncomfortably close to certain large capitalists on the board. His investigation was blocked by President Peabody of the Mutual, but the incident was not forgotten. Harriman was unable to buy up Illinois Central stock; it was too securely lodged with real investors. After attempting unsuccessfully to obtain control without purchase—through organizing a "holding company" in which Illinois Central shareholders were invited to place their stock—Harriman secretly organized a revolt against Mr. Fish in his own board of directors.

By what means he prevailed, it is not easy to say; but on Wednesday of this week, at a "snap" meeting of the board, called when one of Mr. Fish's supporters was ill and another likely to be kept away by political engagements, the directors voted to unseat Mr. Fish in favor of a tool of Harriman. Among the directors working and voting against Mr. Fish was Charles A. Peabody, president of the Mutual Life, who had refused to put Mr. Fish's inquiries to the trustees, who is a director in Harriman's Union Pacific Railway, and who has lately won distinction for his letter threatening those agents of his insurance company who did not support the administration ticket.

This particular "railway capture" has been marked, in a quite unusual degree, by intrigue and treachery. It also provides an instance where one of the few remaining independent railways has been seized without the annoying preliminary of buying it. The incident is in this respect suggestive. The orgie of railway speculation in the seventies came to a climax by very much such methods; but they marked its approaching end.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Bain, John, Jr. Cigarettes in Fact and Fancy. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co.
 Bibliography of Folk-Lore, 1905. London: David Nutt.
 Book-Prices Current. London: Elliot Stock.
 Conferences on the Moral Philosophy of Medicine. Keegan Co.
 Dietzgen, Joseph. The Positive Outcome of Philosophy. Translated by Ernest Untermann. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
 Dix, William Frederick. The Face in the Girandole. Moffat, Yard & Co. \$2 net.
 Dodge, Henry Irving. The Hat and the Man. G. W. Dillingham Co.
 Dole, Charles Fletcher. The Hope of Immortality. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents net.
 Donnell, Annie Hamilton. The Very Small Person. Harpers. \$1.25.
 Feuilletons Choisis. Edited by Cloudesley Brereton. Henry Frowde.
 Forbes-Lindsay, C. H. Panama. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. \$1 net.
 Franklin, Benjamin. The Writings of. Edited by Albert Henry Smyth. Vols. VIII, and IX. Macmillan Co. \$3 net per vol.
 Frenssen, Gustav. Peter Moors Fahrt nach Südwest. Lemcke & Buchner.
 Greenleaf, Sue. Don Miguel Lehumada. B. W. Dodge & Co.
 Gubernatis, Angelo de. Ecrivains du Monde Latin. S. 6th livraison. Rome.
 Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. XVII. Cambridge, Mass.
 Hudson, William Cadwalader. J. P. Dunbar. B. W. Dodge & Co.
 Hull, Eleanor. A Text Book of Irish Literature. Part I. London: David Nutt. 3s. net.
 Johnson, Burgess. Beastly Rhymes. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1 net.
 Kidd, Dudley. Savage Childhood. Macmillan Co. \$3.50.
 Lewis, Alfred Henry. Confessions of a Detective. A. S. Barnes & Co. \$1.50.

Moore, T. Sturge. Correggio. Imported by Scribners. \$2 net.
 Munson, John W. Reminiscences of a Mosby Guerrilla. Moffat, Yard & Co. \$2 net.
 Nicholson, J. S. The Relations of Rents, Wages, and Profits in Agriculture. Imported by Scribners. \$1.
 Pendegrast, William A. Credit and Its Uses. Appleton. \$1.50 net.
 Perkins, Lucy Fitch. The Goose Girl. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
 Politovsky, Eugene S. From Lihau to Tsushima. Translated by F. R. Godfrey. Dutton. \$1.50 net.
 Riley, Alice C. D. The Wishbone Boat. Boston:

H. M. Caldwell Co. 75 cents.
 Rivers, W. H. R. The Todas. Macmillan Co. 21s. net.
 Ross, Minnie S. C. Around the Mediterranean. Grafton Press.
 Russell, George W. E. Social Silhouettes. Dutton. \$3 net.
 Sanderson, Edgar. Great Britain in Modern Africa. Imported by Scribners. \$1.75 net.
 Selections from the Sahih of Al-Buhari. Edited by Charles C. Torrey. Leiden: E. J. Brill.
 Sentence Analysis. Henry Frowde. 1s. 6d.
 Seymour, Frederick H. A. Saunterings in Spain. Dutton. \$3 net.

Swinburne, Algernon Charles. William Blake. Dutton. \$2 net.
 Talbot, Ellen Bliss. The Fundamental Principles of Fichte's Philosophy. Macmillan Co.
 Talbot, Ethelbert. My People of the Plains. Harpers. \$1.75 net.
 Van Nyevelt, Baroness Suzette Van Zuylen. Court Life in the Dutch Republic. Dutton. \$4 net.
 Wells, H. G. The Future of America. Harpers. \$2 net.
 Wheeler, Charles Kirkland. Hundredth Century Philosophy. Boston: Press of James H. West Co.
 Wheeler, Ethel R. Behind the Veil. London: David Nutt.

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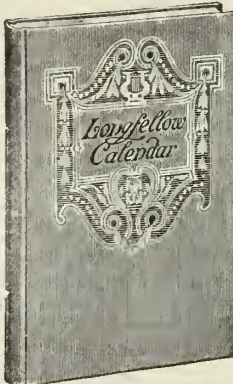
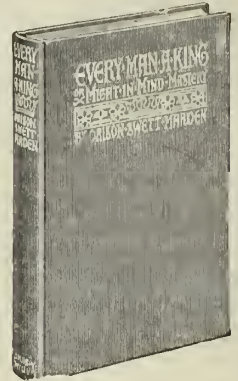
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 16, 1906.

The Week.

Our escape from Hearst does not free us from the duty of weighing rightly the forces which alone made him formidable. Recognition of this is general. Major Henry Higginson of Boston observes that in Massachusetts, too, corporations and the rich at ease in Zion had their fright. On this, Major Higginson remarks with point: "It is the old story about a larger and wider philosophy and religion which have got to come to the front and choke such nonsense as Hearst and his followers put out." Governor-elect Hughes gives gratifying proof that he is alert to the demands of the hour. Frankly stating that many who voted for his opponent did so in an intense desire to "end abuses," Mr. Hughes asks their support in the task of "squaring the administration of the Government with the interest of the people." But what can he or any man do? Well, Mr. Hughes can apply with great advantage his rare business talent to the business of the State. He can introduce method, economy, efficiency, where they are sorely lacking. Useless commissions, the surplusage of employees, dawdlers fattening on the treasury, he can cut away. The Railroad Commission he can make a really effective instrument to bring railway corporations to their senses and the people to their rights. Above and beyond all this, however, something must be done to satisfy the deep craving for a more perfect establishment of justice in our public affairs. It is the rankling sense of injustice somewhere that lends to the Hearst movement its real significance. Wild impossibilities will, no doubt, be demanded. Hearst promised them freely; Hughes will be asked to execute them. But the State can guard no man against the consequences of idleness and vice. There are economic laws, and especially moral laws, beyond reversal or even tinkering by the Legislature. Yet there is a root of dissatisfaction and suspicion which can be torn out by an upright Governor and an honest Legislature. It is the special privilege, the bought favor, the sinister influence, the corrupt alliance which have so often made Albany execrated. And it is to the removal of this prevalent feeling that wealth and political power can freely work their will at the seat of government that Mr. Hughes should bend his best efforts.

President James J. Hill's address before the Merchants Club of Chicago on

Saturday evening, a re-statement of the case for reciprocity or, if possible, free trade with Canada, is marked by a powerful grasp of fact and a prophetic sense of inevitable business developments. No one can question his mastery of the commercial problems of this continent. The demonstration of his knowledge lies in his past achievements in the Northwest; and his present large projects across the border attest his faith in the speedy coming there of a vast production and immense markets. With a fine sweep of business imagination, Mr. Hill showed how nature had indicated a unified growth of agriculture and industry and transportation on this continent. Stupid national policies for a time hinder progress. But a mighty development in western Canada is impending, whether laws favor it or hamper it. The question for Americans is simply whether they mean to get into natural relations with it, and profit by it, or to keep up the foolish tradition of isolation and antagonism. The same idea is urged by that veteran champion of close political and commercial relations between the United States and Canada, Prof. Goldwin Smith: "Reciprocity is the voice of nature, and her dictate to all whom she has made partners in her bounty on this continent." Thus the wide-awake business man agrees with the philosophical writer and publicist; even if a protective tariff attempts to expel nature with a fork, she is bound to come back. Politically, Mr. Hill's speech serves to point afresh the lost opportunity of the Democrats in the recent campaign. They threw away a winning issue of statesmen to chase after the false and losing issues raised by demagogues. But it is not yet too late to move upon Congress and the President. Mr. Roosevelt would doubtless sympathize with appeals from New England and the Northwest. Secretary Root would be more than favorably to reasonable proposals of reciprocity.

President Roosevelt has decided upon a punishment of the colored soldiers of the Twenty-fifth Infantry which is without precedent in the annals of the army. Because some of their number, under great provocation, "shot up" the town of Brownsville, Texas, killing one man and seriously wounding a policeman, three companies of this brave regiment are to be dishonorably discharged by executive order, the innocent with the guilty. The special reason for this action is that, when threatened with this fate, the soldiers still refused to tell who were the guilty ones. That many thus summarily treated are innocent of any wrongdoing, or even of knowledge of the

wrongdoers, is admitted by the Southern-born officer who advocated this drastic punishment. The seriousness of the original offence we cannot and would not mitigate. It was a gross breach of discipline—not unheard of, however; for the Ninth Cavalry had a similar fracas in Texas in 1899; and the white soldiers of the Fourth Cavalry, when stationed at Fort Walla Walla, Washington, formed a mob, stormed the town jail, and lynched, on April 22, 1891, a civilian who had killed one of their comrades. Yet no companies of the Fourth Cavalry were mustered out. Their colonel, Charles E. Compton, was tried for neglect of duty, found guilty, and sentenced to suspension. This is the correct military procedure. In every foreign service the officers are held accountable for the conduct of their men. Mr. Roosevelt should first have asked the white officers, How did your men get out of hand? How was it that they obtained their arms and ammunition? Where were the officer of the day and the officer of the guard? Knowing the provocation, where were your precautions? If these officers had failed to give satisfactory reasons, then they would have confessed their lack of fitness for command. But even if it was necessary to punish the troops for failing to "peach" on one another, the regiment might have been stationed for a probationary period in Alaska, just as a rowdy battalion of the British Guards was sent to Gibraltar. Many of the men, and particularly the non-commissioned officers, have served for upwards of twenty years with honor, on the frontier, in the Spanish war, and the Philippine insurrection, with the promise that they would be retired on a pension after thirty years' service. Now they are turned out to shift for themselves. Thus the President's action constitutes a grave breach of contract, which has been almost unanimously condemned by the press.

The part that luck plays in men's lives was never more clearly exemplified than in the career of the late Major-Gen. William R. Shafter. An excellent regimental officer in the Civil War, he was content at its close to apply for a lieutenant's commission in the regular army. By the error of a clerk, he was appointed a lieutenant-colonel, thanks to which he became in 1879 colonel of the First Infantry. In this position he displayed every necessary quality. For years Shafter's First Infantry was unequalled in the service for discipline and efficiency. On the outbreak of the war with Spain, fate again gave Gen. Shafter an unexpected promotion. The

original intention of the McKinley Administration was to make a mere reconnaissance about Santiago, with perhaps five thousand men in all. For the command of this expedition, Gen. Miles named Gen. Shafter as an excellent brigadier. Subsequently, as the Santiago expedition became of dominant importance, Gen. Shafter was forced into a part for which nature had never intended him. How he bore the responsibility is well known. That the expedition did not turn out a complete failure was not his fault. But with Secretary Alger's backing, it was easy for him to say that he had in one hundred and thirteen days done what President McKinley had asked—take Santiago and end the war. Fortunately, however, the sense of humor of the American people prevented any such hero-worship of Shafter as later marked the career of Admiral Dewey. Neither President McKinley nor Secretary Alger could make a great man or great soldier out of Gen. Shafter. With admirable sanity, the public estimated him at his precise worth, and felt that the major-generalcy which Congress subsequently bestowed upon him was sufficient reward for what were at best painstaking and honest services.

From fighting bosses, Secretary Bonaparte has gone through the stages of being something of a Maryland boss himself, and finally of coming to believe that a party boss would be a pretty good thing if only he got his office by election, not bribery. Mr. Bonaparte just "throws out the idea" for others to work up. Most such ideas are just as well left "thrown out"—upon the rubbish heap. The notion seems to be that a political party is capable of one supreme act of virtue and wisdom in choosing a boss, but that thereafter it must confess itself unable to pick out intelligently so much as a candidate for sheriff. In effect, this is much like calling upon a man to exercise his reason long enough to choose an infallible guide, and then never to trust reason again. But the theoretical objections to Mr. Bonaparte's plan are no stronger than the practical. Bosses cannot, in fact, be made in the way he suggests, nor will men cease trying to prove their powers in the rough and tumble of party contests. Instead of producing harmony, it would only multiply strife to have an elective boss parcelling out all the offices. The Secretary's scheme, which is, so far as outlined, pretty vague and dreamy, falls singularly ill with the greatly heightened power and importance of party primaries, under the direct system. Just when voters are having more to do with nominations than ever, Mr. Bonaparte tells them that they are really not equal to that job at all, and should call upon a Hercules in the form of a boss to relieve them of it.

A cynic might find a certain amusement in the suddenness with which this city annually becomes artistic. After a six months' torpor there is an explosion. The dealers wake up on Fifth Avenue, the artists' exhibitions begin, the clubs start their periodical shows, and this year, as if the fixtures were not enough, the Metropolitan Museum founds a department of Egyptian antiquities, and the National Arts Club formally opens commodious new quarters, especially dedicated to the cause of industrial art. Surely, if art languishes, it is not for the lack of delicate, or at least expensive, attentions. It is very evident that on the commercial side—always an important one—art depends on the handful of people who can and do spend lavishly upon the furnishing of their houses or upon collecting in the stricter sense. Doing something for art means, at bottom, attracting the dollars of this class. Its taste regulates the demand which the artist must meet, or lack clients. If art is at a low ebb among us, it is because such patrons usually have no personal taste of any sort. Their barbaric love of simple acquisition is directed by the flattery of dealers and furnishers. The result is that the mansions of this country present an aspect that recalls the imperial days of Rome. There is an indiscriminate mixture of the best and the worst. Beside the Renaissance bronze stands the modern forgery. In the same room with the priceless carpets of old Persia are base imitations of ancient tapestries. Throughout such houses or collections the story is the same; and frequently the intrinsically poor or fraudulent object has been paid for at the highest price, and is correspondingly valued by the infatuate owner. Anything like personal quality is of the rarest. There prevails a frightful monotony of expensiveness—the same rugs, the same porcelains, the same portraits by the same fashionable painters. Everywhere one witnesses merely the focussing of a little group of commercial interests upon a pile of new money. There is every reason to believe that the collectors of Roman times and of the Renaissance were in a humbler attitude towards art. They sought the acquaintance of artists, and trained their taste by discourse with the competent. Their pride was in the beauty of the work they possessed, not in the price they had paid for it.

The bitter cry of the ill-paid college professor is filling the land. In report after report our university presidents—Schurman of Cornell and Butler of Columbia have just spoken—have pictured the unhappy lot of the occupants of professorial chairs. These teachers and investigators are compelled to see the bills of prosperity go on mounting while salaries remain stationary. From the point

of view of organized labor, the cause of the trouble is as clear as the remedy is simple. College professors have no unions. They neither keep down the number of apprentices, nor sbut out "scab" competitors. We sometimes hear of college students going on strike—for this is what a "student rebellion" really is—but the hard-worked professors on small wages never nail up the recitation rooms or smash the windows of the college treasurer. While the Erie Railway employees are vigorously demanding more pay, and threatening to tie up the road, the non-unionized professors are being driven to such desperate expedients as marrying rich wives. With a book agent the nearest thing they know to a walking delegate, they suffer on in helpless patience. They cannot dig, but their presidents are not ashamed to beg for them.

The founding of the *Atlantic Monthly*, with James Russell Lowell as editor, was a notable event in American letters. In celebration of its fiftieth year in 1907 the magazine promises a series of papers by living ex-editors, William Dean Howells, Thomas Bailey Aldrich, and Walter H. Page. To one long familiar with the *Atlantic* perhaps the most striking thing is its consistency of character; the motto of its jubilee number might well be *qualis ab incepto*. At times it has leaned a little to that ultra refinement known to mockers as Cambridge weak tea. Again, it has stiffened up and sought for strength in too hasty a reflection of the problems of the day. But in general it has been remarkably successful in combining refinement and strength—a difficult ideal. It is the ablest of our monthlies, standing on a level above even the most attractive of the New York illustrated magazines, whose aim is to flatter the taste of *l'homme moyen sensuel*. Taking all things into consideration, we are inclined to regard it as the best of the general magazines published in the English language to-day. And we regret that its home is not in New York. The influence of such a magazine in the centre of our publishing business would do much to counteract the tone of flashy commercialism that is the mark of New York in literature.

Various heroic clergymen, in this city and elsewhere, are resorting to extreme measures to induce people to come and listen to them preach. Meanwhile, the sermon-problem is being attacked by others in a different way. Arthur C. Benson, himself the son of an Archbishop of Canterbury, has an article in the November *National Review*, in which he argues, not for increasing the supply of hearers, but for diminishing the supply of sermons. One a Sunday is all, he thinks, that weak human nature ought

to be expected to endure. Moreover, he would have those of the clergy who cannot, even in the considerate judgment of mothers in Israel, preach in an edifying or even tolerable manner, frankly give over the attempt, and read a discourse by a great preacher. Mr. Benson writes in full and charitable perception of the enormous difficulty of preaching acceptably to the same congregation twice a Sunday, year in and year out. What is really demanded of a preacher, if he is to minister successfully to the same flock for a decade or two, is that he should be an orator, a literary man, a saint, and a man of the world, all rolled into one. That such a combination is rarely found, is not surprising. By way of comfort to the minor prophets, Mr. Benson declares:

If I had to take my choice between hearing, say, Chrysostom, or Bossuet, or Newman, twice a week for the rest of my life, and never hearing them at all, I should not hesitate to choose the latter alternative.

Weariness with sermons is common, and apparently deepening, but people hear a born preacher as gladly as ever. Truth made living and instant through a personality is still the greatest source of inspiration in the world—in church or out. When the rare genius is found who can stand up before the great congregation and catch up their vague aspirations after a better life into the soaring utterance of a Robertson or a Liddon, a Beecher or a Brooks—to name only the dead—it is a cruel pity that the church has not some division of labor by which such men could be set aside exclusively for the work of preaching. To make them grow haggard over church finances, or to dissipate their energies at bazaars or in the multiplied business of the modern "institutional church," is little short of a crime.

Minister Briand's statement that the French Separation Act will not be enforced against the Church until a year from December 11 next indicates that the Government sincerely wishes a settlement with the Vatican. During that interval, associations may be formed agreeably to the law, failing which, confiscation by gradual legal process will begin. This respite leaves in a rather ridiculous position the ultra-clericals, who have represented the Government as desiring persecution and courting civil warfare. The truce should give a good opportunity for revising the Papal interdict on the associations. The protests against them have been based upon the assumption that the Government would not observe good faith in the matter. It was even said that fraudulent or anti-religious associations would be allowed to obtain control of the churches. M. Briand's decision is a quiet but effective rebuke to insinuations so intemperate and ill-founded. Unless the Vatican

is wholly implacable, the year should bring forth a *modus vivendi* acceptable alike to the Government and the Catholics of France.

The old Slavophile party in Russia is apparently moribund. The movement has almost come to an end in the face of Western ideas and the revolutionary propaganda. Unlike Pan-Slavism, Slavophilism was originally not a political, but a romantic and mystical theory. It was late that Slavophilism assumed a determinate political form. Its earliest exponent was Kircevsky, who, during the earlier part of the nineteenth century, sought to combine Russian mysticism and romanticism with the thought of Western Europe. But Kircevsky set his face in opposition to the institutions of the West. Like the anti-Napoleonic romanticists of Germany, he clung with almost bigoted devotion to the Russian throne and religion. The French Revolution had wrought a reaction against the idea of universal empire; the dread of Napoleon increased this reaction. The Slavophiles, besides their romanticism in literature, dreamed of a future golden age, under a theocracy. They also looked for the subjugation of other nations, and for their conformity to this holy ideal. No Russian, Kircevsky maintained, could feel pride in exotic institutions. He saw a religious halo above the crown, and maintained that the way to the establishment of a theocracy lay through the awakened feeling of the nation. Visionaries and poets gathered about him. Thus Slavophilism was like a survival of mediævalism, in the midst of the rapid progress towards democracy. Its strength has been in the *croyants* and the reactionaries; but it will die, or, rather, reappear transformed in reconstructed Russia.

The fall of the Prussian Minister of the Interior, Von Podbielski, is announced. Since the discovery that he was connected with the firm of Von Tippelskirch, the army contractors who have been growing rich out of the war in Southwest Africa, he has been subjected to volleys of ridicule and denunciation almost without parallel in the history of the Empire, coming, indeed, from all sections of the press. The Emperor's persistent refusal to remove him led to the rumors of a Chancellor crisis, and to astonishingly frank complaints that the court "camarilla" kept the Emperor in ignorance of the feelings of the people. Even such strong Government supporters as the Berlin *Kreuzzeitung* and *Post* recently published severe criticisms. The Emperor's impulsive and personal direction of the Government is particularly deplored. Of this policy the recent appointment of Bernhard Dernburg, as director of the Colonial Office, is cited as an example. It

is a selection which deeply offends the merchant class, as well as the aristocracy, and the Chancellor is supposed to be by no means pleased by it. As yet, however, there is nothing definite to show a breach between the Emperor and Von Bülow.

M. Santos-Dumont, by a flight of more than 200 metres in his airship, becomes the first skipper of a flying machine who has risen from the level, flown for an appreciable distance, and landed without serious mishap. The latter part of the performance is the most remarkable, for, as the falling Irishman remarked, "It's the landing that hurts"; and Santos-Dumont's landing was made under circumstances of unusual confusion. Still, Monday's experiment remains rather of scientific than of practical value. At least, its practical applications seem at present remote. The bold young Brazilian has done successfully what the late Professor Langley tried in vain; building upon the experiments of Hiram Maxim, he has produced a motor-driven aeroplane that can be controlled in a limited course, and near the ground. Evidently, it is a far cry from a performance of this sort to deserving the proud title of the "Bird of Prey."

One of the darkest spots on the chart of modern civilization is the high rate of infant mortality. How largely this is preventable is shown by an experiment of the Mayor of Huddersfield, England. He offered a prize of \$5 for every child, born during his term of office, which lived at least twelve months. Though several epidemics occurred, the mortality was reduced from 122 per thousand to 44, largely by the aid of women who instructed mothers in sanitary matters. While maternal ignorance and carelessness are thus shown to be important factors, another of prime importance is the source and quality of milk. It has long been established that intestinal troubles caused by improper food (chiefly cow's milk) account for the largest number of deaths of infants under one year. It has also been frequently suggested that a great improvement could be effected by substituting the milk of goats for that of cows. A plea for goat's milk is contributed by Dr. William Wright to the London *Lancet*. He points out its great superiority in the three essential points of cleanliness, digestibility, and freedom from disease germs. Among the 130,000 goats and kids brought to Paris for slaughter every year, the meat inspectors have failed to discover a single case of tuberculosis. Weight for weight, the goat yields twice as much milk as the cow, and if the animals are properly fed, their milk has no flavor to distinguish it from cow's milk.

THE NATIONAL ASPECT OF THE
ELECTION.

To those who had hoped for a strong vote against Republican policies, and particularly against the Republican "standpatters," last week's Congressional elections come as a distinct disappointment. The two most devout worshippers of the Dingley tariff, Messrs. Cannon and Dalzell, have been triumphantly reelected; and there is nothing in the result to make them abate adoration for their idol, or to induce the President to resurrect his long-buried tariff reform message. So far as the voters have indicated their choice, the Republican party is still licensed to grant special privileges to those manufacturers who are ready to pay for them.

If the overthrow of this intolerable injustice is still postponed, the Democrats have themselves alone to blame. Hardly convalescent from the Bryan illness, the party fell a victim to an even more virulent disease, the staying of which in New York, Massachusetts, California, and Illinois became the duty of the hour. With what patriotic readiness independent Democrats have again stepped into the breach, the returns attest. But even if there had been no Hearst and his agitation to draw attention from the contest for the House of Representatives, the Democrats could hardly have obtained control. A nerveless, stupidly inefficient campaign was that of the Democratic Congressional Committee; its literature was dull, its strategy infantile. From the beginning it lacked vigor and sincerity; it practically abandoned efforts weeks ago. The leaders cannot take much credit even for such successes as have occurred, for they are largely due to factional strife among Republicans, or to local causes of small importance. But the defeat of Congressman J. T. McCleary of the Second Minnesota District, because of his "standpattism" and his record on the Philippine tariff, shows clearly that, with serious and intelligent direction, tariff reform might have been made a winning issue.

It is this utter want of Democratic leadership which is the chief lesson of the contest as a whole. The election of Democratic Governors in both Rhode Island and North Dakota, together with the recapture of Missouri and the reelection of a Democratic Governor in Minnesota, proves what hard fighting can accomplish where there is confidence in the integrity and sanity of the Democracy. If any headway is to be made during the next two years, it can be only by rendering the Democracy a genuine Opposition in and out of Congress. John Sharp Williams has done his best in the House, but the character of many of his Southern associates, such as Tillman, in the party councils, has handicapped him, to say nothing of the dubious nature of support from such a

Northerner as Bourke Cockran. A party can grow stronger only by pounding away at the weak points in the enemy's armor. Failure to adopt aggressive tactics will leave the Democracy in an equally helpless position two years hence.

It is not as if there were no stirring issues upon which to appeal to the country. Republicans steadily furnish grounds for attack. But of these possible issues none is so important as the alliance between the party and the Trusts. President Roosevelt and his Attorney-General may tilt all they please at Standard Oil and dissolve a combination here and a Trust there. So far as any real far-reaching reform is concerned, their spectacular efforts are of no value save as object-lessons in the enforcement of the law. They constitute no remedy for the disease; and no remedy will be proposed while the corrupt partnership between the Republican party and the tariff-made monopolies continues.

To the Democratic party is more than ever granted the opportunity to come to the rescue. It alone can undertake clean-handed the reform of conditions which rendered Hearst as a political captain possible, and has suddenly made of Socialism a live issue. Americans will be content with their political conditions only when they are convinced that they are getting a "square deal." As long as Congress legislates for a few, thousands will go on demanding a new form of government which will make such favoritism impossible; and no one can deny that justice is on their side. Should the results of the elections deceive the Republicans into thinking that all is well with them, that, as Mr. Cannon maintains, their house does not need to be set in order, then are they far along the road to disaster. For the Democrats who have maintained their party's honor in this crisis, the path of duty is plain. If, with the fine energy and enthusiasm which has just spurned Hearst and Moran, they do not work day and night to regain control of their party machinery, they will find themselves without an organization to register their will.

ABSORBING THE CONQUERED.

More than a century after the partition of Poland the Prussian Government is busier than ever assimilating the Poles within its territory. Within the last few weeks there has been a fresh outbreak of racial distrust and hatred which has affected even the school-children. A cartoon in *Ulk* represents their plight. The teacher whips the school-boy for praying in Polish; his father beats him for praying in German; and the priest uses the birch if he does not pray at all. As a result, the boy's hand is against all the constituted authori-

ties. Recently, an unpopular teacher who had threatened his scholars with arrest for failure to answer questions in German, awoke to find his house in flames and his family at the point of suffocation. In the town of Baronowo there has almost been bloodshed because German children were not only prevented from taking a short-cut to the village school, but were repeatedly driven away with whips by the highly aroused Polish youths.

This really serious state of affairs arouses in Germany mingled anger and astonishment. There was a time several centuries ago when Prussia absorbed Polish subjects without difficulty. Thirty or forty years ago Germanization seemed to be progressing satisfactorily, if slowly. Suddenly there came the change. The Prussians attribute it to the Polish nationalist movement. They can see no difference in their own attitude or policy. To them this resistance is ingratitude, pure and simple. Yet what are the facts? About 1870 many Polish workmen in upper Silesia, to cite one example, were wholly free from any antagonism to the Germans. Indeed, they eagerly learned the language, realizing that its use widened their field of labor. To become a German at that time meant to be free; to be a German property-holder was to be beyond autocratic official interference. In short, to become a Prussian citizen meant the right to rise socially. Unfortunately, a change was at hand. The Pan-Polish movement could never have become what it is had there not been a Pan-German movement to offset it, to stimulate it, and to fan the dying embers of race strife.

First came increased protective duties and the limiting of imports, which at once made the Poles feel that they were worse off than their cousins in Russia or in Galicia. The cost of living rose by leaps and bounds, furnishing precisely the acute grievance the nationalist agitation needed. Then came blundering on the part of the Prussian bureaucracy in religious matters; the law unfortunately prescribed the teaching of religion in Prussian schools, and laid down the lines along which it must be taught. It made no allowance for differences in schools or in the character of their attendance; hence the teacher in Polish sections was inevitably brought into conflict with the village priest. It would, as a writer in the *Berlin Nation* points out, have been a wise and far-sighted policy to have abolished all religious instruction in Polish schools. Instead, the bureaucracy made the incredible mistake of requiring that it must be given in German. If a prize had been offered, says the *Nation*'s writer, for the action which would give the Polish agitators the very best weapon for their propaganda, nothing better than this could have been devised. Through it the school, which should be

the best medium of friendly Germanization, is now the place above all others in which race hatred is created and intensified.

Curiously enough, the very Prussians who insist upon Germanizing the Poles by force are the same ones who bitterly resent efforts in Russia, Hungary, and elsewhere to make loyal Russians, Magyars, and Czechs of those who speak German and retain their German customs. Side by side with associations for the creation of German communities in Polish Prussia, flourish societies to oppose the anti-German movement in Bohemia and Hungary—and no one seems to perceive the absurd contradiction. Only few have as yet been keen enough to notice that whenever the Germans undertake a new line of action, it provokes a similar move by the Poles. Thus when the Government began to buy up large estates and settle German emigrants upon them, the Poles founded banks whose special business it was to do likewise for their own people as a purely business affair, with the result that the number of Poles owning small land-holdings has increased faster than the number of small German land-owners.

In the general inference to be drawn from this German experience the United States has a special interest, because of our new oversea burdens. It is a fatal policy to deprive a people of its language or its customs. To try to make Americans of Malays, Russians of Finns, and Germans of Poles or Magyars, is merely to intensify the earnestness with which they cling to ancient customs and mother tongue. To attempt to strike down a people's nationality by force is not a sign of enlightened patriotism, but of political and social decadence. Let him who doubts this face the facts—the amazing Gaelic revival in Ireland, the success of the Hungarians against the Austrians, the failure of Russia in Finland, and elsewhere. Let him then turn to Switzerland as the country in which people using three languages have for centuries lived side by side in peace and harmony. The lesson should be carefully conned, for the call for the Philippine Assembly is out, and our pro-consuls in Manila need more than ever to be warned against any attempt to force Filipino development along other than their own racial and national lines.

EXCAVATING HERCULANEUM.

After long negotiations, Prof. Charles Waldstein's plan for excavating Herculaneum under international auspices has been accepted in principle by the Italian Government. The delay has had to do with the control of the excavations, which is to be unconditionally Italian. One cannot doubt, however, that the foreign scholars who have labored to make this great archæological enterprise pos-

sible, will have a favored position as associates in the work. For a layman, it is difficult to realize the importance of this project, so far have the sensational discoveries at Pompeii dazzled the popular imagination.

From the point of view of art, however, all that has been found at Pompeii is of slight importance compared with the results of casual excavation at Herculaneum. The remarkable Greek and Greco-Roman bronzes that are the pride of the Naples Museum came from a single villa at Herculaneum. The few scraps of wall painting that give a hint of the dignity of Grecian painting have the same origin, but are relatively obscured by the showier examples of plasterers' work from Pompeii. The ruins of the latter city have not furnished a single manuscript; Herculaneum, practically unsearched, has already given up a large library—medical and scientific, to be sure; further investigation may well bring us substantial additions to classical literature. In short, when we look at Greco-Roman antiquity through Pompeii, it is as if some thirtieth-century archæologist should judge American civilization from the remains of Saratoga or Long Branch; whereas Herculaneum will represent the polite tastes of early Imperial Rome as truly as, say, Newport or Manchester-by-the-Sea might represent those of our own Rooseveltian dispensation. Furthermore, Pompeii had been greatly damaged by earthquake, and flimsily rebuilt in the taste of the decadence, before it was overwhelmed by the falling cinders; but Herculaneum, when the mud rolled over it, still kept intact the treasures of the most cultivated Romans—Hellenizers of the generations of Lucretius and Cicero.

The value of these hidden treasures, the wildest imagination is not likely to exaggerate. Suffice it to say that here is an important classical site locked up in a perfect preservative—hardened volcanic mud—a site that has never been sacked by armies, rifled by pilferers, or drained by the insistent demand of wealthy amateurs. The history of archæology hardly affords a parallel. The excavator of to-day breaks into an unknown Pharaoh tomb only to find that a sneak-thief had preceded him by a thousand years. The Greek marbles of ancient Rome are mostly in the mortar of the mediæval city, but here are the summer homes of cultured Rome of the Augustan period and earlier, only awaiting the careful use of the pick and spade.

As if to provide against such a prize being enjoyed too cheaply, nature has sealed Herculaneum under about eighty feet of volcanic concrete, and fate has willed that some twenty thousand Neapolitans should swarm above the villas where Roman patricians dwelt in spacious ease. To uncover Herculaneum will be an expensive business, involv-

ing the condemnation of much land, and then the most cautious methods of excavation. The nature of the work dictates patience all around. No one should expect quick results at the cost of irreparable damage to the beautiful objects imbedded in the stiffened mud. On the other hand, we can imagine no investment of capital by an art-lover that is more certain to bring handsome returns. The uncovering of a single villa like that which contained the large bronzes of the Naples Museum would amply justify any expenditure likely to be made.

We discern a peculiar appropriateness, too, in the fact that this great project is to be international in its scope. Many times in the history of Western civilization a quickening of national culture has been due to a sort of vision of Grecian art through Roman eyes. Italy has from the first been the mediator of the Hellenic tradition, and when the amateurs and archæologists of Western Europe and America unite to reclaim Herculaneum for Italy and the world, they merely acknowledge in money and good will a greater if a more intangible debt that has been accumulating interest through the ages.

THE LITERATURE OF BUSINESS.

Not long ago it was the fashion of purists to complain of the bulk of advertising in the magazines. But discussion of the matter in the press brought out numerous champions of the advertising pages. It was warmly asserted that they constitute a most interesting addition to the reading matter, and could about as ill be spared as the so-called literary features. Certain readers, who appeared sincere but may have been malicious, actually expressed a preference for the literature of soups, underwear, real estate, correspondence schools, firearms, and motor cars—a passion which has recently obtained notable confirmation through the confession of an editor. Edward W. Bok has declared that he will do his modest best to make the literary section of the *Ladies' Home Journal* as good as the advertising section, though clearly he despairs of attaining so high an ideal.

We hasten to add that the editorial policy of pretty nearly all the magazines we know is happily approximating the advertising policy. In a superb miscellaneousness, in timeliness, in direct and vociferous appeal to the reader, the editors are, after all, not lagging so much behind. They have recently taken up the evidently useful practice of commending their own wares—discreetly setting forth the merits of their best contributors, or more specifically declaring the current features, as they issue from the press, to be substantial additions to permanent English literature. When the editors are so alert in following a promising lead, no one should too

rashly despair of the future of periodical journalism.

In all seriousness, a very little study of the literature of advertising will show that the writers command a rhetoric remarkably well adapted to their purpose, and if persuasiveness is a chief merit in style, the nameless contributors to the front and back pages must fairly outrank the æsthetes and muckrakers who fill the middle pages. Indeed, by maintaining an aloofness that a seasoned advertising writer would scorn, the literary fellows frequently fail to establish confidential relations with the reader. The reason for the success of advertising rhetoric James H. Collins (in an amusing article, "The American Grub Street," unconscionably buried in the middle portion of the *Atlantic Monthly*) finds in the following fact:

Advertising requires versatility of a high order; . . . the writer of advertising must combine human interest with strict accuracy; his subject is constantly changing. . . . To-day he studies the methods of making cigars and the many kinds of tobacco that enter therein; to-morrow he writes a monograph on enamelled tin cans, investigating the processes of making them in the factory; and the day after that his topic may be breakfast foods, taking him into investigations of starch, gluten, digestive functions, diet, and health, and setting him upon a weary hunt for synonyms to describe the "rich nutty flavor."

A fair inference from this description is that the superiority of the advertising writer lies in his greater seriousness, which is not perhaps the "high seriousness" that Matthew Arnold advocated, but still a quality removed from and above the dilettanteism that inspires the mere author. In any case, such experience makes for worldly experience, and we can imagine a successful advertising writer, finding himself placed at dinner between, say, William H. Howells and Dr. Henry van Dyke, repeating Goethe's phrase:

Prophet to right, prophet to left,
The World-Child between.

Scoffers of the ultra-literary sort have affected to scorn the advertiser as a new and humptious apparition. Bumptious he may or may not be, but new he emphatically is not. In the most technical sense the profession is very old, while on a narrower rhetorical basis the parallel between the modern advertising writer and the Meistersinger, the member of a Northern Puy, or of a Southern Floral Association, is worth recalling. Like these mediæval predecessors, the modern advertiser writes to order, in competition frequently, and on set themes; he is judged, moreover, rather by the effectiveness of his style than by the pith of his argument. To be sure, the Meistersinger and the banded poets of the Rhone celebrated springtide, love, or, more abstractly, the relative merits of the rose and lily, or of water and wine, whereas their mod-

ern successors exalt bootblacking, scouring soap, baking powder, ready-to-wear clothes, grape juice, and influenza cures. But the change of subject matter should blind no one to a stylistic unity which is all-important. It boots not that one write a *Remedium Amoris* or extol a corn cure; the spirit in which the work is done is what really counts.

How effective the work of the advertising writer is, very little perusal of the magazines will show. In all that makes for persuasion his art is supreme. We know that an appealing and well-waistcoated youth can sell our real estate, however barren or remote; we long for fences and sheds that another engaging gentleman may paint them with the ideally best pigments. Our heart flutters whenever we read of the ravages of coffee and the value of cereal beverages. Can one deny to writing of this force the name of art? A poster, not in print, but prominently displayed, shows the stylistic refinements that may enter into this sort of composition; we learn of a certain whiskey that it is "mellowed by eight years' repose in the wood." Only note the value of that word "repose." How bald and unconvincing any other asseveration of age would be! But so long as we preserve the image of that brown and fragrant fluid peacefully reposing in its charred prison-house, pure food committees may expose the brand in vain. Who could doubt a stimulant that has not merely grown old, but grown old so gracefully?

REAL PREVENTION OF DISEASE.

The gay young spark in Molière who sought a cure for the ills of intemperance received from his physician a lecture on hygiene. In the midst of it, the impatient youth broke in: "Yes, yes, all that I know, but can't you give me a pill?" This attitude is very human. Our chosen path is pleasant, and if it happens to lead into trouble, why, we'll ask the doctor for a pill. In our Western world, the habit is to seek medical advice only when we are sure we need it, but we might with profit copy the Chinese. They retain their physicians to keep them well, and demand the return of their fees if they fall sick.

The great benefit that medical science has brought to humanity in the last half-century has been chiefly through preventive medicine. The plagues that swept the Old World in the Middle Ages are no longer possible. An epidemic of typhoid fever is now a reproach to the infected community for having neglected the means which science has placed in its hands. But preventive medicine has concerned itself mainly with contagious diseases which threaten wholesale, and deals but slightly, in the popular conception, with individuals. The result is that there has grown up in the public mind a feeling of careless-

ness regarding disease except where the state is supposed to protect us. We are much concerned about the purity of our drinking water, but few stop to ponder the fact that a majority of us will die of some chronic disease which in its incipency might be arrested. For protection from acute infection we may depend upon boards of health, but for safeguarding against chronic disease we must trust to the physician. He, however, can do nothing to prolong our days unless we give him an opportunity to detect a malady in its early stage. Health is without price, yet how many periodically submit themselves to their doctors for thorough examination? That such a periodic examination is the wisest of precautions, is shown by the rejected applications in every life insurance company. Thousands were boastfully proud of their robust health until some life insurance physician rated them "bad risks."

The conditions under which Americans live in large cities are particularly adapted prematurely to age the heart and arteries. In all probability, these conditions will not soon change, and the only way one may guard oneself is by measuring the wear and tear on one's organism. Medicine has grown rich in methods and instruments of precision for the detection of subtle changes indicating the onset of disease. A manufacturer with a fortune in machinery would not neglect to employ an expert engineer to scrutinize it from time to time. Very likely, however, the same man has omitted to ascertain through a physician whether his manner of life has worked ravages with his heart or arteries. Almost every one goes to a dentist at least once a year; why should one not go to a physician? We constantly hear that nephritis is a menace, and cancer is becoming more common. Cancer is curable if a surgeon is called in time, and one may live his allotted days, despite nephritis, if he be told how to live. Oliver Wendell Holmes once said that the way to live to old age is to become the victim of a chronic disease and then take care of yourself. The real danger in the chronic type of disease is the insidious progress that gives its victim no warning, until the period when medical aid avails is past. Preventive medicine cannot be of use until men have learned to hunt out dangers before they appear. The White Plague is no longer captain of the men of death; pneumonia has taken its place; and physicians tell us that the really awful mortality in pneumonia is due in great part to latent heart and kidney disease. The physician to a large hospital in this city has said that he could have saved half of his pneumonia patients had they come to him five years earlier and been directed how to live in respect to their kidney trouble.

Doubtless it is true that many men

would rather "drop in their tracks" than live to an invalid old age. But the possession of a pet chronic disorder is not an unmitigated evil. It often means that a man who has worked like an express locomotive will content himself with slower service. He may be advised to play more golf and less market. He can find good excuses for longer vacations, more time to read, and to cultivate old friendships that have been allowed to lapse. Well-known men in this city, having early found their danger, have so regulated their lives that they appear as active as ever and enjoy life more than before. It is not inconceivable that the prompt recognition of a bad heart, say, would be a real blessing to many a driven man of affairs.

THOREAU AND GERMAN ROMANTICISM.

(Continued from last week.)

One might follow the transcendental movements of New England and of Germany step by step—through irony, aloofness, and sacred idleness, through their flowering in musical reverie and communion with nature—and show how they develop on parallel lines, always alike on the surface, yet always with some underlying difference more easily felt than named. And this difference is felt more strongly, is indeed then only to be understood, when we go back to that free individualism which is the root of all this varied growth. "Contemplation," says Schleiermacher in his second Discourse, "is and always remains something single, separate, the immediate perception, nothing more; to connect and bring together into a whole is not the business of the senses, but of abstract thought. So with religion: it is hers to abide by the immediate experience of the being and activity of the universe, by the individual perceptions and feelings; each of these is a work existing in itself without connection with others or dependence upon them. Of derivation and association religion knows nothing; of all things that may touch her, these are the most contrary to her nature. . . . It is due just to this absolute individuality that the sphere of contemplation is so infinite." Here certainly—and we are at the very heart of German romanticism—is a doctrine which the wise men of Concord would have been the first to repudiate. Infinity to Schleiermacher was only another word for endless variety of particulars, amid which the soul of man, itself a momentary atom in the stream, moves in a state of perpetual wonder. The ideal of Emerson was that self-reliance by which the individual, shaking itself free from the mere conformity of manners and tradition, might rise to the community of the higher nature figured by him as the over-soul: "In all conversation between two persons, tacit reference is made as to a third party, to a common nature. That third party or common nature is not social, it is impersonal; it is God." And Thoreau represented friendship by the symbol of two lines divergent on the earth and converging together in the stars. I cannot find the equivalent of this in Schleiermacher. I find rather that, like the rest of the romantics, when he sought for the basis of man's nature, he turned to pure

emotionalism, the very power and faculty by which we are bound within the limits of our individuality. We have seen that to Schleiermacher "the essence of religion is neither thought nor action, but contemplation and feeling." Let us see in what colors he pictures this passive surrender of the soul to the impression of the world. Thus he continues in the "Reden":

Only do not suppose—this is indeed one of the most dangerous errors—that religious contemplation and feeling at their beginning in the first activity of the soul (*des Gemüths*) are severed in any such way as they necessarily are in our discourse. Contemplation without feeling is nothing, and possesses neither the right source nor the right power; feeling without contemplation is likewise nothing; both are something only when and because they are originally one and unseparated. That first mysterious moment, which comes to us with every sensuous perception before contemplation and feeling have drawn apart, . . . fleeting is it and transparent, like the first exhalation wherewith the dew breathes upon the awakened flowers, demure and tender like the kiss of a virgin, holy and fruitful like the embrace of marriage. Nay, not like this, rather it is all this. Quickly and magically an appearance, an event, unfolds itself to a likeness of the universe. And so, as the beloved and ever-desired form takes shape, my soul flees to her, and I embrace her not as a shadow, but as the holy essence itself. I lie in the bosom of the infinite world; I am in that moment its soul, for I feel all its powers and its infinite life as my own. . . . At the least jar the holy union is blown away, and then first contemplation stands before me as a separate form; I gaze upon her, and she mirrors herself in the open soul as the image of the departing loved one in the open eye of the youth. And now first feeling rises up from within him, and spreads like the blush of shame and desire over his cheek. This moment is the highest flowering of religion.

Could anything than this be more essentially at variance with the product of Concord? The nearest approach to it in substance is the hedonism of Pater as expressed in the "Conclusion" to his *Renascence* studies. For what in the end is this religion of Schleiermacher's but that culture of the fleeting artistic impression which Pater taught: "Every moment some form grows perfect in hand or face; some tone on the hills or the sea is choicer than the rest; some mood of passion or insight or intellectual excitement is irresistibly real and attractive for us—for that moment only"? It is but the modern decking out of the ancient philosophical heresy of Heraclitus that all things move and flit away, which the English writer places as the motto of his essay. I would not be unappreciative of the great German divine, but I cannot sever his unctuous preaching of emotionalism from the actual emotions which ruled among the coterie to whom his discourses were addressed. When he turns from his image of the bridal of the soul and the universe to the fable of Paradise, and declares that only through the coming of Eve was Adam enabled to lift his thoughts heavenward, when he makes of love the only source of religion, he is, of course, speaking within the acknowledged rights of the preacher. Yet I cannot forget the morbid life of Rousseau, from whom all this *Gefühlphilosophie* is ultimately derived; I remember more particularly Heine's yearning for some wilderness apart from the world where he might like a Platonic sage pass his life in saintly studies—with Lais at his side. I am afraid of a religion which accords so easily with

this blending of Plato and Lais, and which serves so well a literature whose principle as announced by Tieck was briefly this: "The decency of our common prosaic life is unallowed in art; in these happy, pure regions it is unseemly; it is among us even the document of our commonness and immorality." I am Puritanic enough to dislike and to distrust these confusions; and it is because I do not find them in Thoreau that I can turn to him after reading much in the *romantische Schule* with a sense of relief, as one passes from a sick-chamber to the breath of the fields. Concord is remote and provincial in comparison with the Berlin and Jena of those days; it lacks the universality and culture of those centres; above all, it lacks the imposing presence of a Goethe and a Schiller, who, however loosely, were still connected with the romantic brotherhood; but it possessed one great offset—character.

"Life shall be the living breath of nature," might have been the motto of Thoreau as it was of a great German. He, too, went out to find the God of history in nature, inasmuch as man is but a part of the whole, a brother to the worm—but the ways of their search led them far asunder. We have seen how on the surface the mystical reverie of Novalis's "Lehrlinge zu Sals" is akin to the ideals of Thoreau: yet follow the two to the end. We shall see one of the scholars of Sals journeying through a tropical clime to the shrine of Isis; we shall see him in an ecstasy before that veiled goddess of nature; "then lifted he the light, gleaming veil, and—Rosenthalchen sank into his arms." It is only Heine's Plato and Lais, or Schleiermacher's Adam and Eve if you will, under other names. There is a taint of sickness in all this. It corresponds too well to the "heavenly weariness" of Novalis himself, as he might be found at the grave of his Sophie, vowing himself to death for a lofty ensample of love's eternal faithfulness, and in a short while after discovering his religion incarnate in another woman.

Now there was no Sophie in Thoreau's life, no sentimental identification of a dead Sophie with a living Julie, and above all, no rapturous embrace of both together in the person of the goddess of nature. It may even be granted that the absence of primitive human emotion is so pronounced in his diaries as to render them thin and bloodless. To lay bare the sources of this difference between Thoreau and Novalis it would be necessary to analyze a score of influences silently at work beneath the surface of his culture—the inheritance of Puritan religion, denied indeed, but still making any real return to mediævalism impossible; the British notion of practical individualism expressed in the philosophy of Adam Smith; the lesson of Wordsworth's austerity in the devotion to nature; the spirit of fine expectancy derived from the poets of the seventeenth century, who were Thoreau's chief mental nourishment; the incalculable force of Emerson's personality. It comes at the last chiefly to this: the freedom of the romantic school was to the end that the whole emotional nature might develop; in Thoreau it was for the practice of a higher self-restraint. The romantics sought for the common bond of human nature in the *Gemüth*, Thoreau believed it lay in character. In the *Gemüth*

(the word is untranslatable; heart, with the connotation of sentiment, mood, revery, is the nearest equivalent) Schleiermacher found the organ of religion, to the absolute exclusion of the reason and the will; there Novalis looked for the inspiration of all art; communion with nature was desirable only because in her, too, might be discovered "all the variations of an endless *Gemüth*"; and to this organ of the individual person was reduced in reality the high-sounding I of Fichte. *Gemüth*—character, *Gefühl*—conduct; in that contrast lay the divergence between German and New England transcendentalism. "What are three-score years and ten hurriedly and coarsely lived to moments of divine leisure in which your life is coincident with the life of the universe?" asks Thoreau in his Journal; but he continues: "One moment of life costs many hours—hours not of business, but of preparation and invitation. Yet the man who does not betake himself at once and desperately to sawing is called a loafer, though he may be knocking at the doors of heaven all the while, which shall surely be opened to him. That aim in life is highest which requires the highest and finest discipline." Man's life, he says elsewhere, "consists not in his obedience, but his opposition, to his instincts," and genius was to him another name for health. This was his resolution and his prayer:

I pray that the life of this spring and summer may ever lie fair in my memory. May I dare as I have never done! May I persevere as I have never done! May I purify myself anew as with fire and water, soul and body! May I gird myself to be a hunter of the beautiful, that naught escape me! May I attain to a youth never attained! I am eager to report the glory of the universe; may I be worthy to do it; to have got through with regarding human values so as not to be distracted from regarding divine values. It is reasonable that a man should be something worthier at the end of the year than he was at the beginning.

And so, despite its provincialism and its tedium, the Journal of Thoreau is a document that New England may cherish proudly. It is the mirror of a life, the record of romanticism striving to work itself out in actual character, and shows thus, as clearly as the far greater writings of Emerson, wherein the originality of the Concord school really lies. The dangers of transcendentalism are open enough—its facile optimism and unballasted enthusiasms—dangers to the intellect chiefly. Any one may point at the incompatibility of Thoreau's gospel with the requirements of society. To follow him, as to follow Walt Whitman, a man must needs shun the responsibilities of the family and state, and walk in solitary ways. Yet, withal, there is brave inspiration in the scornful independence of this botanizing vagabond. For the motto of his Journal one might choose the familiar lines of Matthew Arnold:

For most men in a brazen prison live,
Where, in the sun's hot eye,
With heads bent o'er their toil, they languidly
Their lives to some unmeaning taskwork give,
Dreaming of nought beyond their prison-wall.

And the rest, a few,
Escape their prison and depart
On the wide ocean of life anew.
There the freed prisoner, where'er his heart
Listeth, will sail;
Nor doth he know how there prevail,
Despotic on that sea,
Trade-winds that cross it from eternity.

Awhile he holds some false way, undebarr'd
By thwarting signs, and braves
The freshening wind and blackening waves,
And then the tempest strikes him. . . .
And he too disappears, and comes no more.

Put out of mind the wild hurtling words Thoreau was so fond of uttering, forget the ill taste into which his narrower circumstances often led him, and there remains this tonic example of a man who did actually and violently break through the prison walls of routine, and who yet kept a firm control of his career. If his aim was to refine his senses so that, like an Æolian harp, he might quiver in response to every impression of mountain and field and river, at least he sought for this refinement by eliminating all the coarser and more relaxing emotions of his breast; by disciplining his will into harmony with the pure and relentless laws of universal being. And if the terms of his practical philosophy may be traced back through the German romanticists to Rousseau's ideal of a return to nature, yet his sympathetic knowledge of hard savage life among the Indians and the tradition of New England's struggle with the wilderness kept him, always in act and generally in words, from sentimental softening of the reality.

P. E. M.

Correspondence.

WASHINGTON'S PROPOSALS FOR EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Speaking of agricultural colleges in your issue of November 1, you make the following statement:

Thomas Jefferson was the first American to urge the importance of such schools. Writing in 1803 he deplored the overcrowding of the trades and of the learned professions. He recommended that a professorship of agriculture should be established in every college.

No one will, I believe, endeavor to in any way belittle the effort made by President Jefferson. History should be kept straight, however. In his first message to Congress, January 8, 1790, Washington expressed the hope that "The advancement of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, by all proper means, will not, I trust, need recommendation," and continuing:

Nor am I less persuaded that you will agree with me in the opinion that there is nothing which can better deserve your patronage than the promotion of science and literature. . . . Whether this desirable object will be best promoted by affording aids to seminaries already established, or by the institution of a national university, or by other expedients, will be well worthy of a place in the deliberations of the Legislature.

It is to be noticed that agriculture and a national university for the promotion of science and arts were closely associated by Washington.

In his last annual message he writes:

It will not be doubted that with reference either to individual or national welfare agriculture is of primary importance. . . . Institutions for promoting it grow up, supported by the public purse; and to what object can it be dedicated with greater propriety?

Apparently, then, remembering that he had in his first message called attention

to the great subject of agriculture, he adds:

I have heretofore proposed to the consideration of Congress the expediency of establishing a national university, etc.

R. C. BARRETT.

Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Ames, November 5.

[We can hardly regard the vague proposal of Washington, suggestive though it be, as really forestalling Jefferson's definite plan for education in agriculture.—ED. NATION.]

THE HONOR SYSTEM OF EXAMINATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The "honor system" is of long standing in several Southern colleges. It has been introduced recently into two New England colleges; and a third is experimenting with it. The institutions which have it profess to like it, and say that it works well.

Working well, however, is not a final test. As every manufacturer knows, efficiency may be secured by materials or processes that cost too much. The chief objection to the honor system is that it is ethically extravagant. You can get sap and syrup in springtime by tapping the maples on your lawn. You can haul clay by harnessing a thoroughbred trotter to a dump cart. But these devices are not economical. Neither is it a prudent expenditure of the deepest ethical resources to tap them for the prevention of a little cribbing, and hitch them onto the tail of an examination paper a dozen times a year.

The honor system involves a double standard. The students in a Southern college will run out of town and ruin forever a man convicted of cheating in an examination; yet they look lightly on sexual offences, which cut infinitely deeper into the sentiments which honor should support, and leave on character far more lasting scars. A student who entered a Northern college which has no honor system from a Southern college where it had prevailed was found guilty of cheating at the first opportunity, and offered as a sufficient excuse that he had not been put on his honor. In one of the New England colleges that has adopted it, an instructor was recently asked at the beginning of a brief quiz whether it was to be conducted on the honor system or not. The president of the senior class in that same institution recently said in a speech at an alumni dinner that he knew that cheating was still going on under the honor system. Yet he, like all the rest, had given a solemn promise on honor to report any cheating that he knew.

This promise, by the way, to report any violation of the honor system seems to be an essential part of the honor system, wherever it is applied. The honor of every student appears to need watching and reporting by the honor of every other. Yet it is a significant fact, one more creditable to the students than to the devisers of the system, that in one of the New England colleges now trying the experiment every case of conviction for dishonesty since the system was introduced has been based on internal evidence drawn from the blue

book; in no case has evidence come voluntarily from the students who have been pledged to give it.

It is a serious thing to drag out of its natural soil in the subconscious the delicate, sensitive sentiment of honor, which ordinarily comes to the surface only under some such stirring experience as love or war, and at the end of every examination make each student declare that he has neither given nor received aid. In a recent discussion of the question, President Eliot of Harvard declared that there never was a time when he could have been brought to sign that statement. It assumes that the desire to cheat is normal and universal; and only under special stress of honor can the temptation be overcome.

The evil of cheating in examinations can never reach very serious proportions in a well-conducted institution. There is no college where student sentiment, left to itself, tolerates cheating to win a prize or an election to Phi Beta Kappa. Such cheating as student sentiment condones is confined mainly to cases where a dull or lazy student aims to escape being dropped. Then student sentiment undoubtedly does say, "Poor drowning devil, let him clutch the forbidden straw." Limited to this restricted sphere, cheating in examinations is not sufficiently important, either as an aid to rank or an injury to character, to warrant erecting the sentiment of honor into a system for its eradication.

The evil can be cured by cheaper means. In a certain college for a series of years the greater part of all complaints of cheating came from a single department. This was taken as one of several evidences that the teaching in this department was less vital than in the other departments, and the department was reorganized. A good instructor sets papers of such a nature that illegitimate aids are of little avail. Grasp of a subject, the relation of part to part, judgment on critical questions, application of principles to problems—these can be extemporized no more with than without adventitious aids. Vital teaching, frank and friendly personal relations, firm administration when required, can secure at moderate ethical cost results quite as satisfactory as those achieved under the honor system. It is therefore the part of a wise ethical economy to refrain from all attempts to superimpose the systematized sentiment of honor on the uncovenanted judgment of the right.

WILLIAM DEWITT HYDE.

Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me., November 6.

NEWMAN ON JANE AUSTEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Here is a tribute from Cardinal Newman to Jane Austen, which perhaps has not been brought to the notice of many of her admirers:

He used to say that he read through "Mansfield Park" every year, in order to perfect and preserve his style.—"Reminiscences of Oxford," by the Rev. W. Tuckwell, p. 184. Cassell & Co., 1900.

I. F. WILSON.

Cincinnati, November 7.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are preparing a series of volumes after the model of Curtis Hidden Page's "Chief American Poets." They announce for early publication the following: "The Chief Elizabethan Dramatists" (except Shakspeare) to the close of the theatres, edited by Prof. William A. Neilson of Harvard University, the editor of the new single-volume Shakspeare; "The Chief British Poets of the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries," and "The Chief British Poets of the Eighteenth Century," edited by Prof. Curtis Hidden Page. The selections will cover the full practical needs of college courses, and each book will be furnished with biographical, bibliographical, and explanatory notes.

Three more volumes are promised for this autumn in the special Riverside Press Editions of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., viz., "The Idyls of Theocritus," translated by C. S. Calverley (300 numbered copies for sale); "The Song of Roland," translated by Isabel Butler (200 numbered copies); "A Bibliography of Oliver Wendell Holmes," by George B. Ives (500 numbered copies). There are no more tastefully made books on the market to-day than the volumes of this series.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will publish early in January "The Autobiography of a Southerner," by Nicholas Worth, which has been appearing in the *Atlantic* in serial form.

Bertram Dobell is proposing to publish by subscription various unknown and unedited works of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. We have already mentioned his "Centuries of Meditation," by Thomas Traherne, and the "Gleanings from Manuscripts." To these should now be added "The Poetical Works of William Strode," "The Letters, Speeches, and Poems of Sir Nicholas Bacon" (1509-1579), and "The Partial Law, a Tragi-Comedie" (circa 1620-1630).

It was only a little while ago that the Oxford University Press published a new text of Keats's poems with elaborate annotations by E. de Selincourt. The poetical works are now to be added to the "Oxford Library Editions," with textual notes by H. Buxton Forman. The volume will include some lines hitherto unprinted.

Gilchrist's "Life of Blake," published in 1863, will now be reissued by John Lane in a cheaper edition. W. Graham Robertson has edited the text, written an Introduction, and added a large number of reproductions from the most perfect of Blake's drawings and pictures.

Much the best piece of critical work Swinburne ever wrote is his volume, "William Blake," which has long been out of print. A new edition now issued by E. P. Dutton & Co. is therefore really worth while. Mr. Swinburne adds a Prefatory Note, only a few pages long, but abounding in his polyphloisboian eloquence.

E. P. Dutton & Co. issue a new edition of "The House of Quiet," with an Introduction announcing the author as Arthur Christopher Benson. He says frankly that the chief reason now for giving his name is that it seems foolish to go on trying to keep a secret that is no secret at all.

We begin to believe that Mr. Benson, like Andrew Lang, is no longer the name of an individual, but of a society of writers. However, he continues to be always interesting and always to write with the appearance of artistic leisure.

We are to have more of Lord Acton's correspondence. His son has written to the *London Times*, stating that after a suitable lapse of time he will publish the letters to Döllinger.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce a book on bridge whist by P. F. Mottelay. It will contain the collected opinions of the best-known authorities regarding the declarations, leads, and different emergencies of the game.

Mr. Mosher's *Biblots* for October and November contain, respectively, "Giordano Bruno," by Walter Pater, and "The Last Days of John Addington Symonds," by Margaret Symonds.

With the publication of the fifth volume of Brandes's "Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature" (the sixth came out a year ago) that standard work in criticism is made complete in its English dress. The Macmillans now issue the set with illustrations, and to the sixth volume a full index is added. Brandes's views are so well known that any detailed review of the fifth volume, on "The Romantic School in France," or of the work as a whole, would be superfluous. He wrote in the full tide of liberalism, and his opinions are manifestly colored by political affiliations, but he writes always with spirit; is always interesting, and at times (notably in the volume on "The Romantic School in Germany") shows the faculty of plucking out the heart of a complicated movement. The translation in the present edition is idiomatic, and, so far as we have examined, accurate.

Following hard upon Winston Churchill's full and official biography of his father, Lord Rosebery's essay, "Lord Randolph Churchill" (Harper's), is, as he himself says, merely a sort of debt of friendship. He was much thrown with Lord Randolph, and it is personal appreciation of which his volume is made up. Political sympathy there could be little between the two men. But the audacity, the perversity, the brilliance of Randolph Churchill appeal to Lord Rosebery, if only as matter for neat description or sententious comment. Of this there is plenty given, if little real information. It is put beyond doubt, however—though it was never really in doubt—that, in the great crisis of his career, his resignation as chancellor of the exchequer, Lord Randolph was merely bluffing, and did not expect Salisbury to take him at his word. Lord Rosebery declares that when the time comes for the private letters of those two to be published, there will be tidbits for intellectual *gourmets*. His own style retains all of its point. The long decay of Lord Randolph's faculties, along with his loss of political power, is put into this epigram: "He was the chief mourner at his own protracted funeral, a public pageant of gloomy years." There are many such Roseberysisms in the book.

Henry C. Shelley's "Literary Bypaths in Old England" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), is a thoroughly readable book. It is so easy for literary pilgrims to be dull

and to force on the reader a rehash of the old anecdotes and descriptions, that Mr. Shelley is the more to be commended for furnishing in each of these eleven studies some new ingredient, if only a birth certificate to prove that Hood's tombstone is wrong by a year, or more intimate particulars of the career of John Hamilton Reynolds, Hood's brother-in-law, the friend of Keats. Most people will think that the chapter on Hood is the most interesting. Mr. Shelley prints for the first time some of Hood's "witty and tender" letters and gives us new glimpses of the family into which he married and the interests of his life. These documents were procured through Hood's nephew, the late Towneley Green. The anecdotes gleaned in the Carlyle country are all unpleasing, and maintain the tradition that Carlyle needs to be saved from his biographers. Those who have not themselves visited Ecclefechan and Scotsbrig, may be surprised to learn that their scenery is not desolate or bleak. The road that connects the two places "lies between luxurious hedgerows and flower-covered banks." On the haunts and homes of Spenser, Sidney, Penn, Gray, Gilbert White, Goldsmith, Burns, and Keats, Mr. Shelley has in each case something to contribute. His style is pleasing and impersonal, and his illustrations from photographs are numerous and well reproduced.

Constance Elizabeth Maud's "Felicity in France" (Charles Scribner's Sons) is a lively and well-written account of a summer spent in Normandy and Brittany by Felicity and an energetic aunt. If this is a faithful record of their experiences, the pair must have fairly shattered the French illusions as to the reserve and stiffness of the British tourist. They made friends with all classes, and were equally at home in a boar hunt at Fontainebleau or sharing the market cart of a peasant. Everywhere they found resentment and grief at the secularization of the convents, and never anything but reverence and pity for the nuns, who in many cases have been quartered in the houses of the hospitable townspeople and spend their time in nursing and teaching, buoyed up by the hope of a turn in political sentiment. The most interesting chapter is an account of the homes of the *Félibres* in Provence, those enthusiasts who, fifty years ago, began the work of restoring and perpetuating the old language of Provence, the *langue d'Oc*, which was fast decaying into a *patois*. Felicity visited Mistral himself, the soul of the movement. Mistral complained bitterly of the motor cars, which make it easy for parties of tourists to descend on him at all hours of the day and night. "I have the misfortune to be now in their catalogue of monuments." The whole volume is entertaining and attractively got up. It would be an excellent guide for tourists, especially women who wished to travel in the more remote villages of France and to stay in convents, while there are convents left, rather than in big hotels.

A new book by Stewart Edward White no longer needs any recommendation. As an open-eyed forest Rambler and mountain climber he is easily in the first rank of nature writers, though, of course, without the peculiar literary flavor and the varied background in wider experience of

life which one finds in the outdoor books of a Henry van Dyke. The present volume, "The Pass" (New York: Outing Publishing Co.), is devoted to mountain climbing in eastern-central California, in the region of the Great Western Divide of the Sierra Nevada range, with Cloudy Canyon, Deadman's Canyon, and the valleys of King's River and Roaring River for immediate surroundings, and the peaks about Yosemite and the Tuolumne Valley in the far distance. Mr. White was accompanied by his wife, but their experiences are not likely to make the region popular as a summer resort for society women. Mr. White pays a high tribute to the good sense and fidelity of the official forest ranger of this region, and puts in a plea for an extension of this service and more adequate compensation.

It is a poor year that does not bring to our table one or more text books upon elementary economics, and this season's crop begins with Prof. Charles Lee Raper's "Principles of Wealth and Welfare" (New York: The Macmillan Company). The book offers little that is novel in method or arrangement, and—very wisely—does not attempt to "reconstruct" economic theory for the benefit of high-school pupils. The style is clear, if sometimes oracular; and the doctrine generally sound.

Dr. Paul Marcuse's "Betrachtungen über das Notenbankwesen in den Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika" (Berlin: C. Heymann) is an attempt to describe for German readers the national banking system of the United States. After a brief account of American banking prior to the Civil War, Dr. Marcuse treats of the growth and present position of our national banks. Particular attention is given to note issues, but other aspects of the subject are not neglected. For American students the book has little value or interest, and German readers will be misled as often as aided by it. The introductory chapter upon banks of issue prior to 1864 is particularly open to criticism. On his first page the author states that colonial banking experiments were unrestrained by the home Government; whereas in 1741 Parliament extended to the colonies the rigorous provisions of the "Bubble Act." He thinks that the first bank of the United States was chartered primarily as a means of reforming American banking, rather than as a fiscal agent of the American Government; and that it prevented a "rapid increase and extension of other banks." He imagines that the notes of State banks used to circulate only in the State in which they were issued. The overflowing revenues of the national Government in 1835 and 1836 he attributes to the "new protective tariff system"; whereas duties were steadily falling at that time under the provisions of the "Compromise Tariff," and the inordinate increase of the revenues was due to the phenomenal sales of public lands. He writes an account of the second bank of the United States without making use of Professor Catterall's indispensable volume; and throughout displays but a superficial acquaintance with the literature of his subject. Dr. Marcuse would have served his readers better had he been content to begin his narrative with the founding of the national banking system. As it stands, we

cannot commend it to the constituency for which it was designed.

Alessandro Luzio, director of the archives at Mantua, has won a commanding position as an authority on the *Risorgimento*. His "Profili Biografici" just published (Cogliati, Milan) is a collection of articles mostly reprinted from the *Corriere della Sera* and dealing with Italian personalities of the nineteenth century. The author's style is as agreeable as his erudition is extensive, and, unlike most Italian scholars in this field, he is abreast of the German and English literature of his subject.

One of the most valuable of recent contributions to the history of religion is Professor Bousset's "Das Religion des Judentums im neutestamentlichen Zeitalter." The author, who is a professor at Göttingen, has bestowed much labor on the rabbinic and apocryphal and pseudepigraphic literature; and the extent and accuracy of his information of Jewish writings from the pre-Maccabean time onwards is widely recognized. His book is *gründlich* in the real German manner. Professor Bousset is not only a master of facts, but also a competent historian and clear writer. His monograph presents graphically the development and characteristic features of Jewish piety, with light on the religion of the masses as well as the more easily discoverable religious system of the scribes. The book has proved to be more than commonly useful, as is evidenced by repeated references to it, both in scholarly and popular works. We note the appearance of a second edition, thoroughly revised and enlarged. (Berlin: Reuther und Reichard.) An English translation of this valuable work would be most acceptable, and would serve to dissipate many popular illusions in regard to Jewish religion in the time of Christ.

The Swedish Tourist Traffic Society in Stockholm has issued a small volume, the character of which is well described in its title: "Sweden: A Short Handbook on Sweden's History, Industries, Social Systems, Sport, Arts, Scenery, etc." The opening chapter, by Emil Svensén, entitled "Sweden's Place in History," gives an interesting bird's-eye view of the history of the country, with constant reference to that of Europe at large. The other chapters give reasonably full accounts of the material resources and intellectual and social conditions, curiously enough omitting any mention of Swedish literature; the last describes "Sweden as a country for tourists." The volume is illustrated by excellent photogravures. An index would have enhanced its value as a work of reference.

The German Asiatic Society of Japan issues in Band x, Teil 3, five papers of unusual interest. The first, presented with illustrations, is upon Japanese Falconry, by D. A. Schinzinger, and embodies the result of much study of native literature upon this subject. Dr. Miura of the Imperial University treats of the Japanese literature of dreams and the canons of interpretation. In discussing the question of the naturalization of Japanese trees in Europe, Mr. Hofman points out the climatic possibilities of the most important of the trees of Nippon and tells something of native forestry. The famous, but now obsolete,

sport of *inu no mono*, or the hunting of dogs with blunt arrows by archers on horseback, which was only rarely cruel, is treated in text and by picture.

The Asiatic Society of Japan sends forth vol. xxxiv, part 1, of its Transactions, in a pamphlet of but fifty-nine pages. Yet in weight and value few of its issues have exceeded this one. John Carey Hall, the British consul-general, who has a perspective of thirty-six years of residence in Japan, furnishes a translation of what may be regarded as the literary basis of Japanese feudalism, the magisterial code of the Hojo power-holders, promulgated A. D. 1232. The code existed in manuscript until the seventeenth century, when it was printed, not for public knowledge, but for official use. The translation has been done with great care and the explanatory notes are illuminating. Besides being of the highest interest to the student of feudalism, it confirms the view held by literary scholars, that the position of the Japanese woman in the early and middle ages was much higher than under the Tokugawas, when the Chinese philosophy and ethics fettered not only the national intellect, but swayed the social customs of the Japanese. A brief paper on Chomei, "the Japanese Wordsworth," and an unusually practical paper on the study of Korean, from the point of view of a student of the Japanese language, complete this number.

The Imperial Cabinet of Japan has issued the tabulated statement which shows the movement of the population of the empire in 1903. The brief text and terms are in French, and the details of births, marriages, deaths, divorces, and diseases furnish data for conclusions as to the advance in public hygiene. On the whole the figures are encouraging. Such a conclusion is more than confirmed by the "Résumé Statistique de l'Empire du Japon," which, in its twentieth issue, for 1906, gives the statistics, in condensed form, though none later than 1904. Within the memory of living men there were no public hospitals in Japan; the exact number in 1903 was 909. Of the 37,180 physicians, probably 30,000 practise according to modern science. Of epidemics in 1904, dysentery and typhoid fever claimed the greatest number of victims. Recent legislation has strikingly diminished the number of divorces. Instead of one divorce to every three marriages, the figures for 1902, exclusive of Formosa, show 394,165 marriages and 64,139 divorces. The Ainu, like our Indians, so far from dying out, seem to hold their own.

The *Nuova Antologia* of November 1 contains an important article upon the "Legends of Trajan." The author is the director of the excavations in the Roman Forum, Giacomo Boni, whose discoveries in regard to the Column of Trajan were discussed in a letter from Rome printed in the *Nation* of July 26. He not only gives the results of his recent researches in and about the Column of Trajan, but brings together a unique collection of photographs of tapestries, sculptures, frescoes, engravings, and pieces of majolica of the Middle Age and the Renaissance, illustrating the origin of the legends of Trajan, and showing their transformation as they were passed on from century to century.

Rudolf Haupt in Halle announces the publication, under the editorship of Dr. Johannes Luther, of a collection of Title Borders of the Time of the Reformation, for the purpose of aiding in determining the place of printing of undated books and pamphlets of this period. During this time of free and unrestricted reprinting, at that period hardly yet regarded as piracy, a pamphlet that aroused any general interest and comment was reprinted by booksellers in various parts of Germany, though very often without place or date. The ornamentation on the title pages even was copied, though not always on the same publication on whose title page it had originally been found. Bibliography is here used directly in the service of the history of culture, inasmuch as the determination of the imprint place of these undated pamphlets will throw light on the spread of the Reformation ideas. The work will be issued in six to eight parts, each containing fifty plates. In order to facilitate the use of the work for the purpose of comparison, each plate is accompanied by a duplicate on transparent paper.

Selections from the correspondence of the late Cyrus W. Field were sold at auction in this city last Friday by the Merwin-Clayton Company. The highest price paid was \$101, for a letter from W. E. Gladstone to Mr. Field after reading "Thirteen Months in a Rebel Prison," a copy of which Mr. Field had sent him. The original cable message read by Mr. Field at the Crystal Palace in this city, September 1, 1858, the day of the carnival celebrating the laying of the Atlantic cable, was sold for \$30.

On Monday, November 19, the Merwin-Clayton Sales Company will offer at auction a collection of Lincoln literature, including some scarce items; also a few Confederate pieces and some fifteen books about John Brown. One of the latter is Redpath's "Echoes of Harper's Ferry," 1860, which contains the first publication of Thoreau's "Plea for Capt. John Brown," two speeches by Emerson, and Whittier's poem "Brown of Ossawatimie."

The library of L. M. Dillman of Chicago, which ranks as one of the great American collections of first editions of nineteenth century English authors, will be dispersed this season by the Anderson Auction Company of this city. Mr. Dillman's collection is especially rich in books of Lamb, Coleridge, Shelley, Keats, Rossetti, and the Brownings. His copy of "Pauline," 1833, was Reuben Browning's, with inscription on the title-page in his autograph: "By Robert Browning, his first publication, privately distributed. This copy was given me by his father, my eldest brother. Reuben Browning." This identical copy has already appeared three times in the auction room. At the George T. Maxwell sale in April, 1895, it brought \$260, being bought by a firm of bookseifers who sold it to Alfred J. Morgan. When part of this library was sold in April, 1902, the book brought \$720. In the sale of the library of Daniel F. Appleton, April, 1903, it brought \$1,025. Although "Pauline" is probably the most valuable single book, the Keats, Shelley, Lamb, and Coleridge collections include rare items. Many of the volumes are in the original boards, uncut.

On Thursday, November 29, Hodgson & Co., the London auctioneers, sell a small collection of books, mainly English literature, and including a few volumes of great rarity. The most important of these is the second edition of Spenser's "Shepherd's Calendar," the title-page without date, but with colophon: "Imprinted at London by Thomas East for John Harrison, the younger, . . . 1581." The first edition of 1579 is one of the rarest and most valuable of English books; no copy has come into the market for many years. The earliest edition described by the Grolier Club in its first volume of "Collations and Notes," 1893, was the third, of 1586, and we know of no copy of either the first or second in this country. The sale also includes several early Shakspeare quartos: "The Whole Contention betwene the Houses of Lancaster and York," the undated edition printed by Thomas Pavier in 1619, being the third edition of Parts II. and III. of Henry VI.; "The Merchant of Venice," 1637, the third edition, but with the imprint cut from the title-page; "Hamlet," 1637, the sixth edition, a large copy; and "Pericles," 1635, the sixth edition, but lacking the title. There is a fine and perfect copy of the first collected edition of "Shakespeare's Poems," 1640, with the rare frontispiece by Marshall; also two copies—one lacking three leaves of text, the other perfect—of the spurious play, "The History of the Life of Sir John Oldcastle," 1600. Another book of Shaksperian interest is John Taylor the water poet's "Heads of all Fashions," 1642, rare and entirely uncut. On the title-page are seventeen "heads," one of them being that of Shakspeare. Of more modern books, the most valuable are the little college magazine, "The Gownsmen," which issued seventeen weekly numbers in 1830, and which, it is supposed, Thackeray had a hand in editing; Tennyson's "Poems Chiefly Lyrical," 1830, uncut; and Pope's "Essay on Man," first editions of the four parts.

An even rarer series of views of New York streets, than those of Jones & Newman, described in the *Nation* of October 25, is one published by Alfred Tallis, called "Tallis's New York Pictorial Directory and Street Views of all the Principal Cities and Towns in the United States and Canada." The views were engraved on steel, whereas Jones & Newman's were lithographs. The covers state that "the engravings will be executed under the direction of Mr. John Rogers and Mr. John Kirk of this city." The "Directory" was issued in parts, each containing two plates and two leaves of text, one side of the leaf being matter descriptive of the buildings, the other side advertisements. Apparently eight parts, containing sixteen plates, were issued, though this full number is not owned by any one collector. Several of the plates exist in different states, new names being added on the fronts of the buildings from time to time, as the occupants were induced to become advertisers in the series.

The *Athenaeum* notes that W. H. Hulme of Cleveland, Ohio, has found in Worcester Cathedral Library a valuable MS. in Middle English of the late fifteenth century which has not yet attracted the attention of students of English literature and his-

tory. Among the contents of the MS. are a version of Peter Alfons's collection of Oriental tales called "Disciplina Clericalis," known in old French poetry as "Le chastolement d'un père à son fils." This Worcester version is the only one yet discovered in Middle English literature.

Gaston Boissier, after forty years of service, gives up his chair at the College of France in order to devote his time to the study of the Hellenization of Rome.

Henry George Raverty, an Oriental scholar of rare attainments and large performance, has just passed away in England. He entered the military service of the East India Company in 1843, served in the Punjab campaign of 1849-50, and in the first frontier expedition of 1850 against the tribes on the Swat border. In 1863 he attained his majority, and retired in 1864. Before he was transferred to the Northwest he distinguished himself for his proficiency in Urdu, Persian, Marathi, and Guzerathi. On the Northwest frontier he devoted himself to the study of Pashtu and Sindi. When he began the study of Pashtu no grammar of that language had been composed, and he was compelled for his own convenience to make one in outline. This he corrected and enlarged and eventually published in 1885. After his retirement he devoted himself to Oriental studies, and won a place in the first rank of historians of the Moslem East. One of his great achievements is his translation of the "Tahakat-i-Nasiri," to which he added copious notes drawn from contemporary authors. It is a storehouse of minute information regarding the earlier period of Mohammedan rule in India and the countries on its Northwestern frontier. The journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal contains many of his papers, some of which are practically independent historical works. He was engaged in later years upon a history of Herat and its dependencies and the annals of Khorasan.

The Rev. Henry Martyn Baird, dean emeritus of the University College of New York University, died Sunday at Yonkers, at the age of eighty-four. After graduation from New York University in 1850, he travelled in Italy and Greece, and then studied at Union Theological Seminary and Princeton Theological Seminary. In 1859 he returned to this city and became professor of Greek in New York University. This chair he occupied until 1902; and during part of that period he discharged the duties of dean. His writings include "Modern Greece," 1856; "Life of the Rev. Robert Baird," 1866; "Rise of the Huguenots of France," 1879; "The Huguenots and Henry of Navarre," 1886; "The Huguenots and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes," 1895; and "Theodore Beza, the Counsellor of the French Reformation," 1899.

Wisconsin Germans have decided that part of their memorial to Carl Schurz shall take the form of a professorship at the State University. This is to be filled each year by the appointment of some well-known professor from one of the German universities. The movement appeals particularly to the descendants of the many thousands of Germans who, like Carl Schurz, settled in Wisconsin between 1848 and 1860. The fact that Mr. Schurz was a regent of the State University, empha-

sizes the appropriateness of the memorial. For the present, the professorship will be "one-sided," but it is hoped some day to double the endowment so as to provide for an American lecturer in Germany.

The committee of German educators, which has in charge the preparation of the programme for the Second International Congress for School Hygiene, to be held in London in 1907, has submitted to the cultus minister of Prussia a series of proposals for reform in the secondary schools. The chief proposals are: (1) All compulsory class work to be restricted to the forenoon hours, and to this end periods of recitation not to be longer than forty to forty-five minutes; (2) the amount of work done at home to be materially decreased and to fall away entirely in the middle and lower grades; (3) one afternoon each week to be given entirely to sport and exercises, and no written work assigned for next day.

A theological diploma for women, S.Th. (student in theology), is the latest advance in the higher education of women in England. It has been established by the Archbishop of Canterbury to supply a training for teachers in schools where religious instruction is required. The examinations, of which the standard is approximately that of the honor schools of theology, are in five subjects. Three of these—introduction and subject matter of the Old and New Testaments, and the history of Christian doctrine—are compulsory, and two may be chosen at the option of the candidates from a varied group. A knowledge of New Testament Greek is necessary; Hebrew is one of the optional subjects. Diplomas were given last month to five successful candidates, one of whom was an American. The next examination will be held in July, 1907.

An account of the travelling library system carried on in Belgium by the Ligue de l'Enseignement is given in a recent issue of the *Revue des Bibliothèques et Archives de Belgique*. The league has forty-three libraries, containing from 110 to 135 volumes each. These libraries are sent gratuitously to a teacher in any place not having a public library, on condition that the books be put at the disposal of the residents of the locality at least one day a week. The library is lent for two years, and is then exchanged for another. If at the end of four years interest has not been sufficiently aroused to organize and support a local library, the league abandons the place as unworthy of further effort. Seventy-seven rural communities have been visited, and two-thirds of them have founded local libraries.

SHAKSPEARE AND POPE.

The Text of Shakspeare: Its History from the Publication of the Quartos and Folios down to and including the Publication of the Editions of Pope and Theohald. By Thomas R. Lounsbury. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2 net.

In his two previous volumes on "Shakspearean Wars" Professor Lounsbury dealt at length with the controversies that had raged over Shakspeare as a dramatic artist. In the present volume he begins the history of the attempts to restore the text. His original intention of completing this in

one volume has been interfered with by the necessity of a treatment of the Pope-Theohald controversy much more elaborate than had been foreseen, so that the book before us is really an account of the "Dunciad," its origin, growth, and results, with a few chapters prefixed on the earlier history of Shakspearean editing.

These introductory chapters give an admirable summing up of the circumstances surrounding the writing and printing of plays in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries, and bring out clearly the facts that there was nothing exceptional in Shakspeare's apparent indifference to the publishing of his plays, and that the corrupt state of the early prints was the natural outcome of the casual nature of their transmission in manuscript and committal to the press. In illustrating the risks which the text later ran from the backwardness of linguistic scholarship in English in the eighteenth century, Professor Lounsbury states the case in a somewhat unfortunate way. In such a line as

Whose own hard dealings teaches them suspect,
the eighteenth century critic naturally jumped to the conclusion that "teaches" was merely a mistake in grammar, due to the compositor, and proceeded to emend the line, either as the editor of the Second Folio had done, by reading "dealing" for "dealings," or, as Pope did, who read "dealings teach them to." Modern textual critics retain the original reading, and it is on the ground for this retention that Professor Lounsbury's discussion leaves something to be desired. He explains the -es of "teaches" as a peculiarity of the Northern dialect, which, in the time of Shakspeare, he believes to have been still contesting a foothold against the -e derived from the regular Midland -en ending of the present indicative plural. This tendency he regards as parallel to the supplanting of the -th ending of the third person singular of the present indicative by the -s which is now the normal termination. But it is more than a dozen years since it was pointed out to Professor Lounsbury, on the appearance of his "Studies in Chaucer," that this last ending was West Midland as well as Northern, and that Northern influence was unnecessary to explain it. Thus, as a support to his explanation of the -es in the plural, it has no force. Many, if not most, English scholars find it more likely that the -es in such passages as that quoted is merely an extension of the familiar construction in which a singular verb follows a subject plural in form but singular in idea. He has, of course, a perfect right to prefer his theory of a Northern dialect origin, but hardly to state it as if it were the only alternative to the belief that the troublesome final -s was due solely to the depravity of seventeenth-century printers.

The last twenty chapters form a contribution to the literary history of the eighteenth century of the highest importance. They clear up an obscure and tangled controversy, throw light on the character and conduct of the greatest poet and the greatest Shakspearean critic of the age, and make clear the origin of its greatest satire. Much of this investigation of necessity wanders far from Shakspeare; but it is difficult to see how it could have been avoided, and the substantial results of the

author's researches ought to silence the critic who is inclined to quibble over the appropriateness of the title of the volume. "The 'Dunciad,'" Professor Lounsbury declares, "owed its existence to the revelation which had been given of Pope's incapacity as an editor, and to that alone." The absence of any accessible edition of the completed "Dunciad" of 1729, and the prevalence of the later version in which Cibber replaces Theobald as hero, have combined to obscure this all-important fact, and to deprive the satire of much of its true significance. Not only does the present volume reveal the real origin of the work, but it also corrects many serious misconceptions that have clouded the whole matter for a century and a half. The pretence of Pope that his aim was to purge society from the nuisance of petty scribblers who assailed the great, is completely unmasked; and the satirist is shown to have sought in his "Discourse on the Profund" to draw out attacks which would seem to justify such castigation as he purposed in the "Dunciad." In this he was largely disappointed, but he nevertheless proceeded to create the impression that he was being persecuted, and he deliberately falsified his statements as to the treatment accorded him in the pamphlets and journals of the day, in order to provide a justification for what was in reality a vent for his private spite and mortified vanity. The success of his efforts has lasted to the present day; and readers of English literature have been induced to believe not only that Pope's victims were malicious, but that they were really dunces, and that the "Dunciad" annihilated them. All of this now appears to be untrue. Pope is further shown, in spite of his denials, to have used the *Grub Street Journal* as a personal organ, and later to have left its editor, now for the first time identified, in the lurch, when the paper no longer served his needs.

The painful impression produced by such additional evidence of the degradation of a great writer is partly compensated for by the rehabilitation of Theobald. While this critic can by no means be freed from the charge of having stooped at times to undignified methods of controversy, he is shown to have been on the whole honest and disinterested as well as scholarly; and his position as the greatest of textual critics of Shakspeare is made clear. Many inaccuracies of detail concerning his methods and actions are corrected, and abundant evidence is produced of his learning and acumen.

"Let it not be fancied," says Professor Lounsbury in conclusion, "that I delude myself with the belief that the facts here presented, incontrovertible as they are, will reverse the verdict passed upon the man by ages too prejudiced to consider fairly, too indifferent to feel concern, too indolent to investigate. The world cares very little for justice." We may be permitted to hope that such pessimism reflects only a passing mood in the veteran scholar who has in his time labored so well for the cause of truth. Already the acknowledgments of Messrs. Clark and Wright, and the efforts of J. Churton Collins and others, have done much to give Theobald his due. The present volume will do more; and though the immediate effect may be confined to a limited circle of specialists, sooner or later the truth is sure to reach the general reader,

and even for Pope and his victims will the whirligig of time bring in his revenges.

Meantime, we wait for the conclusion of Professor Lounsbury's survey. With some restraint of his besetting sin of diffuseness and repetition it should be possible to cover the remainder of the history of the text in one volume, and the series will then stand as the most comprehensive account we possess of the posthumous fortunes of any English author.

CURRENT FICTION.

A Lady of Rome. By F. Marion Crawford. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Mr. Crawford has no distinct message to deliver, or problem to suggest. He is essentially an entertainer. To him a novel is not a vaudeville turn or a drawing-room discourse to the initiate. The simplicity, fluidity, and vigor of his style are characteristic of his conceptions. Subtlety of temperament or character often interests him, but never mere subtlety of mind.

This story reintroduces us into the Roman circle to which "Saracinesca," "Pietro Gbislari," and the rest gave us access long ago. The theme is that one inexhaustible theme, an unlawful love and its consequences. Its treatment is refreshing; for these sinners are not invented that a punishment may be invented, nor are they dealt with according to the familiar conventions of prosaic retribution or poetic justice. The suffering to which his lovers are brought is a human suffering, not expiated by final renunciation or death, but, as chances, terminated by a stroke of fate which unites them by all bonds. There is a casualness in the event which may seem unduly ironical, or even immoral, to persons who wish to believe that human affairs go by rote. From the dramatic point of view the dénouement is certainly inconclusive. But a novel does not follow the rules of melodrama or tragedy. If the bit of human experience which Mr. Crawford here chronicles is to be considered as data, its inconclusiveness need not be taken as insignificance. The story has the familiar swing; like its forerunners, it is decidedly a book to be read at a sitting.

The Poet and the Parish. By Mary Moss. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

One is grateful to Miss Moss for having depicted, in these days of drivelt about the artistic temperament, a poet who, however socially irresponsible, is by no means morally invertebrate. He loves and marries a stupid and conventional woman, and remains faithful to her, even continues to love her, by virtue of an innate purity and fidelity of nature which "the parish"—that is, Mrs. Grundy—is incapable of understanding. He has not sinned in Adam's fall, but is a man of sound nature, whom gross temptations cannot assail. Consequently, he is blandly indifferent to the little rules of propriety which are the fruit of social expedience or of social prurience. Having suffered much from his fool of a wife, and come to despair of any sympathy from her, he leaves her for a time. Circumstances lead him into what society calls "compromising circumstances," involving a perfectly good girl, a young actress. The

wife, believing everything against him, goes back to her parents. The girl is subjected to scandalous notoriety, industriously fostered by her manager. Self-respect forces her to leave the stage, and further circumstance throws her, in a sense, upon the mercy of the poet. Believing himself finally abandoned by his wife and feeling the appeal of the girl's helplessness and trust, he is about to become her protector (we use the word in no smirking sense), when the sudden knowledge that his wife is to bear him a child recalls him, not to submission to the parish point of view, but to a renewal of the relation which he himself could never have willingly dissolved.

The story, we think, would have been more powerful, if not more immediately effective, if its tone had been less light and satirical. We are in danger of finding ourselves rather amused than aroused by the irony of the situation. It should, perhaps, be enough that there are no dull or meaningless persons or events, and that a deeper note seems to sound beneath the trebles and tenors of the social-comedy strain.

The Breath of the Runners. By Mary Mears. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.

Tales of the "artistic temperament" and the Bobemian life continue to multiply; apparently the market for that kind of commodity continues firm. Just now (perhaps "The Divine Fire" set the fashion), no story of the order is complete without its production of one or two masterpieces by the gifted hero or heroine, or both. It is not enough that we should observe the artistic temperament in its rather lamentable minor incarnations struggling along the high road toward the goal of a decent mediocrity. We must find productive genius presiding over whatever shabby studio we may chance to peer into, and a great work upon every second easel. We are required to love the smell of paint and the studio jargon, and to snatch a fearful joy from the spectacle of one or other pair of young idiots of different sexes being unconventional over a pint of wine in some snuffy café. This, it appears, is Youth, and Art, and Life.

These young innocents are all after Fame or Glory, and most of them "arrive," or "succeed." The standard of success is, to be sure, not very exacting; one has to distance a rival and make the critics "sit up and take notice." "The Breath of the Runners" describes the race between two young women, sculptors and close friends, for this kind of goal. The writer has a serious purpose. "So long," reads the Preface, "as our cities are centres of inflamed and abnormal activity into which all types are drawn and set acting and reacting upon one another in a relentless and incessant struggle to attain preëminence, just so long the parable contained in 'The Breath of the Runners' must have weight." What is the parable? Two poor American girls make their way to Paris and the inevitable Quartier. One is honestly in pursuit of excellence; the other desires to be praised, and particularly to be praised above her friend. Each produces the expected masterpiece and is given place in the year's salon. Then something happens which the author re-

gards as tragic, but which to us seems nearly farcical. Enid, the self-seeking artist and faithless friend, has made a daring group of a death-angel giving a cup to a dying soldier. The angel, "mysterious and buoyant, is gay even to laughter. Her eyes meet the observer with a deep, inexplicable mirth, and like the eyes of some pictures, they follow him wherever he goes." This work, at first hailed with applause, is presently pronounced by the critic as sensational and insincere. The group represents not the joy of death, but the joy of life. The other girl's work grows in favor. Enid determines to prove the sincerity of her work, and, according to the author, effects this perfectly by drowning herself in the Seine. The critics take it all back, and the immortal merit of the work is assured by a supreme manifestation of insane vanity! If it were not for this absurd person and the incidents which concern her, the novel would be exceptionally good of its kind. There is plenty of material in the story of Beulah Marcel, a really credible and desirable woman, and her experiences of art and of love, without resorting to the motive of morbid rivalry.

Henry Northcote. By J. C. Snaith. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co.

Thirty-four out of the thirty-nine chapters of this story we read with scant patience. The narrative passages are written in the worst style imaginable, turgid, affected, diffuse, with a minimum of grammatical soundness and a maximum of rhetorical effort. "Why not demand it with all the fervor of his nature, like others who had sought their opportunity had done so often?" "All the subtle implements of his nature could not resolve such a potency as that." And so on. For the substance of the story not much more can be said. Most of the characters are shadowy nuisances, and the hero is a fantastic bore. There is much fumbling at psychological analysis of nothing in particular, and much detailed reporting of what is declared to be the matchless eloquence of the cheerful Northcote. We might be reading the first literary effort of some grocer's clerk whose literary enthusiasm hung fire between Marie Corelli and Anna Katherine Green. It is only the hope that the latter is really the presiding genius of the narrative that carries us through those thirty-four chapters. We seem to be following, though at a snail's pace, the scent of some "detective" mystery. Henry Northcote, a half-starved barrister, receives a brief for the defendant in a murder trial. The accused is a prostitute, who has killed her lover of the moment under singularly brutal circumstances. Northcote's speech in her defence is a tissue of lies and sophistries, but it wins the verdict. And here, some three-quarters of the way through the dawdling volume, a real story begins. Out of all this verbiage and sentimentality emerges something distressingly like the naked truth. At his moment of triumph Northcote wakes to a sense of his own perfidy; and perceives to his despair that the price of his achievement is moral wreck. He has prostituted his youthful ideals and his manly powers to the service of unworthy ambition. He has destroyed his faith in himself.

Outface it as he might, the flaw was

in himself. It had been there from the beginning. . . . Better a thousand times not be distinguished from the mediocrity he was never weary of despising, than to be at the mercy of a genius that would compass his destruction.

In this hour of possible regeneration comes to him the woman whom he has saved from merited punishment. She, it seems, is a victim of heredity and circumstance, and with all her villainess not utterly lost. She looks to him with hope as the possible saviour of her soul as he has been of her body. He is pitiless with himself and with her. He tells her that he has saved her not in the hope of a higher justice, or in a spirit of Christ-like compassion, but to advance his own fortunes. He is no longer worthy or capable of the task which she proposes for him. So he extinguishes the last ember of soul in her, and she, reverting to the wiles of her trade, usurps his body. Having dragged him to her level, she wishes to die at his hand, and at length by force achieves her end. He then quite deliberately plans and effects the concealment of the deed, and the final destruction of his own soul. Nothing remains of him but his genius and his ambition, and they are allowed to go scot-free. The brutal directness and simplicity of the means employed to effect this partial escape are impressive in a manner strangely yet logically at variance with the vague inconsequence of the narrative up to the point of climax. However reluctantly, one must yield to such a book the admiration due to a thing of crude force.

Portraits and Jewels of Mary Stuart. By Andrew Lang. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2.75 net.

Among all the uncertainties by which Mary Stuart is enveloped the two most baffling relate to the authorship of the Casket Letters and the Queen's personal appearance. Mr. Lang, whose courage is above reproach, grappled with the Casket Letters in his "Mystery of Mary Stuart." He now brings to the study of the portraits his usual willingness to state and defend a distinct opinion. "I hold," he says, "that some portraits do more than is commonly supposed to vindicate Mary's character for beauty, and, above all, for charm. I shall be taxed with credulity but that is a charge which does not afflict me."

One follows naturally the process of exclusion, and in the case of Marian portraiture it can be pursued almost as far as with the pictures ascribed to Leonardo and Giorgione. At the Glasgow International Exhibition of 1901 there were displayed eighteen portraits or miniatures, of which Mr. Lang at once declares fifteen to be spurious and misleading. Most of these "hopeless effigies" represent false types that can be traced to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries or even to a period not more remote than the regency of George IV. The "round-faced nun-like person," the lady with a crown and crucifix, the Book-of-Beauty heroine, are all there, together with several miniatures on ivory, though this material was not used by miniature painters for a hundred years after the axe fell at Fotheringay. However, since Henri Bouchot will admit the authenticity of only four portraits among the hundreds named after Mary Stuart, the

management of the Glasgow Exhibition did well to secure as many as three for which something can be said. Mr. Lang, however, is less skeptical than M. Bouchot. Distinguishing between portraits of whose authenticity there is complete proof and those that stand in close relation to the authentic portraits, he enumerates thirteen likenesses which have a true historical value. The list embraces three drawings, five miniatures, two portraits, and a medallion.

One fixed feature of all the authentic portraits is the long, low, straight nose. The Queen is also known to have had a rather long face. Most people believe that Mary Stuart was very beautiful, and undoubtedly a large part of the interest bestowed upon her career is traceable to this impression. In the portraits, however, it requires an uncommon degree of enthusiasm to discover any sign of exceptionally good looks. Some of the devotional portraits reveal dignity, but they are not the most authentic, and, besides, like most of the others, they are a long way from suggesting beauty. Yet the fact remains, as Mr. Lang has phrased it: "Mary was either beautiful or she bewitched people into thinking that she was beautiful." For purposes of contemporary effect it made little difference whether her beauty was apparent or real, but at this distance of time it is a matter of considerable interest to determine what she actually looked like.

For ourselves we much prefer the crayon sketches which were done in France between 1559 and 1561. No one seems to dispute the pedigree of "Le Deuil Blanc," by François Clouet, and there are good grounds for placing confidence in the sketch of Mary, as Dauphine, by Jehan de Court. The hardness of these artists is well known and can be allowed for. Expression is their weak point. But in the delineation of features they were careful and can be depended upon to furnish a pretty accurate chart of the face as well as a most punctilious reproduction of costume and jewels. They give no impression whatever of the Queen's animation or *natural*, but the elements of physiognomy are there.

Mr. Lang takes a great interest in the Melville portrait, so-called because it is the property of the Earl of Leven and Melville. It has undoubted merit and claims to be authentic on the score of the jewels which it introduces. The picture belongs ostensibly to 1559-60; the costume is ascribed by experts to a date not earlier than 1572; while, in the opinion of the late Sir George Scharf and Lionel Cust, the style of painting bespeaks a period still later. Against these considerations Mr. Lang's strong point is that the jewels shown in the portrait are distinctly set down in the inventory of Mary's personal possessions and could not have been known to an artist of the seventeenth century. On the question of date he is willing to yield a little, but he stands firm on the main issue:

It will be conceded, I think, that if the Leven and Melville portrait is not an original, probably painted in France about 1560, it is a very good copy of such an original, and not an archaeological reconstruction of the seventeenth century.

The reason why this particular portrait merits Mr. Lang's championship is that it

has a glow of life which one does not get in the crayons of Clouet and Jehan de Court. But even allowing its essential authenticity, the charm of Mary Stuart must have come from her temperament rather than from her features.

Especially in its account of the Queen's jewels this study is a valuable addition to the knowledge of all who have not the advantage of being Scottish antiquarians.

A Queen of Queens: The Making of Spain.

By Christopher Hare. Illustrated. New York: Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.50 net.

The history of Spain, first and last, gives admirable scope for picturesque writing. The commonplace of the bourgeois never meets its historian, and if he has commonplaces he brings them himself. Distinction is the note; even the peasant, if not somebody's son, has his sense of hood and difference: he is an old Catholic, with no drop of unchristian blood, or he is secretly proud of his Oriental inheritance from Hebrew or Arah ancestry. So, too, the church stands apart; treats equally with Rome and makes Rome yield; the Cid of legend cannot endure the papal chair above that of Spain. And not without cause did the last knight-errant run there his gallant career, and follow ideal if wandering fires, and the last chronicler of the spirit of the middle ages in melancholy irony close and crown the record of that period with the tale of its noblest son. Good two centuries were to pass before the modern world appeared and laid Don Quixote's lance again in rest; and over that space the most idealistic figure is the brain-struck Spaniard. And now in the awakening Spain there stirs the same spirit of distinction, in art, in letters, and in life. It may give visions far removed from ours of comfortable subjection to the opinion of the many, but the commonplace cannot rule it. If, in Oriental fashion, there is unrest and disturbance, there is, too, Oriental color and spontaneousness.

As a seeker of the picturesque, then, Mr. Hare has turned from his Italian studies to the story of Isabella the Catholic. Her and her fortunes he frankly regards as such material; he makes no claims, we take it, to independent historical research. Rather guided by previous leanings, he has endeavored to gain such familiarity with her achievements and her entanglements as may enable him to put all these vividly before the more casual reader. And the material has answered to his hand. We have here, if not a minutely and conscientiously scholarly, yet a brilliant, an intelligible, and a fairly correct picture of her and her times.

The first fifty pages are given to Moorish Spain from the conquest until the birth of Isabella in the little walled town of Madrigal in Castile. From this point there is a wealth of illuminating detail. If we cannot be sure that the elaborate disentangling of motives is sound, evidently sound are the broad sketches of character: the devoted and queenly Isabella herself; her enigma of a husband, a strayed figure from the Italian Renaissance, uneasy in the simpler Spain; her daughter Catharine of England, a child in a foreign land, driven to set her wits against the unscrupulous keenness of Henry

VII.; Henry VII. himself a fit opponent for Ferdinand; Margaret of Austria, now lying in marble in the church of Brou; the persistent Columbus; Cardinal Mendoza of the Polyglot, Granada, and the Inquisition; and, long surviving all the rest, Queen Juana, *la loca*, "the Mad," dying only in 1555, and at last permitting her son, the Emperor Charles V., to seek rest in his cell. If the Moorish figures are mere shadows flitting across the stage, no other historian has succeeded in making them real. In all treatments, this war of the last reconquest looms like a fight with ghosts, or at best with the puppet heroes of a romantic legend. They were of an alien world, one of which the historians of Spain have so far had little direct knowledge, and could in no wise make to live; and among them no great personality stood out with convincing reality, as had done the earlier Saladin. Not even a pathetic interest is created; Boabdil, himself, missing his true fate in his last battle for his own, strikes no such tragic note as the great refusal of Charles Edward at Culloden. His last sigh might come from an opera.

But on the Spanish side all the events are great and weighty, and it is always plain that the world is the stage. The reconquest, the Inquisition, the New World, Ferdinand's scheme of European empire, are unravelled here as definite facts, even though they are made subject to the picturesque. The great outburst of Spanish energy, the breaking into a new over-seas life, the essential dignity, force, and difference of the Spanish character, all make Mr. Hare's treatment possible and even successful. That he is somewhat given to adjectives is only natural, and that his enthusiasms run high is still more natural. The historian would be scientific, in sad truth, whom Isabella the Catholic would not carry off his feet. That he seems hardly to have read his proof-sheets is another matter; to be balanced perhaps by the excellent illustrations.

A History of Higher Education in America.

By Charles F. Thwing, LL.D. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$3 net.

The president of Western Reserve University, a graduate of Harvard thirty years ago, has rendered a good service to the students of education, in this country and abroad, by the preparation of an historical volume which is full and comprehensive, though it does not profess to be exhaustive. He informs us that it is the result of twenty-five years' study (not exclusive, however) of that most interesting problem, the origin and development of American universities, colleges, and other higher institutions of learning. The scope is wide, and yet it is restricted. For example, the great scientific societies, the museums, and observatories receive only incidental mention; and the independent foundations of Smithson and Rockefeller are not described. There is an intimation, however, that in a future "history of education, in all grades in this country, during forty years," the writer will discuss certain subjects which are briefly considered in this volume.

One-third of the volume is devoted to the pre-revolutionary period. Of course, Harvard, William and Mary, and Yale receive the most attention; but

Princeton, Pennsylvania, and Columbia come in for briefer notices; and Brown, Rutgers, and Dartmouth are not overlooked. Then follows an account of later foundations in all parts of the country, and special chapters on Finances, the Education of Women, Undergraduate Affairs, Professional Schools, Courses of Study, earlier and later, with a brief final résumé on "the general results" of all these efforts and undertakings.

The volume is very readable, and its pages are enlivened by many personal sketches of men who were prominent in educational movements. It is not surprising that in so wide a survey there are occasional slips on the part of the narrator, and that there are omissions which the friends of each institution that is named will regret. The work should have been more thoroughly revised. There is no attempt to give a philosophical review of the various forces which have contributed to the intellectual progress of the country. On the other hand, there is no other volume which contains such a full account of the manifold, intelligent, self-denying, and successful endeavors of the American people to secure for their youth the highest advantages of liberal culture.

It is fortunate that the endeavor to secure higher education both in New England and in Virginia was developed in the very earliest colonial days, and that the colleges were established on the principles and with the methods of the universities of Great Britain. These original colleges were established in a period when the university idea was suppressed in Oxford and Cambridge by the growth of funds, discipline, and usages more strictly collegiate, and it was long before the word "university" was used with any freedom on this side of the ocean. As the country increased in population and in resources, the English ideas, modified and adapted to new conditions, were transmitted to every one of the United States, so that "the college" represents to this day, from Maine to California, substantially the same conception. Dr. Thwing brings out this fact especially in his narrative of the origin and growth of Southern and Western institutions.

The original colleges were largely, but not exclusively, governed by ecclesiastics. Ministers of the Gospel were the educated class, and before lawyers, physicians, and the laity in general made themselves felt, the ministry cherished and guided the infantile establishments. This affords no reason for regrets. It was the best thing that could be done in those simple and impecunious days. Even now there are many who prefer this mode of control, as is shown by the large number of denominational foundations established in recent years. On the other hand, the establishment of non-sectarian State universities in the original Northwest Territory has had a wonderful influence for good. They have been free from ecclesiastical control, but they have stood firmly and effectively for the promotion of sound learning and for the advancement of professional training, schools of theology being purposely omitted.

During the last half century a third class of universities has come to the front. Cornell, Johns Hopkins, Chicago, Leland Stanford, and Tulane are conspicuous examples, where private munificence has establish-

ed self-perpetuating boards of control, independent alike of States and churches.

On the whole, every patriot may follow with Dr. Thwing his appreciative review, rejoicing that so much has been done, and on the whole so well done, for the support of higher education, the preservation of the lessons of the past, and the encouragement of literature and science; and the supporters of superior education are certainly grateful to the author for bringing together such a mass of details on this important subject.

A Priced Lincoln Bibliography. By William H. Smith, jr. Privately printed.

The interest among collectors in everything relating to Abraham Lincoln has been increasing of recent years, and as a subject for collecting, books about Lincoln may even rival the older favorite of American collectors, books about Washington. The interest in a line of book-collecting may be gauged, with more or less accuracy, by the number of bibliographies on the subject. The first attempt at a Lincoln bibliography was compiled by Charles Henry Hart and Andrew Boyd, and published by the latter in Albany in 1870: "A Memorial Lincoln Bibliography; being an Account of Books, Eulogies, Sermons, Portraits, Engravings, Medals, etc., published upon Abraham Lincoln," etc. Bartlett's "Literature of the Rebellion," 1866, should perhaps have precedence, for, though covering a larger field, it included some three hundred eulogies, sermons, poems, etc., on the death of Lincoln. In 1900, Daniel Fish of Minneapolis compiled his "Lincoln Literature: A Bibliographical Account of Books and Pamphlets Relating to Abraham Lincoln," published by the Minneapolis Public Library. The next issue of this character appeared from the Government Printing Office in 1903: "A List of Lincolniana in the Library of Congress," by George Thomas Ritchie. The latest contribution is "A Priced Lincoln Bibliography," compiled by William H. Smith, jr. There is also announced for immediate publication a new and much enlarged edition of Mr. Fish's book, to be called this time a "Lincoln Bibliography." This latter was prepared for publication in the Gettysburg edition of Lincoln's works, and only forty copies will be issued separately, each to be interleaved, for additions.

A comparison of Fish's "Lincoln Literature," 1900; Ritchie's "List," 1903, and Smith's "Priced Bibliography," 1906, does not show, as it should, that the last is the best. If the author had called it a "Priced List of Books about Lincoln" instead of a "Lincoln Bibliography," he would have done something to disarm criticism. A bibliography it is not. The titles are much condensed, and in some cases badly condensed, and many of the collations are faulty. The prices will doubtless be a useful guide, but while they are said, "with very few exceptions," to be those paid at auction, nothing is said as to the condition of the book or the circumstances of the sale, and in no case is more than a single price noted. In some cases several copies of the same book have presumably been sold, but whether the price given is the highest or the lowest, or an average, we know not. The Library of Congress

"List" is the most accurate bibliographical, and naturally, for no books were described except those directly before the cataloguer. The titles are sometimes condensed, but condensed according to well-known bibliographical rules. In Fish's book the titles are transcribed, generally at full length, and the collations are full for the most part, from the books themselves. The collations of some books, not seen by the compiler, are faulty. In Mr. Smith's "Bibliography," no printer's or publisher's name is given; explanatory matter, which by Fish was inclosed in square brackets to indicate that it was not on the title, is sometimes printed without the brackets; and the preliminary pages are, with possibly a very few exceptions, omitted from the collations. For example, where the Library of Congress "List" gives the collation as "xiii., 476 pp." and "(2), xv., 471 pp.," Smith says only "pp. 476" and "pp. 471." These are not isolated cases, some fifteen cases having been counted among the entries under B alone. Smith's "Bibliography" in its 64 pages of books contains something like 1,100 entries, but a considerable number are more or less general works on the Civil War, and volumes of verse containing one or more poems on Lincoln. Taking the entries under the letter B as a basis, the Library of Congress "List" (excluding references to collected works) shows 89 entries of books actually in the library; Fish's 1900 list contains 105; and Smith's compilation, excluding general works, bibliographies, volumes of verse, and a few such books as "'Old Abe,' the Live War Eagle of Wisconsin," which are dimly and distantly Lincolniana if such at all, contains 119 entries. Several of these are books issued during the last five years.

The Principles of English Verse. By Charleston M. Lewis, Professor of English Literature in Yale University. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.25 net.

So far as it goes, this little book is excellent. Apparently it is made up from the lectures, more or less recast, which have proved useful to the author's students in verse-composition. The style is informal and readable and the treatment is marked by good sense and great clarity; clarity and good sense combined are alone enough to give some distinction to a work on English versification. Of originality the author does not claim much. The general line of procedure is indicated by the chapter headings: "Rhythm and Metre," "The Pentameter Line," "Blank Verse," "Rimed Pentameters," "Miscellaneous Metres," "Embellishments of Verse." Some clever demonstrations are furnished by partly rewriting well-known passages in a way to illustrate the points in question.

The serious defect which led us to begin with the cautionary phrase, "so far as it goes," unfortunately, touches the very basis of Professor Lewis's doctrine of rhythm, which is perfectly sound, but which requires an addition to make it adequate. "Rhythm may be roughly defined," he says, "as a recurrence of similar phenomena at regular intervals of time." He goes on to set forth admirably two well established principles. First, the rhythm of speech, in verse and prose alike, is merely one manifestation of our

instinctive tendency to give a rhythmic form to all recurrent muscular efforts. Second, our æsthetic sense rejects, after early childhood, a rhythm that is too mechanically perfect; a certain degree of conflict between the ideal scheme in the mind and the actual series of sounds, which plays about and reveals, but seldom reproduces perfectly, the ideal scheme, is essential to continued pleasure. Mr. Lewis also restates very well another important fact, that the place of a stressed syllable in the ideal scheme is often filled satisfactorily by a syllable that is normally unstressed; the time is kept sufficiently, and rhythm is a thing of times. But accepting all this, and returning now to the ideal scheme, is the rhythm of our verse adequately described by saying that the stressed syllables recur at equal intervals, and that the number of intervening syllables is limited thus or thus? Mr. Lewis shies at the notion of the foot in English. He is willing to use the ancient terms, dactyl, iambus, and the rest, in the modern naming of syllabic groups; but since "feet are not organic elements of rhythm" (italics ours), he concludes that "analysis of verse by feet is like analysis of pictures by square inches." But the illustration is imperfect and misleading. He should have taken, not a picture, but a design that is really analogous to a rhythmic scheme—as a meander, a Doric frieze, a Bokhara rug. Designs like these can be analyzed only by a process very like the analysis of verse by feet. But a better comparison is with music. "The single melody is the molecule of music, the smallest element in it that cannot be subdivided without loss of character," says William Gregory Mason. But the musician would laugh at the idea that analysis of music by measures is like analysis of a picture by square inches. The foot and the measure alike are real units in the rhythm of verse and music, respectively. Without such a unit there is no rhythm. To describe the measure, to indicate the relation of its parts to each other, is the first step in describing a piece of musical rhythm. Shrinking from the analogous step in describing verse, Mr. Lewis has no means of indicating some of the commonest phenomena—for instance, the obvious difference of rhythm between

The world was all before them
and

To bicker down a valley.
By his traditional method both alike are

Nor can he indicate the characteristic rhythmic type of such lines as these:

Home came my gude man, and hame came he.
John Brown's body lies a moldering in the grave.
Who found me in wine you drank once?

It is not enough to say that frequently there is "no light syllable at all between stresses."

In short, having once recognized that rhythm concerns time-intervals, why need one fear to take the next step, logically inevitable? The time-relations between the syllables in each group are what chiefly characterize each kind of rhythm. Without the notion of the foot there is no way of clearly marking or describing rhythm in verse, as there is no way of describing musical rhythm without the measure, or bar. Mr. Lewis's definition of rhythm is both clumsy and less complete than the

ancient one, "a regular arrangement of time-intervals." The foot is a group of times which by repetition, with or without variation, characterizes and measures a longer series. The relation between up-beat and down-beat, arsis and thesis, within the foot is an essential part of the characterization. If we use the ancient marks of quantity in their original sense, and mark ictus or rhythmic stress by the acute accent, and then divide the feet as we divide music by the bar, the first two examples above are

$\cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup |$
 $\cup | \cup - | \cup \cup | \cup - |$

and

This notes the differences accurately. The examples of the second group are all in even time, up-beat and down-beat being equal. Why reject a method so simple and adequate? If Mr. Lewis could take this one logical step, he might give us a hook which would reveal, to all who care to penetrate it, the whole heart of the mystery of English verse-rhythms.

The Passing of Korea. By Homer B. Hulbert. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. \$3.80 net.

Books on Korea may be named by the dozen, but this is *the* book. Professor Hulbert has the genius of research. Whatever is Korean interests him, and during two decades he has sought knowledge in every direction, from nursery rhymes and verbal folk-lore to private manuscript and printed encyclopædia. Having founded the *Korea Review*, he has been not only editor, but chief contributor. What our own S. Wells Williams did for China, he is doing for Korea, and the present volume is the result of personal observation, literary research, intelligent industry, and of the cooperation of native scholars. His style is bright and rapid, his examples and illustrations from personal experience are abundant, and, happily for his readers, he has a sense of humor. Sometimes, indeed, he seems to care more for fun than for severe dignity of style.

On the Korean language, Professor Hulbert is an authority. In treating of literature, art, folk-lore, woman's position, manners and customs, he writes with easy command of resources. The book is handsomely printed, and there is a good index. The pictures are all full-page, and are from photographs, mostly new, several of extreme interest.

The historical narrative, which is condensed from the author's "History of Korea," already printed in his *Review*, though presented in very readable form, does not satisfy all the rigid requirements of modern criticism. There are no notes or references. The fact is, however, that in the field of ancient and mediæval history the materials are not yet ready upon which a critical historian can work. We cannot feel that in these stretches of time Mr. Hulbert has always carefully separated what may be called a reasonable view of actuality from superabundant legend and tradition. There is slight proof of any severe examination of Chinese sources, while most of that which is solid ground in Japanese history seems to be an unexplored land to the writer. When he comes to modern history, he is clear and full, and, on the whole, surprisingly ju-

dicial. We use our words advisedly, for Mr. Hulbert does not conceal the fact that he has all along, and sometimes with heat, protested against the seizure of Korea by Japan; he even came to the United States, and acted in Washington as the Korean Emperor's private emissary. The opening chapter, on the modern history of Japan, is extremely one-sided. It is, moreover, curious that the one foot-note in the book is from that piece of caricature and extravaganzas entitled "The New Far East," a quotation which seems an arrant absurdity to those who know Japan fairly well. Yet with all deductions this work leads all books on Korea in richness of information, and the conclusion shows the author's broad-mindedness. He says:

Korea can gain nothing by holding back and offering to the plans of Japan a sulky resistance. They are face to face with a definite condition, and theories as to the morality of the forces which brought about the condition are wholly academic.

His concluding paragraph is a noble plea for education and American sympathy.

Drama.

Kate. A Comedy in Four Acts. By Bronson Howard. New York: Harper & Brothers. \$1.25.

After a prolonged silence, Bronson Howard comes forward with an international comedy in four acts, called "Kate," presented in narrative form; that is to say, the dialogue is pieced together by the aid of the stage directions and other explanatory or descriptive matter with which the up-to-date dramatist ekes out the limited imagination of the modern actor. It is a play with a moral which, reduced to its simplest expression, is that marriage, when contracted solely for the sake of money or rank, is little better than prostitution. Written in the vein of the best of his previous plays, "Aristocracy," it exhibits similar virtues and defects. It shows observation, inventiveness, and timely purpose, together with a considerable amount of constructive skill, but these good qualities are marred by an unfortunate extravagance both in types and incidents and an occasional descent into rather crude sensationalism.

Few thoughtful persons will dispute the truth of the general proposition that marriage without mutual affection is nearly always unwise and very often degrading, but it does not follow that a fiery mutual passion is the sole and sufficient justification of the tie matrimonial. Between love and passion the distinction is very wide indeed—although they may be coexistent—but of this fact some of Mr. Howard's characters seem to be ignorant. The heroine, the lovely daughter of an American multi-millionaire, is engaged to the heir of an English duke, but is in love with his brother, a clergyman, whom she encounters at a masked ball where they gazed into each other's eyes without speaking. Later on, when she is about to be married and he is engaged, they meet again and the flame kindled by that fatal glance is renewed. Her betrothed, it appears, has ruined one of his father's dependents, and the complications lead to discussions of the marriage relation which could scarcely be

spoken on the stage and, in any event, are more radical than judicious. In the end matters are straightened out *more theatrical* by a reassessment of partners, but the assurance of "happiness ever after" is by no means strong. The play is interesting reading, but carries no conviction with it.

"The attempt and not the deed confounds us," cried Lady Macbeth. This motto was illustrated in the representation of Browning's dramatical poem "Pippa Passes" in the Majestic Theatre on Monday afternoon. The projectors of the hazardous experiment deserve credit for their courage, liberality, and manifest pains. This episodic, phantasmagoric piece, with its subtle psychology and complicated utterance, is singularly lacking in the coherence and sequence so vital to acted drama, and the only chance of successful performance must lie in a brilliant interpretation of its text—a vocal realization of its imagery and a clarification of its more recondite passages—and a vivid portrayal, amounting to incarnation, of the leading characters. None of these requirements was fulfilled on this occasion. Mrs. Le Moyne has long been known as an effective and intelligent reader of Browning, but she has not the temperament or other qualifications for the embodiment of such a part as that of the enchantress Ottima, with her fiery passion and supple guile. She spoke her lines with sufficient elocutionary skill, but lacked passion and plastic grace. The Seald of William Beach was utterly inadequate. There was some glow of fervor and romance in the Jules of Charles Gotthold, but the Phene of Eleanora Leigh had no quality to account for the spell which she was supposed to exercise. Mabel Taliaferro, whose acting is full of promise, gave a clever girlish performance of Pippa, but the long opening soliloquy of the play contains too much for her present powers of expression. The literary side of the entertainment, indeed, fell far short of its intent and possibilities. But the scenery was wholly admirable in its beauty and appropriateness, and the musical accompaniment, written by William Furst, if not remarkable for originality or invention, exhibited a sense of what was fitting, and was played by an orchestra of rare excellence for a theatre.

The Russian actress, Madame Alla Nazimova, who in her native tongue has already established for herself a position of considerable prominence on the local stage, played in English for the first time in the Princess Theatre, on Tuesday afternoon, and, if she did not actually triumph over all difficulties, fully justified the hope that she may do so in a not remote future. She appeared as Ibsen's Hedda Gabler, a part which has been accounted among her best achievements, and marked its most obnoxious characteristics with an almost lurid emphasis. The strange language was plainly a great handicap and enforced a deliberation which created an effect of melodramatic artificiality, but her conception was original, hold, and consistent, and illustrated at times by striking eloquence of pose and gesture.

Miss Ellen Terry will begin her American tour in January. According to present plans she will make her first appearance

here in "Captain Brassbound's Conversion," but she will have several other plays with her, and is likely to be seen in Portia and other favorite parts.

The Paris theatrical season has opened with two successes, one of which was bound to have considerable merit. Both deal, though differently, with the everlasting marital event and its consequences. The "Passagères," by Capus, who is still the most popular of high-class amusers in Paris, gives the series of adventures befalling a husband, so good-natured that his daughter's governess, his wife's milliner, and his own cousin in need, to whom he wishes to do charity, take him away from the wife whom he loves. Parisians laugh, even the *jeune personne*, who, under the new régime, is brought to such plays. The "Préférée" of Lucien Descaves is quite different, full of the tragic emotions caused by the uncertainties of the Everlasting Feminine. The hero has two daughters, of whom the younger is his "preferred." Some busybody persuades him that she is not his own, and the wife, already repentant through many long years, confesses. Hence much fine fury and the packing off of mother and hitherto preferred daughter into outer space—until the man finds he loves the girl too much.

The English Drama Society proposes to give a series of representations of the old Chester mystery plays in the city of Chester, and has secured the consent of the mayor and other local authorities. The dean of Chester, however, and his bishop have entered a protest against any such proceedings, on the ground that to many persons they will be offensive if not actually blasphemous.

Music.

"MADAM BUTTERFLY" AS AN OPERA.

One of the most complete operatic fiascos on record was that of Puccini's latest work, "Madam Butterfly," when it was first produced at Milan on February 17, 1904. The score was thereupon withdrawn and revised, and in the new version it proved a sensational success in London. The great cast with which it was presented (it included Miss Destinn and MM. Caruso and Scotti) no doubt was an important factor. The performance of an English version at the Garden Theatre on Monday night by the Henry W. Savage Opera Company afforded the first opportunity in this city of weighing the merits and demerits of the novelty. After the first act it seemed easier to understand the Milan failure than the London success; but the second and third acts made a more favorable impression.

Mr. Savage has certainly staged "Madam Butterfly" beautifully. There is a picturesque view of Nagasaki lighted up at night, and there are Fujis and Buddhas, and shoshi, and kimonos, and a nako, and wistarias, and "cherry" blossoms galore. The music, too, is full of Japanese local color, and that constitutes its principal charm. Puccini not only introduces genuine Japanese airs, but so harmonizes them as to emphasize their exotic quality. Some of them recur as leading

motives, and by this repetition gain much in impressiveness. In other respects Puccini has learned from Wagner—in the art of subtle and varied orchestral coloring and in the saturation of his score with voluptuous chords of the ninth *à la* "Tristan und Isolde." One thing, unfortunately, he could not learn from Wagner—the art of originating new melodies. The absence of melodic originality is his weak point. What makes his operas popular now is that Puccini understands extremely well how to write effectively for singers as well as for players. The love duo in the first act of "Madam Butterfly" will never fail to arouse enthusiasm when well sung, as it was on Monday by Mme. Szamosy and Mr. Sheehan. The manifold charms of the orchestral score were fully revealed under the conductorship of Walter Rothwell.

DR. MUCK AND THE BOSTON ORCHESTRA.

The interest in orchestral concerts is growing in New York city. The Philharmonic Society has had an advance sale of season tickets exceeding by several thousand dollars that of any of the other sixty-four years of its existence. Walter Damrosch has felt called upon to give four Saint-Saëns concerts (with the coöperation of that composer) instead of two; and when the Boston Symphony Orchestra gave its first Carnegie Hall concert, last Thursday, not only was every seat taken, but there was a brisk demand for more tickets than could be supplied. This state of affairs was the more significant inasmuch as there was no singer, pianist, or violinist to give the variety and popular interest commonly supposed to be essential to a successful orchestral concert.

The soloist's place was usurped by Dr. Muck, Boston's new musical pilot. Would he prove to be a man of mere polish and precision, like Gerike; or of excessive energy and misplaced accent, like Paur; or a true poet and interpreter, like Nikisch? Inasmuch as only two composers were represented on the programme, a decisive answer to such questions would be premature. Still, Dr. Muck's way of interpreting Beethoven's fifth symphony and three Wagner numbers—the "Faust Overture," "Siegfried Idyll," and "Meistersinger" prelude—probably gave a fair measure of his artistic stature and traits. It cannot be denied that Beethoven's symphonies have become somewhat faded through excessive repetition. To freshen the interest in them we need strongly individual interpretations. From this point of view, Dr. Muck proved disappointing. While not strictly metronomic, he is, on the whole, conventional, and if he nevertheless succeeded in making the music sound bright, this was owing chiefly to an animation which seems to be his chief trait, and which he is able to impart to his players. In the Wagner numbers the new conductor proved a great improvement on his predecessor. For once the brass players were allowed to make themselves heard where the music is marked fortissimo. Yet climax-building is not Dr. Muck's strong point. The "Meistersinger" Vorspiel left much on that score to be desired. In the "Siegfried Idyll" one missed the subtle contrasts and miniature climaxes, so to speak, with the aid of which

Seidl used to make this *sinfonietta domestica* seem so beautiful. At the Saturday afternoon concert Dr. Muck proved himself an excellent Brahms conductor, and there was more poetry in his interpretation of Weber's "Oberon" and "Frelschütz" overtures than in any of his performances at the first concert.

There was a time when pianists had to stoop to conquer; even the greatest of them, Liszt, was obliged, early in his career, to indulge in daring feats of virtuosity calculated to astonish rather than to exalt his hearers. Rubinstein did not have to do this; nor has Paderewski ever done it. In this there ought to be a lesson for Moritz Rosenthal, who began his fourth American tour last Wednesday at Carnegie Hall. For more than two decades this Galician pianist has been famed for his skill in mastering difficulties, but a place among the greatest was denied him because technical skill was so much more in evidence than artistic feeling. There had been reports from abroad that he had begun to curb his virtuosity and subordinate it to more musical impulses. His choice of Brahms's "Variations on a Theme by Paganini"—an abnormally difficult but absolutely empty show piece—and his playing of his "contrapuntal study in thirds" on a Chopin valse, which degrades one of the loveliest pieces into a vulgar show piece, seemed to indicate that the leopard had not changed his spots. Luckily, his interpretation of two concertos—Chopin's E minor and Liszt's E flat major—revealed him in a far more favorable light. While he played these, no one thought of the technique, but only of the beautiful music and the exquisite art of the interpreter. It was authoritative playing—poetic, tender, graceful, and with an admixture of interpretative genius.

The grand opera season begins at the Metropolitan in Thanksgiving week. The programme for the first week includes "Roméo et Juliette" (with Farrar, Plançon, and Rousselière, who has taken the place of Jean de Reszke at the Paris Opéra), "Marta," "Tannhäuser," and "Fedora." Probably there will also be a popular performance of last season's success, "Hänsel and Gretel."

The season at the Paris Opéra opened with an event of the first order—Massenet's new piece, "Ariane," with its libretto by Catulle Mendès. These two—Massenet at sixty-four, Mendès at sixty-six—are veterans, each in his own art. Massenet has evidently striven valiantly to rise above the prettinesses of his prime. The poet, whose voluminous rhyming has often been too precious and easy, has now given the same care to a mere libretto which he devoted to the classical drama of "Medea," all his own.

Art.

THE NEW YORK WATER-COLOR CLUB.

The seventeenth annual exhibition of the New York Water-Color Club is open at the American Fine Arts building, No. 215 West Fifty-seventh Street, till December 2. The 361 pictures are not as a whole above the

average of mediocrity. The fashion remains in this exhibition, as elsewhere, to seek in water-color almost any effect but those most properly characteristic of the medium. There are plenty of effects of oil or pastel or lithograph, but very few examples of pure wash-drawing or handling that reveal transparent color and deftness of touch.

An instance of the falsification that may come of overconfidence in the "blottesque" technique is the "Moonlight in Katwijk," by Arthur Feudel, in which, as in certain atmospheric effects by Cazin, the surface of the house seems to be sloughing off a kind of luminous slime. Truer to nature are two moonlight scenes by Adelaide Deming, which suggest with much charm, through low tones indistinguishably rubbed together, the soft glow of dusk. One feels at once with relief, in turning to the two New England coast scenes by Childe Hassam, that one of the elements of their superior strength is their boldness of touch. The boldness, indeed, is almost blatant, but, with this reservation, the manner is a marvel of summary handling, and the pictures themselves, with a third, his "Newfields Village," are unsurpassed in the exhibition of deftness, vivacity of color, and force in the presentation of a vivid and authentic impression. Two scenes by George Wharton Edwards, "Early Morning—Monhegan" and "Irish Fishermen Entering Port," are fresh in feeling and sufficiently vigorous in handling. Three scenes by Fred. Wagner are remarkable for their pleasantly strong and crude color and for a certain blunt directness of drawing. Charles Warren Eaton is represented by several landscapes quiet in tone and Dutch in derivation. Several Moorish scenes by Addison T. Millar show with an appropriately simple handling a charming feeling for architectural quaintness. "Pittsburg," by John Edwin Jackson, is an interesting impression. The drawing in the background is too definite to give the proper suggestion of atmospheric vagueness, but the treatment of the sordid homes in the foreground and of the children playing in the street is effective, and the artist has put into the contrasting nearness of the homes and mills something of its tragic meaning. "The Fourth Watch," by Charles Austin Needham, representing Christ walking the waves, achieves an impression of mystery. He would have achieved an impression of the miracle if he had made the waves look less like terra firma. "The Mystic," by Albert Prentice Button, is a delicate twilight river view, sure in its gradations of tone. R. Wilkinson in the "Mission of San Juan Capistrano," and Alon Bement in "1812" strike quiet notes of gray and brown, the gray and brown of old parchment. The feeling in this work is more interesting than its technical accomplishment.

The figure pieces are fewer and of lower average interest than the landscapes. The Beal prize was awarded to M. Petersen for the "Coppersmiths," an interior of a workshop with the four or five coppersmiths at work. The lighting and values in this picture are far from carrying authority, and there is on the whole more life and interest in the same artist's "Fruit Sellers." "Evening in the Park," a little pastel by Alfred Feinberg, and two park scenes by Marianna Sloan show alert observation of

typical bits of city life. Two scenes by F. Luis Mora, "New Americans" and the "Spanish Fair in Goya's Time," make with considerable cleverness a show of realism that keeps an eye out for theatrical effectiveness. "A Study of John Burroughs," by Mathilde de Cordoba, is, on the whole, the best of the few portraits in the exhibition.

In the November *Bulletin* the Metropolitan Museum of Fine Arts announces important acquisitions. A Holbein portrait of the Basle period, dated 1517, shows the master near his beginning. In the strong shadow and a bas-relief in the background we see his keen attention to chiaroscuro. The interest of a colossal Triton, strikingly like a Rubens, but probably by Van Dyck in his Genoese period, is chiefly technical. Artists will appreciate better than laymen what a splendid bit of flesh painting it is—solid, harmonious, brilliant. The Museum is to increase its Egyptian collections. A. M. Lythgoe has been called from a curatorship in the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, to take charge of this new work. Most of his time for the near future will be spent in actual excavations in Egypt. In the department of classical sculpture the collections are the richer by a marble statue of Eirene, headless and armless, but of beautiful execution, being an early Empire copy of a Greek original of the fifth or fourth century, B. C. It is more attractive than its duplicate, the much restored Eirene and Ploutos of the Munich Glyptothek. In the New York example, the style of the draperies is in every way more refined, as may be seen from the parallel illustrations in the *Bulletin*.

Some eighty of the Whistler etchings and dry points from the royal collection at Windsor Castle, and some eighty others, principally from the collection of the late J. H. Hutchinson, are now on view for the month at Wunderlich's gallery in this city. The 161 numbers of the collection offer a comprehensive view of the scope and development of Whistler's art on copper. Among the finest and rarest pieces are several examples of the Amsterdam series, representing Whistler's latest manner.

An exhibition of Rembrandt etchings, dry points, and drawings may be seen at Kappel's gallery in this city. There has been nothing for some years in New York to equal this collection of Rembrandt prints, and though it makes no pretence to being exhaustive, the ninety examples are a large number to be found together in America. They represent in proofs of beautiful quality the three great classes of Rembrandt prints: the portraits, the landscapes, and the Scriptural pieces. It is interesting to note in this exhibition how much Legros, the greatest living etcher, owes to Rembrandt.

The 102d annual exhibition of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts will open on January 21 and close on February 24. The exhibition of water colors, pastels, and works in black and white will follow in March.

J. Pierpont Morgan has given permission for a popular edition of the privately printed catalogue of his porcelain, loaned to the Museum. This admirable handbook, prepared by William

L. Laffan, will soon be accessible in an inexpensive form.

In the excavations at Cape Sunium in Attica, carried on by the ephor, B. Stais, two colossal archaic statues have come to light. As early as 1884 Dr. W. Dörpfeld's excavations at Sunium revealed the fact that the marble temple of Poseidon—to which belong the twelve columns still *in situ*—is built on the foundations of an older temple. It has been conjectured that this older temple was destroyed by the Persians in 480 B. C. The newly found statues probably fell on the ground during that catastrophe, and when later, in the second half of the fifth century B. C., the temple of Poseidon was erected, they were built into the terrace and thus saved for posterity. They belong to the so-called "Apollo" series, of which the Apollo of Tenea in the Glyptothek at Munich is the most noted example. The Sunium figures are said to surpass this statue both in execution and in artistic conception. They are of good preservation, though one figure has lost its head; it is possible, however, that this will still be found in the excavations.

The site of the ancient Phœnician city of Motye has been purchased by Mr. Whitaker, and this month excavations are to be started under the supervision of Professor A. Salinas, the director of the National Museum in Palermo. Motye, near the western extremity of Sicily, was one of the three strongholds to which the Phœnicians retired when the Greeks of the eighth and seventh centuries B. C. began to establish themselves in Sicily. It is hoped that the excavations will shed some light on the history and art of Phœnicia—a subject on which our direct information is scanty.

Paul Cézanne, the painter, died recently at the age of sixty-six, at Aix-en-Provence, his native city, whither he retired some years ago. He went to Paris a little before the war of 1870, for the purpose of studying painting. For ten years he worked almost exclusively in the Louvre, copying chiefly the French artists of the eighteenth century and the Venetians. Meantime, in the suburbs of Paris or in his native country, he painted landscapes, which, whether from negligence or from a temperamental inability to carry his work to a finish, he left usually in the incomplete condition of sketches. This peculiarity led him, to his horror, to be classed in the impressionist group. But though he regarded his art as classic in tendency, his preoccupation with the problems of light clearly relates him to the luminists. His landscape, however, is a late reflection of Corot, and in carrying on the Corot tradition he showed the way to many young artists who had revolted from the impressionist formula. As exemplifying thus a somewhat conservative tendency which adopted some of the qualities of the impressionists, he found himself the head of a school, and exercised a wide and wise influence.

Samuel J. Kitson, the sculptor, died in this city last Friday at the age of fifty-eight. He was born in England, but he pursued most of his art studies in Rome, where he became imbued with the religious spirit which marked much of his later work. He came to this country in 1878, after having won many prizes in Europe.

The first year he was in New York he modelled busts of Longfellow, Bishop Potter, Ole Bull, Samuel J. Tilden, and others. Among his other works are the Sheridan Monument at Arlington, Va.; the frieze of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument at Hartford, Conn., and a medallion for the Holy Cross Cathedral in Boston.

Science.

THE MATHEMATICAL TRIPOS IN CAMBRIDGE.

CAMBRIDGE, England, October 29.

On October 25, the Senate of the University of Cambridge adopted a plan for thorough reform of the Mathematical Tripos, which had been prepared by the Special Board of Mathematics. The first part of the proposal was a rearrangement of the mathematical requirements for a degree, and the second part abolished the traditional ranking according to merit in Part I. of the Tripos, and with it the Senior Wrangler. This last change meant the surrender of the chief glory of the Tripos, as the prestige of the Senior Wrangler, which goes back more than a century, has been world wide. It is no wonder that the greatest opposition was to this part of the reform. The leaders of the forces against the change consisted for the most part of the older mathematicians and honor men who had gone into other kinds of work, while for it were the mathematicians and scientists who are actively teaching mathematics and kindred subjects and who had great influence because they were best prepared to know present conditions. Every one, however, felt that some change was needed.

Twenty years ago the whole of mathematics taught here, beyond the most elementary subjects, was centred around the Mathematical Tripos; but since then the number of candidates for the Tripos has fallen off about half, while those in physics and engineering have increased largely. It is hoped that the new plan will improve matters, not by restricting pure mathematics, but by bringing about a closer relationship between pure and applied. So absorbing is the preparation for the Mathematical Tripos examinations, that the candidates have little time or inclination to study scientific applications. On the other hand, as mathematics is not classed in the Science and Engineering Triposes, lectures in it are rarely or never elected by students in the Science Tripos, who certainly need a moderate amount of higher mathematics. That is, study in pure mathematics now ends with most students of physics when they enter the University. Fortunately, this evil is diminished by the fact that the schools are prepared to carry their scholars through the calculus.

The examinations, since 1882, of candidates for honors in mathematics are divided into two parts. Men who obtain honors in Part I. are graded according to merit, with the Senior Wrangler at the head. Then those who have obtained sufficient honor are eligible to that "nightmare of examinations," called Part II. In this there are four examiners, and generally about as many candidates who have been found willing to go through the ordeal. So

special and difficult are the questions that it is pure chance if a brilliant student answer one of them completely. Nor does the Senior Wrangler of Part I. have any surety of being able to get even a place in the first class of Part II. The proposed change is a relatively easy Tripos, taken after one or two years of residence, which shall be called the Mathematical Tripos Part I. In this, difficult analytical developments will be omitted, and stress will be laid on fundamental physical and mathematical conceptions. Candidates will then pass on, either to physics, engineering, or mathematics proper. It is believed that in this way more men will pass through the Mathematical Tripos, and that the number of mathematical teachers and investigators may be retained at the old level, a result to be desired in the interests of research. For the mathematical students who are to be teachers and investigators there is to be the Mathematical Tripos, Part II. The tripos will contain some elementary questions, so that, as heretofore, the man whose mathematical ability is not of the highest and who will make a successful schoolmaster, can obtain his degree in honors. For the rest, it is a compromise between the "second four days" of the present Part I. and the present Part II. There will be no Senior Wrangler in Part I. with its elementary subjects.

The plan seems to be eminently reasonable. Cambridge since the time of Newton has about monopolized the teaching and writing in mathematics in England, and today students from all parts of the world come here to carry on this tradition. That the best mathematicians here, Profs. Sir Robert Ball, Sir George Darwin, Forsyth, Hopkinson, Larmor, and J. J. Thomson, are responsible for this reform, argues much for its need and its success.

The Behavior of the Lower Organisms. By H. S. Jennings. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$3.

The tenth volume of the Columbia Biological Series, entitled "The Behavior of the Lower Organisms," by Prof. H. S. Jennings, brings together some of the most recent results in a subject known to the older naturalists as the study of instincts. Behavior, as understood by the author, includes instincts as well as simple reflex movements, and also the so-called tropisms or orienting reactions shown by the lower forms of animal and plant life. Two opposed theoretical points of view are held at present by workers in this field. On the one hand the animal is described as turning directly away from or towards a stimulus, hence as orienting itself positively or negatively. This is the point of view of the tropism theory, advocated by Loeb especially, who follows the earlier botanists. Opposed to this interpretation is that maintained by Jennings, who shows by many closely followed experiments that the orientation takes place from the "selection of overproduced movements," that is, by the method of "trial and error." The behavior of one of the lower animals may be compared to that of a blind man who runs into a wall, backs away from it, turning at the same time a little to the right or left, towards "a structurally defined side," and then advances again only to run into the wall at

a different point. He reacts again in the same way, and strikes the wall at a new point. In time he either finds the end of the wall and passes by it, or the turning may suffice to start him off in a new direction, when he continues to move forward in a straight line until he runs foul of another obstacle. While the earlier writers looked upon external stimuli as the cause of movements, Professor Jennings looks upon the movement as a necessary consequence of the "metabolic changes" that take place in the animal. From this point of view external stimuli only prevent continuous movement forward in the same direction.

Another general point of view emphasized by the author is that the great variety of behavior shown by the lower organisms depends on their "physiological states." Each motion or change of motion, may in itself induce a change in the "physiological state" of the animal, so that a second time it behaves differently to the same external stimulus. This is only a general recognition of the familiar fact that a man after a square meal behaves differently from the same man hungry. Applied to the lower organisms the idea appears to unlock many of the vagaries of their behavior. The older tropism theory looks upon the behavior of the lower animals and plants as stereotyped and regular, but Professor Jennings's observations emphasize the differences rather than the similarities of behavior.

The life habits of amoeba and paramoecium are treated in minute detail in the opening chapters; other infusoria fill the remainder of the first part. Part II. deals with the behavior of the sea anemone and its allies; Part III. deals with the results described in the preceding chapters in somewhat more general terms. Conflicting theories are weighed and analyzed. The closing chapters consider the evolution of behavior. Here the author points out that the experiences acquired by the individual may be transmitted directly to the descendants, wherever the descendants arise by direct division of the parent's body—a common method of reproduction of the protozoa. The wonder is, if such transmitted experience is possible, that these organisms have learned so little throughout the ages, and that still, after all their experiences, they go blundering ahead with their overproduced movements. As though appreciating this objection, the author accepts the theory of natural selection as a more probable hypothesis of the origin of the behavior than the inheritance of acquired characters; that kind of behavior of the individuals that is most conformable with survival being selected. It is assumed that "random movements" offer a better solution of the complexities of existence of the organisms than definite turning movements. However this may be, the fact remains that the animals continue their overproduced movements despite the experience of each generation tending to short-cuts and to the selection of more definite modes of reaction.

Professor Jennings's admirable presentation of the results of his observations in this most attractive field of study will appeal to professionals and laymen. The style of the book is clear, straightforward, and convincing. Some repetition of state-

ment seems necessary, and may serve to emphasize the main points.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science will hold its fifty-sixth meeting in this city December 27 to January 1, with Columbia University as the place for most of the sessions. In addition to the American Association, about twenty affiliated societies will hold meetings here at the same time. Among them are the American Society of Naturalists, the Astronomical and Astrophysical Society of America, the American Physical Society, the American Chemical Society, the Geological Society of America, the Botanical Society of America, the Society for Horticultural Science, the Society for the Promotion of Agricultural Science, the American Society of Zoologists, the Association of Economic Entomologists, the American Society of Vertebrate Paleontologists, the Society of American Bacteriologists, the American Physiological Society, the Association of American Anatomists, the American Anthropological Association, the American Psychological Association, and the American Philosophical Association. The first general session will be held at 10 o'clock Thursday morning, December 27, when the retiring president, Prof. C. M. Woodward of Washington will introduce the president of the meeting, Dr. William H. Welch of Johns Hopkins University. At night the retiring president will deliver an address, and the trustees of Columbia will give a reception. Friday evening is reserved for dinners and meetings of special societies and groups. On Saturday afternoon, in the American Museum of Natural History, will be the unveiling of ten marble busts of pioneers of American science, presented to the institution by its president, Morris K. Jesup. In the evening there will be a reception at the New York Academy of Medicine, with an exhibition of scientific progress by the Academy, including demonstrations and short addresses. In the course of the session meetings will also be held at the New York Botanical Garden, the Rockefeller Institute of Medical Research, and the College of the City of New York. The American Association is divided into ten sections. The officers who will preside over them at the coming meeting are as follows:

Section A, mathematics and astronomy, Dr. Edward Kasner, New York; B, physics, Prof. W. C. Sabine, Cambridge, Mass.; C, chemistry, Clifford Richardson, New York; D, mechanical science and engineering, W. R. Warner, Cleveland, O.; E, geology and geography, Prof. A. C. Lane, Lansing, Mich.; F, zoology, Prof. E. G. Conklin, Philadelphia; G, botany, Dr. D. T. MacDougal, Washington, D. C.; H, anthropology, Prof. Hugo Münsterberg, Cambridge, Mass.; I, social and economic science, Charles A. Conant, New York; K, physiology and experimental medicine, Dr. Simon Flexner, New York.

The official speakers will be:

Section A, W. S. Eichelberger, United States Naval Observatory, Washington, D. C.; B, Henry Crew, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.; C, C. F. Mabery, Case School, Cleveland, O.; D, F. W. McNair, Michigan College of Mines, Houghton, Mich.; E, William North Rice, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.; F, H. B. Ward, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.; G, Erwin F. Smith, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.; H, George Grant MacCurdy, Yale University; I, Irving Fisher, Yale University;

K, William T. Sedgwick, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston.

One of the most important ethnological expeditions sent out from Harvard University in recent years is being organized by the Peabody Museum for the object of collecting information about the little-known Indian tribes located on the eastern slopes of the Andes Mountains in South America. The members of the party, which is to be absent about three years, will be Dr. W. C. Farabee, instructor in anthropology, who will head the expedition; Louis J. de Milhau, '06, and J. W. Hastings, '05. A physician will also be included. The headquarters of the expedition will be at Arequipa, Peru, where Harvard has its South American astronomical observatory. The party will seek to reach the tribes near the headwaters of the Amazon and Parana. This region has never been traversed by American scientists, and the reports upon it by Europeans are meagre and relate to only a small part of the territory.

A complete report of the German expedition made under the leadership of Dr. Rosen to Abyssinia, is to be published in the near future under the title "Eine deutsche Gesandtschaft in Abessinien," with about 160 illustrations. The expedition, consisting of nineteen Europeans, traversed some 2,000 kilometres, visiting, among other places, the Gala districts, the headwaters of the Blue Nile, and the ancient Aksum.

The International Commission of Scientific Aeronautics held its fifth conference at Milan during the first week of October. The members visited Pavia, where M. Gamba conducted them through the observatory, and liberated two *ballons-sondes*. At one of the sessions Dr. Erk urged the necessity of making ascents near or among the Alps, in order to study local phenomena, such as the Föhn. In a discussion of the relative value of *ballons-sondes* and kites for atmospheric study to a height of 5,000 metres, the balloons were strongly urged by Professor Hergesell, while kites were considered as far preferable by Gen. Rykatchew and M. Berson. A paper on American ascents of *ballons-sondes* was given by Prof. A. Lawrence Rotch, director of Blue Hill Observatory. M. Teisserenc de Bort gave an account of the expedition to equatorial regions of the Atlantic, organized by Mr. Rotch and himself, from which exceedingly good results were obtained. In the upper air far lower temperatures were recorded over the Equator than at corresponding heights in temperate latitudes, a result contrary to expectation. Future conferences will be held every three years.

The recently published report of Prof. H. H. Turner of the Oxford University Observatory for the year ending April 30, 1906, directs attention to the fact that the working staff is chiefly busy with proof-reading of the Oxford section of the "Astrographic Catalogue," and little new work has been attempted. The catalogue will consist of eight volumes, of which the first is now practically ready, and its printing begun. It contains the measures of 66,000 star-images on 160 plates.

Among other scientific papers contained in the seventy-third annual report of the Royal Cornwall Polytechnic Society, is a

verbatim account of one of Sir Norman Lockyer's lectures, "An Early Chapter in the History of Cornwall." He explains that the work he has inaugurated with reference to the mysterious stone circles and other stone monuments has but just begun. Yet evidence seems to him already conclusive that their erection depended upon the utilitarian necessity for regulating the calendar by observations of celestial timekeepers. In his opinion, Cornwall researches amply confirm similar conclusions resulting from the study of Egyptian temples. Photographs of the principal circles, "The Hurlers" and "The Merry Maidens," are shown in lantern slides, and maps and tables prove the wonderful similarity of purpose in the sight-lines, even when, owing to local conditions, their directions are dissimilar.

J. Philippe Lagrula, of the University of Lyons, has been appointed by the Ecuador Government as director of the observatory at Quito.

One of the most important questions now before chemists is the procuring of a new source of nitrogen (N), an essential element in a fertilizer. At present there are three sources of nitrogen for agricultural purposes: first, natural deposits of nitrates, such as those in Chili, which are insufficient for future need; second, organic waste, blood, tankage, fish or meat scrap, ordinary stable manure, and sewage, enormous quantities of which are recklessly thrown into the ocean—a waste of just what, with chemical change, the world needs; and, third, the nitrogen of the air, which in special cases is made available by certain bacteria that live only on pod-bearing plants, such as garden peas. For years chemists, aware of this yearly depletion, have striven to draw on the inexhaustible supply of atmospheric nitrogen. It must be combined chemically to make ammonia (NH₃), which bacteria convert into a form suitable for plant life; or it must undergo some other chemical change producing the same result. The problem, therefore, has been to convert the nitrogen of the air into ammonia or into nitrates themselves, which fertilize the soil without change by bacteria. It is now believed that practicable methods of using the nitrogen of the air have been discovered. Two important papers were recently read on this subject. The first by Professor K. Birkeland, before the Faraday Society in London; the second, by Professor Adolph Frauk, before the International Congress of Applied Chemistry in Rome. The first paper was on the Birkeland-Eyde process in Norway, in which nitrate fertilizer is made by electric arc discharges through the air. The combination of the nitrogen and oxygen of the air, together with water, makes the nitric acid; and that in turn is easily converted to calcium nitrate, available for plant food. The second paper was on the cyanamide process in Italy, in which nitrogen distilled from liquid air is passed over calcium carbide in an electric furnace, forming calcium cyanamide (CaCN₂). This, with water, yields ammonia gas (NH₃), in which the nitrogen is indirectly available for plant food. By an extension of this process the oxygen of the liquid air, which distils at a higher temperature than the nitrogen, can be used to oxidize

the ammonia to nitric acid. This method of making the acid is claimed to be more efficient than the Birkeland-Eyde process. It has been reported that there is one drawback to the cyanamide process, for recent experiments show a detrimental effect of the cyanamide on seed germination. This fact makes it undesirable to employ the cyanamide directly on the soil.

Edmund Howd Miller, professor of analytical chemistry and assaying at Columbia University, died last Thursday of typhoid fever. Born in 1869, he graduated from the Columbia School of Applied Science in 1891; in 1892 he received the M.A., and two years later the Ph.D. From the position of assistant in chemistry he rose rapidly to a full professorship in 1904. He had complete charge of the department of analytical chemistry since Dr. Rickett retired seven years ago. He has written several treatises, the most important of which is "Quantitative Analysis for Mining Engineers." He was chairman of the New York division of the American Chemical Society, and he was also a member of the executive committee of the Society of Chemical Industry of London.

Finance.

THE DEFICIT IN NEW YORK BANK RESERVES.

Last Saturday the weekly statement of the New York Associated Banks, showing a "deficit in reserve," threw the money market into commotion. It was particularly noted that this was the third deficit of the year, the others having occurred in the statements of September 8 and April 7; that not since 1899 had any year included three "deficit weeks"; that not since 1890 had three deficits occurred in three separate months; and that the statement foreshadowed extremely high rates for money. In view of these facts, it is worth while to consider in detail what such recurrent "deficit" really signifies as to banking operations, what it involves to the borrowing community, and what is the duty of public officers in regard to it.

The National Bank act of 1864, as subsequently amended, provides that whenever the holdings of lawful money (excluding, of course, bank notes) in the hands of a national bank in specified "reserve" cities falls below the ratio of 25 per cent. to its deposits, and whenever the similar holdings of a national bank elsewhere fall below 15 per cent., such a bank "shall not increase its liabilities by making any new loans or discounts, otherwise than by purchasing bills of exchange payable at sight," until the prescribed ratio is restored. In other words, liabilities must not be increased. Lending on bills of exchange is excepted, because that is a means of drawing foreign gold and replenishing reserves. The Comptroller of the Currency may warn a bank showing such deficiency to make good its reserve at once. If it fail to do so within thirty days he may, with the concurrence of the Secretary of the Treasury, force it to stop business.

He may do so, not *must*—an important distinction. There are two ways in which the ratio of reserve to deposits may be

brought below the 25 per cent. dead-lino. A market's currency reserves may be drained by demands of interior centres, by gold exports, or by the accumulation of cash in the national Treasury. Unless loans are cut down in a still larger degree, the 25 per cent. reserve, which is required in New York city, may thereby be impaired. Or, without any actual loss of cash, deposit liabilities may be so increased, through the making of loans at a reckless rate, that the reserve will be less than the legal ratio. The outright drain on the reserves is worst in such panics as that of 1893, when bank depositors are withdrawing and hoarding money; the undue expansion of loans is commonly seen in "boom times," when every one is speculating and borrowing, and the banks are providing the credits. In a panic, the fall of the reserve below 25 per cent. may be wholly unavoidable; in the "boom," it is likely to result from recklessness. Hence the discretion on the part of the Government authorities, either to do nothing or to force the offending bank out of business.

In the present instance the banks were not brought to a deficit by influences beyond their own control. Money has indeed been drawn from New York partly by needs of active internal trade, partly by the Treasury's accumulations. Since the beginning of August, however, the Treasury has deposited \$18,000,000 in the banks; and \$40,000,000 gold has been imported; nevertheless the cash reserve of the New York Associated Banks has decreased \$35,000,000. But this is a perfectly familiar phenomenon of the season. It occurs because, when trade is dull at interior cities, bank liabilities light, and, therefore, need for reserve money reduced, interior banks send cash to New York. They do so, not only because they no longer need the currency, but because New York banks, which can lend on Wall Street at all seasons, offer 2 per cent. interest for use of this money of interior banks. With these fresh reserves, the New York banks expand their loans. In prudent banking, this expansion will be cautious, especially as autumn approaches; because at harvest, the interior bank will ask for its cash again. Tens of millions in actual currency must be sent to the farming districts to pay off hands; in addition, the trade of a prosperous farming season requires that inland banks themselves should increase loans to customers, and hence, should need more reserve money.

If New York banks have used these borrowed resources carefully—in particular, if, on the eve of the "interior demand," they have brought their reserves to a figure 10 or 15 per cent. above the bank law's minimum, the return of money is easy. This year, the New York banks did nothing of the sort. In the middle of last August, reserves stood at only 25½ per cent. of deposits. With the banks in so weak a position, and with the largest legitimate interior demand in the history of the country just before them, powerful Wall Street capitalists, controlling certain important banks, started a stock speculation of such magnitude as to strain all the credit resources of New York. By September 8, a deficit was reported. With the help of the Treasury and the foreign markets, a surplus was restored; but it was perfectly evident that only by abandonment of Stock

Exchange speculation, sale of the stocks jacked up with borrowed money, and consequent reduction of bank liabilities, could normal conditions be restored. The gambling millionaires had no such intention; they continued their operations; as a result, in spite of help from Europe—at present apparently cut off—the banks are again below the required reserve.

One hears occasionally, even among intelligent people, that the 25 per cent. reserve is "for use when needed"; and that, since at this moment somebody needs it badly, nothing could be more commendable than "dipping into the reserve." Eminent financiers have suggested that, while the 25 per cent. requirement is well enough for dull midsummer markets, the ratio for the autumn ought to be put at 15 per cent. or less. This is absurd. The arbitrary 25 per cent. was fixed, not because that was exactly the sum required to meet a "run," but because some line has to be drawn beyond which deposit institutions must not inflate liabilities. In 1857, when American banks largely arranged such matters for themselves, and when half of them had lost their heads in wild speculation, an almost general bank suspension followed. Government and people learned the lesson. The required ratio for "reserve" cities might conceivably have been 15 per cent.; it might conceivably have been 35. Whatever it was, the business of the banks was to adhere to it. Under the circumstances their successive deficits of the present season have provided a chapter in American banking history of which no American can be proud.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Acton, Lord. Lectures on Modern History. Edited by John N. Figgis and Reginald V. Laurence. Macmillan Co. \$3.25.
- Adams, Oscar Fay. *Scut Patrius and Other Verse*. Published by the author.
- Baily, J. T. Herbert. *The Life of Lady Hamilton*. F. A. Stokes Co.
- Barbour, Ralph Henry. *A Maid of Arcady*. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Baskerville, Beatrice C. *The Polish Jew*. Macmillan Co. \$2.50.
- Beard, D. C. *The Field and Forest Hand Book*. Scribners. \$2.
- Beard, Lina and Adelia B. *Things Worth Doing*. Scribners. \$2.
- Beet, Joseph Agar. *A Manual of Theology*. A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$2.75 net.
- Benson, Arthur Christopher. *The House of Quiet*. Dutton. \$2 net.
- Benson, E. F. Paul. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Birch-tree Fairy Book. Edited by Clifton Johnson. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.75.
- Black, John Janvier. *Eating to Live*. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Bridgman, L. J. *Seem-so's*. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co.
- Browning's Last Ride Together. Putnam's. \$1.75.
- Carpenter, George R. *English Grammar*. Macmillan Co. 75 cents net.
- Cesaresco, Eugenio Martinengo. *The Psychology and Training of the Horse*. Imported by Scribners. \$3.50 net.
- Chatterbox, 1906. Dana Estes & Co. \$1.25.
- Chevillon, André. *Un Crépuscule d'Islam*. Paris. Clark, Imogen. Santa Claus's Sweetheart. Dutton, \$1.25.
- Clifford, Mollie Lee. *Polly: The Autobiography of a Parrot*. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co. \$1.25.
- Connor, Ralph. *The Doctor*. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.50.
- Cook, E. Wake. *Betterment: Individual, Social and Industrial*. F. A. Stokes Co. \$1.20 net.
- Cooke, George Willis. *A Bibliography of James Russell Lowell*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Coupin, H., and John Lea. *The Romance of Animal Arts and Crafts*. Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$1.50 net.
- Crouse, Elizabeth. *Algiers*. James Pott & Co.
- Day, George Edward. *A Wilderness Cry*. Boston: C. M. Clark Publishing Co.
- Dickens's Sketches of Young Couples. H. M. Caldwell Co.
- Dickens, Frederick Victor. *Primitive and Medieval Japanese Texts*. 2 vols. Henry Frowde. 12s. 6d. net.
- Dickson, Harris. *Gabrielle, Transgressor*. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Duff, E. Gordon. *The Printers, Stationers, and Bookbinders of Westminster and London*. Putnam's. \$1.75 net.
- Edwards, William Seymour. *Through Scandinavia to Moscow*. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. \$1.50 net.

Everybody's Cyclopaedia. F. A. Stokes Co.
 Finnemore, John. Foray and Fight. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
 Finnemore, John. Jack Haydon's Quest. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
 Flagg, James Montgomery. Why they Married. Life Publishing Co.
 Fleming, Walter L. Documentary History of Reconstruction. Vol. I. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
 Foster, John W. The Practice of Diplomacy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3 net.
 Friendly Town. The. Compiled by E. V. Lucas. Henry Holt & Co.
 Gambler, J. W. Links in my Life on Land and Sea. Dutton. \$3.50 net.
 Garrison, George Pierce. Westward Extension. Harpers. \$2 net.
 Geung, John Franklin. The Hebrew Literature of Wisdom. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2 net.
 George, Henry, jr. The Romance of John Balbridge. Macmillan Co. \$1.50
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 Lanciani, Rodolfo. The Golden Days of the Renaissance in Rome. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$5 net.
 Lawson, Publius V. Story of the Rocks and Minerals of Wisconsin. Appleton, Wis.: Post Publishing Co.
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 Macdonnell, Anne. Touraine and Its History. Dutton. \$6 net.
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 Masee, George. Text-Book of Fungi. Macmillan Co. \$2 net.
 Masson, Tom. The Von Blumers. Moffat, Yard & Co. \$1.50 net.
 McCarthy, Dennis A. Voices from Erlin. Boston: Angel Guardian Press.
 McCarthy, Justin Huntley. The Illustrious O'Hagan. Harpers. \$1.50.
 Meade, L. T. The Hill-Top Girl. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
 Medical Directory of New York, New Jersey and Connecticut, 1906. Published by the Society.
 Mexican Dishes. Compiled by May E. Southworth. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co.
 Mottram, William. The True Story of George Eliot. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
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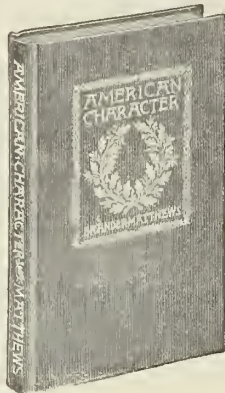
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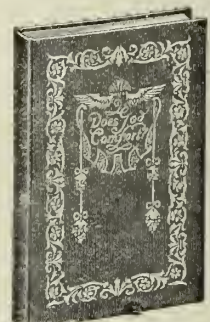
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 22, 1906.

The Week.

Even the suspension for a day of the Presidential order, discharging without honor three companies of the Twenty-fifth Infantry, is a welcome sign that the general public disapproval of the President's arbitrary act is having its effect, at least on Secretary Taft. The War Department has been flooded with letters and telegrams of protest; resolutions and appeals have been pouring in from churches, religious societies, and mass-meetings; and hardly one newspaper in the North has affirmed that the punishment of the innocent with the guilty is just or regular. Fortunately, there is still ground for hope that the President's order may ultimately be revoked. If the new facts he asks for can be laid before him, his love of fair play will induce him to do justice where he was by inadvertence about to do injustice. If some of the men who are about to be discharged without honor were absent on furlough at the time of the Brownsville riot, the President will certainly not insist upon their being punished. Some one may also call the President's attention to what happened when the Fourth Cavalry lynched a murderer in 1891. As we have already pointed out, Col. Compton was at once tried and punished, though the officers of the Twenty-fifth Infantry have not yet been held accountable for the misdeeds of their men. Moreover, a soldier of the Fourth Cavalry who offered to betray his fellows was promptly punished for advising and abetting the lynching, and permitting the carbines to be taken from their racks. Even aside from these details, President Roosevelt will find military men unanimous in their belief that his procedure was incorrect from the technical point of view. The *Army and Navy Journal* feels that the President's procedure "savors too much of Oriental methods," and declares that Mr. Roosevelt violated the army regulations. These specifically state that every soldier who is discharged without honor has the right to have his case considered by a board of officers before his commanding officer can give him such a discharge.

Secretary Root's speech at Kansas City Monday night was conceived in the high spirit of his addresses in South America. It is pleasant to find him laying down the same principles to his fellow-citizens that he enjoined upon Argentines and Brazilians. This shows that he was not simply trying to butter their parsnips with fine words. From

even the meagre reports of his remarks before the Kansas City Commercial Club, it is clear that he stood for good morals in diplomacy, which he said were as obligatory in that sphere as in private life. Between nations, he declared, the same rules of conduct should be followed as between individuals. He called this "the new diplomacy." Yet the contrast is not merely with the old, but with many ingenious dressings of the old in new and deceptive phrases. There is "the larger good," for example, of which we have heard so much in recent years as an excuse for overriding the rights of the weak by the strong. That would have to be given up, in the light of Mr. Root's definition, as would also the "reason of state"—that moral "abyss," as Clarendon termed it—namely, the pretence that a Government can lie or cheat or bully without moral turpitude.

It is easy to understand why Senator Thomas C. Platt should be indignant at all this talk that he ought to resign. What new reason is there in this latest disgrace, which has resulted in his separation from his wife? His reputation, of a sort to make his reception in a decent home impossible, has been perfectly known for twenty-five years; but what difference has that made? He has had the highest honors of his party in this State. He has been deferentially consulted by Governors and Senators and the President. He has been received at the White House, not only officially, but socially. So what is all the row about? From Platt's point of view, the whole thing is clearly unintelligible. He is not at all conscious now of being more unfit to be Senator from New York than he has been all these years. Why this sudden squeamishness on the part of his faithful Republican supporters? Not even his dear pastor now comes forward to defend him as before. We admit, however, that the question ought not to be determined by Platt's own *mens conscia recti*. The feelings of the State really come in, absurd as that may seem to Platt. It is even necessary to consider the honor of the Republican party. Surprising as it may appear, there are people who assert that his continuing in office is a shocking example to youth, and a standing source of public demoralization. Even newspapers that have in the past grovelled before him, or slobbered him, are now demanding that he quit the scene. Taking these things into the account, and disregarding Platt's natural wonder that anything he has done has changed public opinion about him, we think that the first act of the Legislature should be

the passage of a joint resolution calling upon him to deliver the people of New York from the ignominy of having him as Senator.

A comparison of the power of the labor vote in the Congressional elections, with that of the tariff revisionists, is much in favor of the latter. Three prominent standpatters were defeated, the best-known being McCleary of Minnesota, whose plurality of 9,059 in 1904 was this year turned into a plurality of 1,500 for his Democratic opponent after a campaign in which the tariff was almost the only subject discussed. Lacey of Iowa, one of the readiest protectionist debaters in the House, and a staunch Shaw partisan, was beaten by about 2,200 votes in a district which gave him 9,373 plurality in 1904, and even this year was carried by Cummins for Governor. In Indiana, a plurality of 8,185 in 1904 for Frederick Landis, a high-tariff orator, became a plurality of 1,000 for his opponent. Several Republicans of the Ways and Means Committee had a rough road to travel. Chairman Payne and John Dalzell had their 1904 pluralities more than cut in half, while Watson of Indiana and Curtis of Kansas managed to retain their seats by bare pluralities. On the other hand, two Democratic members—Champ Clark of Missouri and Granger of Rhode Island—more than doubled their pluralities of two years ago. In Massachusetts, Samuel W. McCall, an avowed Republican revisionist, carried his district by a greater vote than that given to Roosevelt in 1904. These figures indicate that a bold and energetic tariff-revision campaign throughout the country might have cut the Republican majority much lower. Mr. Gompers's American Federation of Labor made a poor showing in its campaign against certain Congressmen. Speaker Cannon's plurality, while not reaching the high figures of 1904, was still about 1,000 greater than his lead of 7,600 in 1902. Lilley, Representative-at-large from Connecticut, against whom one of the bitterest labor fights was waged, was reelected by a plurality less than that of two years ago, but greater by about 8,000 than that of 1902. In Maryland, Mudd, though losing largely in the Baltimore city districts, obtained a plurality considerably larger than that of 1904. Representative Gardner in New Jersey, another of Gompers's dearest foes, was elected by over 9,000, a plurality nearly up to that of 1902. Indeed, the only real successes that can be attributed even indirectly to labor influence, are those of Nicholls and Wilson, two miners' representatives, in Pennsylvania; Cary, who won a Republican nomination in Wisconsin at the primar-

ies; and McDermott of Illinois, a union-labor man who represents the "Packing-town" district.

Hearst's sworn election expenses of more than \$256,000, not only break all records, but outrage all propriety. While Hearst was shouting that the other side intended to purchase the election, he was throwing in his quarter of a million with the coolness of a hardened gambler, betting on what he thought was a sure thing. The poor man's champion, with a corruption fund of hundreds of thousands in his right hand, is a novel and repulsive and ominous figure. But this publication, portentous as it is to reflecting citizens, may simply make the politician breed lick their chops. Let's get him to run again! For the love of Heaven, have him nominated for something else! In all seriousness, such huge and growing payments by candidates for office in this country are an evil that we shall soon have to deal with. We shall have to take a leaf out of the English Corrupt Practices Act, and limit by statute the amount that any man can spend to obtain office. When Gov. Higgins returned \$30,000 as his campaign expenses, two years ago, we all gasped a little. But this year a successful candidate merely for the State Senate has sworn to more than \$31,000. In Massachusetts, Mr. Draper has laid out some \$50,000 to be made Lieutenant-Governor. And now comes the loud dumping of Hearst's barrel. Where is this to stop? If the offices are really to be auctioned off, a thrifty people will surely set bigger plutocrats than Hearst to bidding.

The indictment of Mayor Schmitz of San Francisco and of "Abe" Ruef, his boss, for blackmailing disorderly resorts, is a sign of hope. Not in the whole depressing history of our municipal misgovernment has there been a more flagrant alliance between the authorities and the forces of evil. The system, of course, pleased the corrupt railroads and corporations, the merchants who profit by illegal favors, and all the elements that make money out of a "wide-open town." A year ago, the decent citizens of San Francisco made an effort to rescue the city by electing as Mayor John S. Partridge, a young lawyer of integrity and courage. He came within a few thousand votes of winning, but the dissolute, the criminals, the grafters, the labor unions, and those affiliated with corrupt corporations were successful in retaining Schmitz, or rather Ruef, in power. The former was originally elected Mayor as the representative of union labor. A defender of organized labor as a political force must be speechless in view of its San Francisco record. It

has owned the city and the judges. Gompers himself declared three years ago that "every non-union man in San Francisco must get out," and the threat was nearly fulfilled. When a ship-owners' association asked for protection for non-union workmen, Schmitz told them that he would not allow "his police" to protect a lot of strike-breakers, and he did not. When the great fire was over, the labor-leaders stated in a proclamation that no union would be allowed to raise wages, and that non-union men would be allowed to work. This was hardly published before non-union men were driven from the ruins, and there is not a trade to-day in which wages have not been raised from 20 to 30 per cent. Labor agitators have long dwelt on the halcyon days certain when everybody would be unionized. Well, the plan has been tried in San Francisco, and the whole world can read the result. In the face of a great calamity the city's hands are tied; its name is besmirched. Union control has meant simply license to rob.

The decision that the Rev. Algernon S. Crapsey is a heretic is now confirmed by the highest tribunal of the Episcopal Church. He wished to test the sense of the Church, to ascertain how much it would tolerate in latitude of doctrine. He has discovered that the Church cannot contain a man who repudiates the dogma of the Virgin Birth. Whatever clergymen of the more advanced school may think, the controlling powers hold that this tenet is one of the fundamental verities. We do not, we confess, see how the Court of Review could reach any other conclusion. Until some body, such as a general convention, entitled to speak for the Church, declares that belief in the Virgin Birth is a non-essential, the Court was bound to construe the words of the creed according to their obvious acceptation, the meaning which they have carried for centuries. If Dr. Crapsey holds that Christ was the son of human parents, his place is in some organization which admits that view. Furthermore, he should not be made the sole martyr in this cause. If he is driven from his parish, all brother-clergymen who think with him are logically and morally bound to abide by the sentence passed upon him. If they really are spiritual leaders, they must speak out and take the consequences with him, rather than stultify themselves by silence. The easy way is to smother conviction and say nothing; but the clergyman who allows Dr. Crapsey to suffer while he himself, guilty of the same offence, escapes, knows in his soul that he is unfit not only for the ministry, but for association with honest men.

The election of four architects to be

Associates of the National Academy of Design is a step we are glad to note. Whatever is to be said, or left discreetly unsaid, about modern architecture, it is unquestionably the ground on which art and great wealth most nearly meet. The architect is the natural intermediary between the wealthy individual or corporation and the painter or sculptor. The four men just promoted to academic honors have all in varying capacities been ambassadors to capital for mural-painting and sculpture. In the present chaotic state of American civilization, such mediation has been most necessary and useful. It should be said also that, as compared with other artists, the architects have been socially minded, and have perhaps done more for the education of taste than any other single class. In fairness, we must add that American architecture has suffered terribly from commercialization. The secluded position of the other arts has been, if unwholesome, a safeguard also. There are some who feel that a fine landscape by Homer Martin outweighs in æsthetic importance all the building of the decade; but such comparisons are unprofitable, and the Academy certainly does well to acknowledge the courtesy it has so long enjoyed at the hands of the architectural profession.

The state of mind of a man who could explode a bomb in the first church of Christendom is difficult to analyze; but some sort of consuming hatred is the chief motive of the crime—a hatred that embraces both the past and the present. It is curious to recall that the apparent fiend who would slay and mutilate his fellows by scores, may entertain some paradisiacal vision of the future. He is willing to blow any of us up *pro tempore*, in order that posterity may be freed from the shackles of Church, state, and all organized institutions. Such a state of mind clearly borders on the insane, but it would be an indignity to the most unfortunate class of humanity to identify the anarchists with them. We have to do, rather, with a monstrous depravity, in which the emotions are subdued to some persistent fallacy of the mind, or rather merged in the single emotion of hatred. How to deal with such avowed and formidable enemies of mankind is indeed a most difficult problem. Law seems pretty nearly impotent in the case, for the wretch who tried on Sunday to make a slaughter in St. Peter's, may, on Saturday, have seemed the most benevolent of doctrinaires. In short, we have to reckon with a disease of the emotions that seems to evade both the medical and legal professions. And public abhorrence is an equally futile resource, since complete self-sufficiency has ever been the chief characteristic of these fanatics.

The Berlin Conference on Wireless Telegraphy which recently adjourned, reached conclusions that will be of great value in the development of this new method of communication. The convention, which was signed by Great Britain, Germany, the United States, Argentina, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Chili, Denmark, Spain, France, Greece, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Morocco, Norway, the Netherlands, Persia, Portugal, Rumania, Russia, Sweden, Turkey, and Uruguay, contains, as its most important provision, an agreement that the signatory Powers will make arrangements for wireless communication between their coast stations and vessels of all nationalities. Great Britain, France, and Spain, together with Portugal, Italy, Japan, and three minor Powers, reserved the right to exempt certain stations, but in return bound themselves to provide "open" stations. The United States and Germany led fifteen other Powers in expressly renouncing the right to close any of their coast stations to passing ships—a broad and liberal policy, which will go far towards ending any narrow rivalry between companies and systems. From the first, the United States insisted upon the obligation of general communication and transmission, not only between ships and land, but between all ships. If Great Britain had endorsed the proposal, the success of the American delegates would probably have been complete. The English representatives argued that the obligation was too onerous to be imposed upon general shipping, which includes private yachts. In the licenses which will be issued by the British Government to ships with wireless outfits, this requirement will not be inserted, but probably her ships will readily receive and transmit wireless messages, as hitherto they have never failed to answer signals of distress or requests to report ships in trouble. There was at first an effort to reserve certain exclusive rights for the Marconi companies. Fortunately, the technical and commercial experts maintained that the opening of the Marconi stations to other messages was, in the long run, far better for the Marconi interests. And as these arguments coincided with still broader international and humanitarian views, the battle against monopoly was won.

Writing of Moscow as he found it, a correspondent of the *New York Outlook* said:

Except for the strikes, business is nowhere seriously disturbed, and men buy and sell, "eat, drink, and are merry," as usual. The big pleasure resorts—the Aquarium and the Ermitage—were full to overflowing each evening, and I have never seen the people gayer or more given over to pleasure.

This failure to appreciate the momen-

tous nature of the issues now being worked out in Russia is not unexampled. Russia to-day can show atrocities surpassing the traditional iniquities of the Inquisition: martyrdoms (like that of the girl students of Cronstadt descending into the very lupanars to gain the ignorant sailors for the revolutionary cause) equalling those of mediæval legend; exaltation, excess, superhuman ferocity, and almost superhuman devotion. Perhaps the daily sensation of the newspaper has destroyed the sense of proportion, and with it the sense of wonder. But there is a more pertinent reason. After all, why should the spectators be seized with the awe of great events when the actors themselves go at their tremendous tasks in so light-hearted a fashion? War is war, and revolution is revolution, but hunger and clothes and the desire for social intercourse are also facts, and though the Russian student be quite ready to offer his life for his cause, he can see no reason why he should also sacrifice his glass of tea or his cigarette. To the younger of us, to whom the Civil War is the name for a great national agony, it will never cease to be somewhat of a puzzle to read of the gayety that marked the "flush times" of the war; to think that Edwin Booth was giving the first of his productions of "Hamlet," and that Longfellow was putting the finishing touches to the "Tales of a Wayside Inn" in the year of Gettysburg. That a great contemporary movement should now and then be tainted with sordidness, that a living hero should be occasionally a bit of a blackguard, and a saint of our own days something of a simpleton, does not surprise us; but the past is different, and wears a halo. We may repeat the name Mukden a half-dozen times, and remain comparatively cold. But Waterloo, we are sure, must have been fought while the world attended with bated breath. That is partly true. But it is also true that of Waterloo a great author wrote with fine insight:

All the country and Europe was in arms and the greatest event of history pending: and honest Peggy O'Dowd, whom it concerned as well as another, went on prattling about Ballinafad and the horses in the stables at Glenmalony, and the claret drunk there; and Jos. Sedley interposed about curry and rice at Dumdum; and Amelia thought about her husband and how best she should show her love for him; as if these were the great topics of the world.

The anniversary of the granting to Russia of the so-called Constitution was observed by some Russian newspapers by footing up for the year the roll of deaths by violence. Incomplete the figures must be, since only a part of the facts found their way to the press; yet the total of 24,239 deaths in riots or at the hands of the executioner, is enough

to make the world aghast. No less than 22,721 persons are known to have perished in pogroms, riots, conflicts with the authorities, and punitive expeditions. That this is not all of the bloody record appears from the fact that hundreds, if not thousands, of the massacred Jews were never accounted for. Official executions disposed of 1,518 lives, and thus proved beyond dispute how useless is capital punishment, when a whole nation is aroused. Of the political agitators, 851 were given penal sentences, aggregating 7,138 years. In the effort to control public opinion, 523 newspapers and reviews were suppressed, and 647 editors prosecuted. During the year, 31 provinces were wholly, and 43 partially, under exceptional laws (state of siege or war, etc.). To these figures the *Strana* adds that during the past twelve months there were 1,629 agrarian riots, while 183 secret printing offices and 150 depots of arms were discovered. The depots contained thousands of rifles and revolvers, tons of powder and explosives, and several machine guns. Bombs to the number of 244 were thrown at officials; while no less than 1,955 armed burglaries were reported.

The English Secretary for War, Mr. Haldane, whose career, in office is a close parallel to Secretary Root's in our War Department, is not satisfied with the creation of a General Staff and a college to educate it. He is convinced that specialists in moving troops and furnishing supplies must also be produced. What he wants is capable business experts—"experts in the whole mechanism of modern business, in accounts, in supply organization, and transport, in all those things for which you train men before sending them to organize railway work or to administer some colossal industrial organization." Since there never have been officers trained for this task, the English public is "only just now quivering with excitement over the spectacle of a great mass of important work badly done to the detriment of the national purse." For aid Mr. Haldane has already turned to the colleges, the London School of Economics having undertaken to make a beginning in training for affairs. A group of men has already been chosen as the nucleus of an administrative staff, which may some day be on the same footing as the General Staff. The question is an interesting one: is the modern army to be clearly divided into two parts, the fighters and the business men? If so, the Continental armies are lagging in the rear; with them supply officers hardly rank as officers at all. Having no important oversea wars to fight, or to be ready for, they naturally are far less concerned than the English with the training of business officers.

DIGNIFYING THE BOOK TRADE.

The London *Times* has been conducting at terrible length a controversy over the circulating library which it organized as a means towards increasing the sale of the paper. The used volumes, it soon offered to its readers at discounts ranging from 35 to 75 per cent. This sales department it advertised conspicuously, describing the books as "virtually as good as new," and inciting subscribers to "a glorified form of bargain hunting." It was much like the competition here between some department stores and the regular bookshops, but even more formidable, for the *Times* Book Club sold all manner of books, and many that would ordinarily not appear for years at a discount or second-hand. Organizations representing the publishers, booksellers, and authors of Great Britain have protested against this traffic, and have even tried to shut off the *Times's* supplies of books. The quarrel is in some respects similar to that of the American Publishers' Association with the cut-rate department stores.

George Haven Putnam expresses a hope that agreements between publishers and booksellers may receive especial legal sanction. But the issues raised by price-cutting and prompt resale of new books as second-hand seem, in fact, to fall less in the category of legal contract than of business ethics. It seems to us unfair for the *Times* to advertise itself at the expense of authors, publishers, and booksellers, by reselling good new books too soon and too cheap; but we doubt if the law will ever take cognizance of the transaction. We may only trust that newspapers will maintain a higher standard of advertising than it has pleased "The Thunderer" to adopt. We sympathize with the feeling that makes publishers wish to cut off all concerns that will not observe the wise and immemorial customs of the trade; but we fear they have no sure redress, except an appeal to the ethical sense of the community.

It is a just sentiment, however, that puts the selling of books on a different plane from that of selling hams or shoes, and requires something like standard agreements for the protection of authors, publishers, and booksellers. The premature second-hand sale of a book does a damage that is done in the case of no other commodity. It depreciates, in short, not merely the value of the particular volumes sold, but all that may be subsequently printed. In this way such an enterprise as the *Times* Book Club may greatly abridge the period of profitable sale of any book. In the case of learned works, for which the demand is slight, a habit of turning them over quickly at second-hand would probably annul all profit. In other words, this sort of premature competi-

tion undoubtedly tends to cheapen the book trade, and debar from its facilities the best class of authorship. It seems just, in fact that every book should have its chance to sell at a living price, before it is dumped on the bargain counter.

Arguments that the publishers are interested in keeping prices up, and pleas for open competition, do not really affect the merits of the question. Of course, the publishers are pleading their own cause; but they are also working in the interest of the author and bookseller, and ultimately of the reader. The author is surely concerned in not having his royalties stopped by too sudden popularity with the second-hand trade; the bookseller properly desires a margin of profit that allows him to keep a creditable stock and sell it with the dignity that becomes a liberal calling; the reader, finally, is the gainer by bookshops where there are facilities for intelligent choice and consultation. In short, the entire business from the author to the reader is really on a quasi-professional basis. It is, or should be, subject to such unwritten laws as prevail in the professions generally. It is not law, but custom, that prevents a reputable physician from advertising, or from practising for a pittance. The damage that comes in the learned professions from disregarding their informal codes is personal, and not legal.

Such analogies make it plain that publishers have in hand a rather difficult campaign of education, which implies, incidentally, the elevation of the character of the publishing trade. They must inculcate the conviction that something like a gentleman's agreement holds all along the line, from author, through publisher, to retailer, and, finally, reader; and of course, the real objective of such a campaign is the reader. When one buys shoes or clothes, one is willing to pay a little more for elbow room, quiet, a select stock, and intelligent service. The same motives, we are confident, will preserve the old-fashioned bookstore in the face of its bustling competitors. But the moral of such controversies as we have noted would be wholly lost unless publishers should realize that wildcat bookselling is not a whit worse than wildcat book-publishing. We are convinced that the berated Book Club and similar institutions may fairly be attacked as *hostes literati generis*; but it behooves few publishers to launch that shaft without much preliminary searching of heart.

CHANGES IN THE FRENCH PRESS.

A French man of letters, Emile d'Arnaville, on becoming the official critic of the *Revue Illustrée*, made some regretful remarks about the expulsion of the *littérateur* from the daily press of his country. This banishment, so far

as it has gone, is significant of recent extraordinary changes in the French newspaper.

Two decades ago, the French press was still a charming, restful backwater in the brawling stream of journalism. In the newspapers of Paris, which might almost have been published in Lotus Land, there was an atmosphere of perpetual afternoon—of about five o'clock, the hour when the café and the boudoir yielded their daily increase of intimate gossip. This was pretty nearly the extreme limit of news-gathering. No other "scoop" was dreamed of in that artificial but not unpleasing Arcadia. The reporter, as we know him, had not been introduced into France. The *chroniqueur* reigned undisturbed. And he was one who expressed his personal opinions on—well, sometimes on his personal fancies; sometimes on books, or other works of art; sometimes on so near an approach to facts as the fashions; very seldom indeed on the gross material of politics or business. A literary *chroniqueur* might make the fortune of a daily—or ruin it by going over to a rival. And what wonder, when his pen was that of a Veillot, or (in our days) of an Anatole France or a Mendès?

Such urgent matters as "foreign and commercial intelligence" received scant attention. The most distant correspondents of these journals were commonly to be found on the boulevards. One of them might be seized now and then by an exotic fantasy, and date his communications from London or Teheran. But this was only an innocent search for the picturesque, and no one thought of judging it otherwise than as an imaginative effect. What Parisian, indeed, in that golden age would have cared two straws for *real* information from London or Teheran? The journalist's task was to show Paris life "across a temperament"; and the chief requirement was that the temperament should be strictly Parisian. In fact, it was a journalism, not of telegrams, but of temperaments.

But what polish went with this concentration! It was the only considerable journalism in history in which form has prevailed over matter. And how much of the matter itself was artistic! What hospitality was lavished on pure literature, when so little was shown either to news or advertisements! For the advertisement-cavasser worked no harder than the news gatherer. There is a story of the editor of one of the chief papers in Paris being altogether put out, not so very long ago, by the arrival in his office of a solitary advertisement. "It will spoil my page!" he cried. "Where the deuce am I to put it?" All that, however, has been changed. The halo of pure literature has faded from the journalist's brow. The

most artistic press in the world has given itself up with passionate suddenness to advertising and news-mongering. The reporter has dethroned the *chroniqueur*. Oh, Villemessant, how art thou translated! But yesterday we were ascribing the serene newslessness of these newspapers to the refined, detached character of the French. Unless their character has changed with miraculous speed, the compliment was undeserved. To-day their principal newspapers are but little more literary than those of London or New York, not vastly inferior to them in respect of news and advertisements.

What has caused this swift transformation? Some of us may put it down to Anglo-Saxon influence. It is a fact that the *Matin*, the pioneer of the new journalism in Paris, arose out of the ashes of an American venture. But the movement has come from a deeper source than that. It has come from democracy and free expansion. The aloofness of the press under the Second Empire was not really a natural outcome of French taste, broadly considered, but of oppression and force. When the unlimited circulation of news and the free discussion of politics were forbidden, the journalist's energy poured itself into other channels. And tyranny became once more the parent of art, to the delight of an elect few. After the Empire fell, the cabined and confined press continued for a while in the narrow artistic attitude which had become habitual to it. But soon a reaction set in towards reckless, brutal, inartistic activity, encouraged by foreign examples, but chiefly inspired by the new freedom, which was at last bringing the journalist into touch with his real public—with the masses of the nation. And thereupon, as if by a law of nature, pure literature began to be ejected by the machinery of the press—even of the French press.

Several other concurrent causes of this brusque transformation of the French newspaper have doubtless operated. But considering all the circumstances, experience does not seem to have supplied hitherto any more crucial instance than this of the perils of journalism under democratic conditions. Others beside M. d'Arnaville may regret the exclusion of the *littérateur* from a democratic press, and may be reluctant to accept it as necessary. Let us hope that it is not necessary. At all events, those interested in these problems will watch the future course of journalism in France with close attention.

EDUCATIONAL TROUBLES OF GERMANY.

A large number of books, pamphlets, and articles are being written in Ger-

many about the urgent need of educational reform. The late Eduard von Hartmann complained in one of his last essays: "Our system of education and examination is approaching nearer and nearer to that of the Chinese"; and a considerable number of his countrymen have reached the conclusion that the ideals of true education are being sacrificed to pedantry and the almost exclusive cultivation of memory, the lowest of the mental faculties.

"Kindermordend"—child-murdering—is the epithet applied to the German educational system by Prof. F. Hueppe, the sanitary expert of Prague. The pupils are overburdened with work. In the instruction in languages, which takes up many hours, there is an excess of grammar, a neglect of the contents of books. History and geography have been degraded to mere memory-work. "We have a school-mechanism, but no school-organism." It may be true that in the high school, *Germania docet* still; but, in general, "our educational system is no longer regarded as a model by foreign experts, as it used to be; but our authorities do not seem to be aware of this." "Our public schools have long been surpassed in other countries." As regards the care of the body, the attitude of the German school is "hostile from the beginning." In England there are only three or four hours of sedentary brainwork to every hour of bodily exercise; in Prussia, 17; in Bavaria, 25; and memory-work is intruded even into gymnastics. Oculists are demanding that the first lessons in reading and writing be deferred from the sixth year to the ninth, because of the great damage done. In many of the schools the lighting arrangements are such as to cause myopia. Indeed, as we noted last week, a committee of German educators has submitted to the Ministry proposals for hygienic reform in secondary schools.

There is too much of the spirit of militarism in German schools, writes J. Tews in the Berlin *Tageblatt*. Pupils are not treated as individuals, but like pawns on a chess-board, without any will of their own; whereas the chief aim of education should be to build up personality. It used to be different. Pupils as well as teachers, he says, were wont, in former times, to recall their happy days together in school, sometimes with tears in their eyes. Present-day references, in conversation or writing, often show, on the contrary, "an unforgiving anger, nay, hatred, toward the school." "How isolated, how embittered, how hard and cold one was made there," one poet has written; while another author writes: "My school-years remain to me, even in memory, the terror of terrors." "It is significant," adds Herr Tews, "that the donations to the lower and higher schools in Germany are so insignificant. They cannot be compared for a moment with the mil-

lions which are bestowed on the other side of the ocean on educational institutions of all grades."

Dr. Julius von Negelein gives details which help us to understand why, to many Germans, the recalling of school-days is the "terror of terrors." Excessive day work, supplemented by night work—in some cases up to midnight!—leaves no time for exercise or sleep:

Whose heart would not turn with a pang if he could hear, as I did a few days ago, a poor child, an anæmic, timid girl of twelve, exclaim: "Oh, if it would only rain! This lovely weather makes me so eager to go out and play!" Thus do we sacrifice to the phantom of an ideal education the joy of life, health, and happiness.

He speaks of a teacher who advised his pupils to drink strong coffee at night so that they might work longer. "Anæmia and nervousness are steadily on the increase among our school children." If a child sinks down exhausted, it is "whipped on like a horse." "I know children who pray to God every day to let them pass their examination, because otherwise their father 'would kill them.'" Professor Eulenburg has collected figures relating to suicides of school-children. There were 950 cases in the period 1883 to 1900.

Columns of such evidence might be cited. A favorite proverb among German teachers is: "Whom the gods hate they make a pedagogue." There are in Prussia alone 10,000 teachers whose pay begins with \$225, and, after thirty-one years of service, reaches a maximum of \$450 a year. The average number of pupils is sixty-three to a teacher. We might dwell on the complaints relating to insufficient pay, too large classes, too short vacations, school books not up to date, and so on; but must content ourselves with one more citation, from an article by Dr. Leo Smolle. Referring to the fact that Gladstone found recreation and delight in Homeric studies in his old age, Dr. Smolle writes: "Name, if you can, a German official, wealthy business man, or *rentier*, who, of his own free will, devotes himself in old age to science and study and takes pleasure in them! The school, with its eternal teaching and examining, has cured them of all desire ever to have anything more to do with intellectual work or intercourse with the Muses."

THE NEW YORK HISTORICAL SOCIETY.

The New York Historical Society celebrated on Tuesday its 102d anniversary by formally opening the completed part of its new building on Central Park West. This fine structure symbolizes enlarged work and influence. Representing in its membership chiefly the New York of the past, secluded by the position of its building, isolated from con-

temporary interests by its dignified traditions, the New York Historical Society has been in many respects a unique institution. In spite of the inadequacy of the present building opposite old St. Mark's Church, many members will face the move to Seventy-sixth Street with something like sentimental regret. If there was an oasis in this new Babylonian Gotham, it was that old building. There in absolute quiet and under the dim light that struggled through dusty skylights, one might delve in the archives of old Manhattan, lazily survey the effigies of its worthiest citizens of by-gone times on the walls, or, ascending to the upper levels, enjoy the soothing companionship of Egyptian bulls embalmed some three thousand years ago, gaze upon the splendid relics of Pharaoh dynasties, or discover in dark corners fine examples of the old Dutch or Italian schools. It was, and is, a rare place, and it will be missed when it is no more.

But the Society is to be heartily congratulated on the move. For years past there have been but the poorest facilities for storing or using the library, or for exhibiting the valuable collections of works of art. Meanwhile, the members were moving away from what was once the best residence district of the city, and it was only the zeal of devoted officers and friends that kept the Society's clientèle and work from actual decline. It was necessary that this venerable institution should get into the current of New York life, and the erection of the building was an obvious measure of rejuvenation. It should mean, before long, a considerable increase in numbers and in working force.

What the scope of the Society will be is matter merely of conjecture. It is safe to say that no abrupt change will be made, and one would not have it otherwise. The Society is eminently the conservator of local tradition; in publishing and popularizing the antiquities of New York, it has a useful function that only needs to be sustained and extended. One should expect that in the future, as in the past, this work, which is indeed its very reason for existence, will have the preference.

One may fairly assume that the move uptown will bring the Society into closer relations with similar institutions. Although it is much more of a private club and much less of a corporation than, say, the Metropolitan or Natural History Museums or the Public Library, yet its aims are in many respects similar; and it is easy to imagine co-operation between them. We mean of an informal sort—a readiness to make scholars' agreements for the general good, without sacrifice of the identity, special interests, or trust obligations of the several parties. On a superficial observation of, say, the Public Library, the Metropolitan Museum, and the New

York Historical Society, it is evident that each possesses things that were better bestowed among the others. For example, the Metropolitan Museum owns many paintings and portraits of high historical interest that would be much more valuable to an historical society than to a general museum. Similarly, the Lenox Branch of the Public Library has a collection of the early American school of painting that is relatively useless to a library, but germane to the purposes of an historical society. Again, the New York Historical Society possesses fine examples of European painting, that are apart from its main work and interests, but would gain double value in a museum of art.

In order not to be misunderstood, we hasten to say that we are not advocating a general exchange of exhibits, and that we are perfectly aware that all three institutions are bound by testamentary conditions which must be respected. We merely suggest that in years to come such readjustment is likely to be made, within certain limits. Meantime, since both the Lenox Library and the New York Historical Society are to be in a transition state while a new building is in progress, it is worth considering if what could not be done permanently might not be done as a loan and as a matter of temporary convenience. Such a bringing together of objects that logically belong together would be a great service to students—even though the arrangement lasted but a few months; it would reflect credit upon all concerned in so liberal and public-spirited a transaction.

But in all these matters we merely wish to note that the drift is in the direction of coöperation—as evinced by the recent alliance between Columbia University, the National Academy of Design, and the Metropolitan Museum—and to predict that the New York Historical Society will neither desire nor be able to maintain its present isolated position.

THE ORIGINAL RECORDS OF CANADIAN HISTORY.

The wisdom of the Canadian Government in appointing Dr. Arthur G. Doughty to the office of Dominion Archivist will be apparent to every one who examines the "Report concerning Canadian Archives for the year 1905." The report is in three large volumes, or will be when published. At present only one volume is ready for distribution; the other two are still in the hands of the King's Printer. The Archivist, recognizing the difficulty of getting to Ottawa to consult original documents, has initiated the policy of publishing a selection of the more important in the annual reports. The late Archivist, Dr. Douglas Brynner, attempted something in this direction, but he was always hampered by the unsympathetic attitude of the Canadian Government, and the material so published

in his reports does not equal in the aggregate that contained in this one report of Dr. Doughty's.

Dr. Doughty outlines various plans which he has formed for gathering historical material and making it accessible. The first thing "is to let the public know what records exist and where they are to be found." As a beginning, he publishes in this 1905 report a summary of the archives found on the Island of Orleans. A similar report has been prepared for many other parishes, and this information will in time be systematically arranged and printed.

The gathering of material for the proposed "Guide to the Manuscript Materials of Canadian History" in the Province of Quebec, is in the hands of the Rev. P. M. O'Leary, D.S.O., formerly professor of history at the University of Laval. Dr. James Hannay, the historian, is investigating the archives of the Maritime Provinces, and his first general report forms a portion of the first volume of the 1905 Archives report. Dr. Hannay summarizes the available historical material in the three Provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. Nova Scotia has devoted more care to the collection and preservation of her archives than the other two. Dr. Hannay gives a list of the material in the Provincial Archives at Halifax. He divides it into four classes: documents which relate to the French occupation; those connected with the purely military occupation of Annapolis Royal from 1710 to 1749; those of a later date, from the establishment of Halifax as capital of the Province; and those relating to the Island of Cape Breton. For the French period there is not much at Halifax; the bulk of the material on the history of Acadie is in the Archives at Ottawa. Among the few valuable documents at Halifax, however, are the letters of the Governors of Acadie from 1692 to 1710; the diary of Governor Villebon; and the correspondence of Des Goutin, Bonaventure, and other Colonial officials with the Government in Paris. The most interesting of the documents for the period of military rule immediately following the English conquest of the country, are those bearing on the expulsion of the Acadians. Volume two of the present report will contain a number of hitherto unpublished documents which throw light upon the circumstances leading up to and attending the expulsion. With these documents are published a number of Acadian genealogies prepared by Placide Gaudet, the Genealogist of the Archives. Outside of the Provincial Archives, the most notable collection of manuscripts at Halifax is that gathered by the late Dr. Akins, for many years Provincial Archivist, and now the property of the Nova Scotia Historical Society. There are not many manuscripts, says Dr. Hannay, but "almost everything in the shape of a book or pamphlet which relates to the history of the three Maritime Provinces is to be found here, as well as many files of old newspapers."

An examination of the archives in western Canada has been begun by R. Laidlaw, of the Archives staff, with the coöperation of Dr. James Bain, chief librarian of the Toronto public library.

Some progress has already been made in the difficult field of historical manuscript

material in private hands. Some notable acquisitions, announced in the 1905 report, are a collection of papers, presented by the present Earl of Durham, which were used by his grandfather in the preparation of his famous "Report on the Affairs of British North America," known as the "Canadian Magna Charta." In the Selkirk collection in Scotland were found over three thousand private papers which throw a flood of light on the state of Canadian society between 1810 and 1830. Two other important private collections, the Townshend and Chatham papers, have been removed to the Public Record Office in London in order that they may be examined by officers of the Canadian Archives, and copies made of such documents as may bear on Canadian history.

The third volume of the 1905 Report consists of documents relating to the Constitutional history of Canada, from the Cession to the Constitutional Act of 1791. While some of these documents have appeared in print before, they have not always been in authentic form, and in some cases are now practically inaccessible. Many other documents are printed here for the first time. The whole, accompanied by a full index, forms an important body of material, of interest not merely to the Canadian student, but to any one dealing with the history and development of Colonial government. The editing of this volume, with the introduction and notes, is the work of Prof. Adam Shortt of Queen's University, Kingston.

Accompanying the report are facsimiles of certain hitherto unpublished plans, including York (now Toronto) in 1823; the fortifications of Quebec, by De Léry; the battle of Ste. Foy in 1760, and Quebec in 1660.

L. J. B.

THE BOOK WAR AND OTHER LONDON TOPICS.

LONDON, November 7.

The new Battle of the Books is less interesting than the old combat in which Charles Perrault, Boyle, Bentley, Swift, and other famous men took heroic parts. The modern financial combat is noisy with letters to the press in which authors, publishers, and the manager of the *Times* proclaim their merits and their wrongs. In bad grammar I cannot honestly say that the manager of the *Times* deserves the prize, for I have read very few of the manifestoes, but I do think that it will be difficult for any champion to beat him. One author complains that he did some work for a publisher and received no reward. He had "asked for nothing and got nothing," as the neglected child said at the end of a tea-party, though in what way the circumstance affects the present controversy I cannot divine. People contribute publisher stories to the *Times* as they send dog stories to the *Spectator*, and ghost stories to the *Journal of Psychological Research*. These anecdotes have nothing to do with the propriety of the newspaper's attempt to swallow up the booksellers, and to "sell a bear" of books.

Meanwhile, the subscribers to the Book Club of the *Times* do not really, I think, want to buy books, for which most of them can have no sort of use. They merely want

bargains, like the ladies who purchase wares which they do not need, because these *chiffons*, and so forth, are being sold "at an alarming sacrifice." Few, indeed, are the people who really desire to possess large volumes about the Life and Adventures of the late Lord Randolph Churchill or the late Macchailean Mor. When a man has skimmed through the pages of this sort of literature, he never wants to look at them again, unless he is an historical writer, and the profession of the historian is not overcrowded. What the buyers want is to point to such biographies and say, "Do you see these books? They were published at eight dollars, and I bought them for two!" That is the humor of it, and it is an humor which must pall in the long run.

It is believed that "Lucile" and other poems of the late Lord Lytton were much more popular in America than in England. They appeared when I was still at an age omnivorous of poetry, yet I never read them, though they were admiringly quoted by Miss Braddon in her novels. Why did I not read the work of "Owen Meredith," while I was "turning with nocturnal and diurnal hand" the poems of Keats and Shelley, of Tennyson, Browning, William Morris, Rossetti, and Mr. Swinburne? I can give no reason for this negligence of "Owen Meredith," but certainly his "Letters," edited by his daughter, Lady Betty Balfour, are very well worth reading by the lover of literature, as well as by the student of politics, society, and Anglo-Indian affairs. To quote a line of Lord Lytton's, "One finds one's self quietly falling in love" with the letter-writer, especially when he was young, eager, ardent in pursuit of the laurels, and so affectionate that he addresses Mr. John Morley as "Dearest Morley." His mind was amazingly brilliant without being flashy, and was rich in a hundred interests, while his relations with his father, the famous novelist, were manly, and creditable to him in a remarkable degree. He seems to have been as warmly attached as Dickens himself to Dickens's friend, Forster, remembered by a later generation as "a harbitrary gent." To both of the Brownings he was devoted, though an unexplained coolness arose between him and Mr. Browning, from what cause, poetical, political, or personal, we are not informed. Lady Betty Balfour has done her selective and editorial work with piety and discretion, so that hers is one of the best books about the famous folk of a fading generation.

A biography of Irving (Edward, the founder of a sect, not the actor, for whom consult the book of Mr. Bram Stoker) is also being undertaken, I believe, and ought to be interesting. Mrs. Oliphant's biography of the preacher who reminded Sir Walter Scott of "Satan disguised as an angel of light" did not tell nearly enough about the strange early wave of Scottish religious enthusiasm out of which Irvingism arose among the excitable descendants of the old western Covenanters. These people are Cymric in origin, and are born enthusiasts. Their ancestors were the last burners of witches, and the first to hold modern "revival meetings." I felt sure that the early Irvingites must have floated in the air, or been "levitated," like many saints, many mediums, and many victims of

witchcraft. Mrs. Oliphant told us nothing about this; but, on looking into contemporary records of Irvingism, I found that some devotees were said to float in the air. The subject is made to the hand of Prof. William James. As far as I am aware, the Rev. Mr. Irving himself disliked all these floatings, and gabblings in unknowable tongues, but they were the background of his movement. He was an excellent man, and could not help having a squint, though he need not have worn his hair long.

Among novels it is not possible for me honestly to praise "Prisoners," by Miss Cholmondeley, because the "machinery"—the confession of murder to save a lady's character—simply will not work. Events could not have happened as they are said to have happened, even if people did behave as foolishly as the persons of the drama do behave. Nor am I credulous of a married tutor of a college whose talk would have "brought a blush to the cheek of a baboon." The baboon is notoriously non-moral; compared with him the gorilla is as respectable as that most reputable class of men, married tutors of colleges. Mr. Hope's "Sophy of Kravonia" is in his "Zenda" style of romance, with an adventurous heroine in place of an adventurous hero. To enjoy this kind of novel is not given to all mankind, and women as a rule prefer something less chivalrous. But "Sophy" is good enough for boys and men who have not ceased to be boyish in their tastes, and is better, I think, than the author's second book about "Zenda."

The present writer himself, having finished a book on Homer, and another, in four huge tomes, on that popular subject, the History of Scotland, would like to begin his History of the Maids of Honour. No less than two biographies of James III. and VIII., invidiously styled "The Old Pretender," are "on the stocks." The "Aged P" (as Wemmick might have called him) will appear as a great Christian gentleman, so surprising are the revelations of history. By Thackeray, in "Esmond," and by all our historians, the saintly Prince has been "damned at a venture." His character was really rather like that of Tennyson's King Arthur, but it is untrue that his Queen played the part of Guinevere with, for Lancelot—the Pope! That is a myth of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu's.

ANDREW LANG.

Correspondence.

SPELLING BY SYLLABLES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter in your issue of November 8, from Prof. J. S. Clark of Northwestern University, on the cause of bad spelling, is confirmed by my own experience. In the examination of students at different times for many years, I find that those who had learned to spell by syllables were usually correct in their spelling, while those who had been taught the word method of reading often had a hard time of it. Professor Clark hits the nail on the head. The "word method" is responsible for much bad spelling.

A. F. BEARD.

New York, November 19.

AMERICAN AND ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The papers are paying considerable attention to the visit of 500 English teachers, under the direction of Alfred Mosely, who thinks that American schools are better than those of his own country. Mr. Mosely, who is primarily a business man, does not, of course, speak as an educational expert. My own opinion, if I may venture it, is that he is much in error, so far as secondary schools are concerned.

I am glad he secured for these English teachers so cheap a rate as \$25 for the round trip across the ocean. I only wish that he would do the same for 500 American teachers, so that they might see how much more and better work the English boy of nineteen has accomplished than the American boy of the same age. The daily tasks for boys of sixteen or seventeen in English schools would, if imposed on boys or girls in the highest class of any secondary school in this country, evoke from the pupils rank mutiny and from their parents loud complaint. The requirements for admission to West Point are child's play compared with the competitive examinations for Woolwich and Sandhurst. The same is true of the College Examination Board's examinations in this country as compared with those of the Oxford and Cambridge school certificate examinations in England. The English boy of nineteen goes straight from the sixth form of his school into the Classical Honor School at Oxford or the Classical Tripos at Cambridge. No ordinary graduate of an American secondary school could do that without one or two years' additional study of the classics. The Rhodes scholars who are graduates of our colleges are nettled to find that such boys far surpass them in knowledge of the classics. The course of study for the Sixth Form at Rugby, Winchester, and all the leading schools reads like the curriculum of the sophomore or junior year in an American university.

Let no one, be he editor, parent, teacher, or pupil, lay the flattering unction to his soul that American schools are better than the English, tested by the finished product in mental power, discipline, and accumulated knowledge. Such advice as this is now much needed, considering the steady oozing of virility out of our courses of study, and the steady growth of the sugar-coated-pill theory of education. The New York Schoolmasters' Association demands of the College Entrance Examination Board representation on the committees that frame examination papers, and on those that examine the books; and they get it. Then they grumble because the present moderate requirements are too hard and wish them made easier. Harvard has dropped to the point where she will give a candidate credit if he passes in a single subject, so that he can enter college by piecemeal in the course of a few years.

I know a little about the secondary schools of Germany and France, considerably more about those of England, and a good deal about those in the United States. It is my deep-rooted conviction that, judged by the tests I have mentioned, those of my own beloved country are inferior to the rest in intellectual vigor and most need a virile uplift.

GEORGE L. FOX.

New Haven, Conn., November 12.

"THE PRESENT POSITION OF LATIN AND GREEK."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg to reply to the comments of Professors Child and Kelsey on my article under the above title in the *Nation* of October 4. Professor Child's criticisms are mainly the result of misunderstanding the point of my argument. My point was not that "the degree of A.B. is quite as significant of a certain profitable discipline, whether or no it stand warrant for any Greek at all," but that the effective preservation of the A.B., and *all that goes with it*, can be secured only by broadening the terms on which it may be obtained, and on which students may matriculate for it. The phrase italicized above means, in its context, Latin and Greek—not "the tag and good-will of the old firm," as Professor Child supposes. My contention is simply that the preservation of Latin and Greek is best secured by the effective preservation of the A.B. degree; this degree in turn is saved from practical extinction only by broadening its terms for admission and graduation. This involves no comment, expressed or implied, on the value of the degree thus administered, and hence no implication as to the relative merits of the classics and modern studies. I merely urge that such administration is better for Latin and Greek.

Professor Kelsey's criticisms are directed mainly toward the accuracy of my figures concerning the number of students of Latin and Greek in secondary schools and colleges. He rightly assumes that they indicate only general conclusions; their use for further inference is, I believe, at least hazardous. He notes certain errors in the figures for 1904, but fails to observe that similar errors occur in those for 1894 regarding the number of secondary students in Latin, and for 1901 regarding college students of Greek. Without going into details, I may say that the statistics quoted nearly fulfil the statistician's requirement, *i. e.*, they represent "phenomena of the same class, but existing at different points of time." Since the errors are approximately constant, their elimination would not affect my general conclusions, which were, first, that Greek appears to be declining slowly in the face of a general increase in the secondary school and college population; and, second, that Latin is increasing, both relatively and absolutely, the absolute increase being phenomenal.

Professor Kelsey's data showing the rapid decline in secondary students of Greek, coincident with the abandonment of prescribed college entrance Greek, would go far to refute my statement that this abandonment has not greatly influenced the decline, if he could also prove that the prescription of entrance Greek is the only factor influencing the number of its secondary students. This proof is, of course, impossible. On the other hand, certain other potent influences in the same direction are easily discernible. The administrative difficulty of providing for small classes is one; the rapid drift of matriculants toward college degrees not requiring Greek is another; and still others might be named. These, taken together, seem to me the most powerful influences in this direction; continued prescription could only have delay-

ed an inevitable result, and it might have caused a far more disastrous reaction against Greek.

ARTHUR O. NORTON.

Harvard University, November 14.

THE BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE NAVY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As editor of "A Contribution to the Bibliography of the History of the United States Navy," by Charles T. Harbeck, allow me to correct two errors in the review in your issue of November 8.

The title, "A Review of a Pamphlet purporting to be Documents in Relation to the differences which subsisted between the late Commodore O. Perry and Captain Jesse D. Elliott: By a Citizen of Massachusetts. Supported by facts made known to the world in 1820 and '21 by the accused. Boston: H. B. & J. Brewster, prs., 1834, 55 pp. 8°," may be found on p. 94. "A Reply by L. M. Goldsborough to an attack made upon the Navy of the United States, by Samuel E. Coues, President of the Peace Society. In which a brief notice is taken of the recent Fourth of July oration delivered at Boston by Charles Sumner. Portsmouth: C. H. Brewster, pr., 1845, 23 pp., 8°," may also be found on p. 165.

The Fanning memoir and the Coues pamphlet were obtained too late for insertion in their proper places, and it was considered undesirable to have a section "additions," since a bibliography may be added to indefinitely and never be complete.

AGNES C. DOYLE.

Public Library, Boston, Mass., November 15.

[That these two titles were not discovered shows the weakness of a much classified "Bibliography." The "Review of a Pamphlet" is entered under Perry in the class "Biography, Single Works." Sabin enters it under Elliott, in whose interest it was, we believe, written. The "differences" between these two commanders related to the Battle of Lake Erie, which is the heading of a class in the "Bibliography," and this title should have been entered there, where is found the original piece, "Documents in Relation to the Differences," etc., of which this is a "Review." The Goldsborough piece is entered under "Organization, Administration, Equipment, Defence," and though other titles of books by Goldsborough are entered under other heads, this one should nevertheless have been discovered.—THE REVIEWER.]

AMERICAN FLYING MACHINES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to call attention to an error in your issue of November 15, in which you say:

M. Santos-Dumont, by a flight of more than 200 metres in his airship, becomes the first skipper of a flying machine who has risen from the level, flown for an appreciable distance, and landed without serious mishap.

The previous experiments by M. Santos-Dumont and his winning a large prize for flight in a dirigible balloon have been so widely reported that his latest achievement with a genuine airship without the aid of gas, is popularly accepted as the first of its kind.

It seems certain, however, that to America belongs the honor; and this should be known and recognized now, at the beginning of what is undoubtedly to be the period of successful air-flight by man. The studies of the late Professor Langley resulted in a model of an airship which sustained its own weight in flight for three-quarters of a mile over the Potomac. It is not so generally known that two Americans—the Wright brothers of Dayton, O.—after some years of experiment on the sand dunes of the Carolina coast, with apparatus akin to that of the German Lillienthal, solved the problem of the airship, within the past year, in an enclosed park near Dayton. They made many successful flights, of at first short but later increased duration. Finally, one of the brothers made a continuous flight of about twenty-five miles at an average rate of forty miles per hour; but purposely, as in the case of Santos-Dumont, at no great height above the earth.

These statements were testified to at the time of the convention in New York last winter of those interested in man-flight, and there was published in the New York *Tribune* a testimonial to the facts, signed by officials and other citizens of Dayton. C. H. AMES.

Boston, Mass., November 16.

[It is possible that the brothers Wright have exceeded Santos-Dumont's exploit, but their trials were conducted in such secrecy and so little is known as to the nature of their flying machine, that their record must count as at least doubtful. The *Tribune* itself, to which Mr. Ames refers, said in an editorial note on November 18:

The unquestioned success achieved with his aeroplane by Santos-Dumont makes it extremely desirable that the Wright brothers come to the front and show the world what they can do. Around the pretence of these Americans that they accomplished a year or two ago what Langley attempted in vain there has hung a veil of doubt. Can't it be dispelled?

—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce as ready for publication "The Vagabond in Literature," by Arthur Rickett; "Uganda to Khartoum, Life and Adventures on the Upper Nile," by Albert B. Lloyd, author of "In Dwarfland and Cannibal Country"; "Fairy-Gold," an illustrated book of old English Fairy Tales; and two Anthologies, "The Pilgrims' Way," by Quiller-Couch, and "The Wayfarer," by Claude E. Benson.

The Hon. George Wyndham, M.P., former Under-Secretary of State for War, has written a monograph on "Ronsard and La Pléiade," which the Macmillan Company is publishing this week.

The first number of the *American Political Science Review*, dated November, is edited by W. W. Willoughby of Johns Hopkins as managing editor, with whom are associated John A. Fairlie, University of Michigan; Frank J. Goodnow, Columbia;

John H. Latané, Washington and Lee; C. E. Merriam, University of Chicago; Robert H. Whitten, Albany; Paul S. Reinsch, University of Wisconsin; Benjamin F. Shambaugh, University of Iowa; and Eugene Wambough, Harvard; as a board of editors. This issue opens with an article on the "Usurped Powers of the Senate," by A. Maurice Low; and recognizes the ever-growing importance of the Southern problem by two articles. John C. Rose writes on "Negro Suffrage: The Constitutional Point of View," while Gilbert T. Stephenson treats of "Racial Distinctions in Southern Law." Prof. W. F. Dodd contributes an "Index of Comparative Legislation," and there are fourteen book reviews. This magazine bids fair to be a notable addition to the growing group of periodicals carried on by American scholars and university teachers. In excellence of paper and print and general attractiveness, it exceeds them all. It is published quarterly from the Waverly Press of Baltimore by the American Political Science Association.

Sidney Lee's "Life" of Shakspeare has long thrown into the shade an earlier essay, called "Stratford-on-Avon," of which a reprint has just been published (J. B. Lippincott Co.). In the twenty-one years that have passed since its first appearance, there has been industrious revision of the few facts in the poet's life as to which we can feel any certainty, and in the new edition Mr. Lee has made the necessary additions and qualifications. The book has a value as a supplement to the detailed biography, in that it describes the social history of the town, its municipal life, guilds, and local customs, from its first entry into history in the seventh century down to the poet's death. The book is written with the seriousness and caution that are characteristic of all Mr. Lee's work, and is in all cases based on documents. The illustrations are by Mr. Hull, Herbert Railton, and others. The most pleasing are decidedly Mr. Railton's drawings of Charlecote manor, the home of the Lucys.

In "Montaigne: A Study" (Henry Frowde), R. Warwick Bond presents anew the familiar outlines of the essayist's life, together with a number of conventional pronouncements on the man and the character of his work. Where the critic ventures on original conjecture or interpretation, we at times fail to see the cogency of his argumentation. If Montaigne's statement to Madame d'Estissac (II. 8) concerning the point of departure in his essay-writing is "palpably false" (p. 36), why may we not fancy his remarks on women in general to savor often of the mere *boutade*? To proceed from an apparently preconceived notion as to what the man really was, and reject what does not square with the notion, is hardly a convincing way of estimating the marvelously complex psychology of that most engaging of egotists. Any comparison between Montaigne and Shakspeare, which professes to discover the divergences of their respective natures in that the former possessed the comic sense, while the latter conceives "the universe as one great monologue spoken by God," ignores what many a reader has ere now detected between the lines of the "Apologie de

Raimond Sebond." This study is dedicated, in exotic French, to A. I. Feuillerat.

We have seldom seen a better collection of New York views than that contained in Charles Huard's "New York comme je l'ai vu" (Paris: Eugène Rey). M. Huard is an artist who saw a great deal that interested him in the American metropolis. His book contains some 200 capital sketches of New York scenes and types, in pen and ink and charcoal. In a running commentary the artist-author discloses himself as eager to be pleased. If one thing caught his fancy more than another it was the skyscraper; if there was a single thing for which he could find no word of praise it was the cuisine. M. Huard certainly has the distinction, rare among Continental critics, of emphasizing the sunlight rather than the shadow of American life.

Students of the history of municipal government in the United States will find what is perhaps the most valuable single source for the colonial period now made available in the eight volumes of "Minutes of the Common Council of the City of New York, 1675-1776" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The work is published by authority of the city government, and is ably edited by a committee of the New York Historical Society, of which Prof. Herbert L. Osgood of Columbia University was chairman. The text is taken from two bound manuscript copies, the original manuscript minutes having disappeared. All after the first volume are supplemented by valuable committee reports, and other documents discovered after the editorial work was well under way. There were not many chartered boroughs in America before the Revolution; and the material for a study of them has been meagre. Even the records that exist, like those of Albany and Philadelphia, are much less complete than these. Boston was merely an overgrown New England town, and its records, although complete, offer little of value to the student of early municipal institutions.

It is now seven years since H. G. Graham published his "Social Life of Scotland in the Eighteenth Century." During the interval this work, which originally filled two large volumes in octavo, has been reprinted with various alterations of both size and contents. It now appears (The Macmillan Co.) in a cheaper and more compact form than ever before, having become one of the historical books for which there is a steady demand. Mr. Graham's main conception is that the political crises through which Scotland passed in the eighteenth century are unimportant in comparison with the social changes of that age. Leaving out the Jacobite risings, Scotland has no political history from the death of Queen Anne to 1800. Its state affairs were little more than obscure intrigues of Whig and Tory or the "manœuvres of nobles and placemen who travel southwards . . . to win favor with great statesmen at Westminster or courtiers at St. James's—figures not very real to us to-day as they flit across the stage, 'transient and embarrassed phantoms.'" But over against the poverty of political incident which marks the fifty years following Culloden, there is a great wealth of social and economic interest. A continuous revolution was going on—"a gradual trans-

formation in manners, customs, opinions, among every class; the rise and progress of agricultural, commercial, and intellectual activity, that turned waste and barren tracts to fertile fields, stagnant towns to centres of busy trade, a lethargic and slovenly populace to an active, enterprising race; an utterly impoverished country to a prosperous land." To trace the details of this momentous evolution is a task which Mr. Graham has discharged so well that we are glad to see his book descend from its large and expensive two volumes to the more useful, if humbler, form of a popular edition.

In a substantial volume of nearly seven hundred pages, with the title "Introduction to the English Historians" (The Macmillan Company), Charles Beard of Columbia University has printed for class use extracts from the leading secondary authorities on English history. Much may be said to justify a collection of this kind as an aid to the teaching of large classes for whose use a sufficient number of copies of the original works cannot be obtained. Apart from such use the volume is of no particular value. Even outside Mr. Beard's own classroom it is an open question how far such a collection will find a following. No two men will select the same series of references for classes, and Mr. Beard's list might be duplicated by another or many others equally good. We are inclined to think his selections somewhat severe for college freshmen; and his statement that the works from which these extracts are taken might well form part of a preparatory school library, seems but an expression of youthful optimism. The writings of Maitland, Gneist, Stubbs, and Cunningham can hardly be read intelligently by any student before his third year in college and we doubt if many students are ready to read them even at that time.

In that excellent series, "Early Western Travels, 1748-1846," now in course of publication (Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Company), there are at hand three new volumes, xxii-xxiv., of unusual interest. Maximilian, Prince of Wied-Neuwied, after fighting in the Napoleonic wars, at last followed his scientific tastes, and, leaving his domain on the Rhine, visited as a scientific traveller both South and North America. From 1832 to 1834 he was in the Mississippi Valley, both east and west of the river, his more important observations being made on the Missouri, which he ascended to Maria's River, far toward the Rocky Mountains. His companion, a gifted young painter, Bodmer, made many sketches, particularly of Indians and their life, perhaps the best ever drawn. The interesting narrative of the Prince, with Bodmer's delineations (to be included in vol. xxv. of the series), constitute together a noteworthy record. Maximilian's Indian vocabularies and essay on sign-language, till now not accessible, add much to the importance of the work, for the studies were made when savage life could be observed under the best conditions. Dr. Reuben Gold Thwaites's Introduction and numerous annotations show his usual care and scholarship, while the publishers present the books in handsome form. In the same series appear also "Travels in the Far West, 1836-1841," by Edmund Flagg, and the "Letters and Nar-

atives" of Father Pierre Jean de Smet, 1840-1842 (vols. xxvi. and xxvii.). Flagg was an industrious journalist, also a writer of books once in favor, who had the power to observe closely and describe graphically. The great States of what we know as the Middle West were in Flagg's time incipient, and his pages relate vividly the beginnings. The account of the Jesuit De Smet is a later chapter in that marvellous story of zeal and achievement which Dr. Thwaites has laid open for all in editing the "Jesuit Relations." Though a later chapter, it scarcely falls behind its predecessors in absorbing interest. The young Belgian priest, setting out from St. Louis, made his way to the country of the Flatheads in the mountains, then the remotest wilderness. He did not fall short of the standard of his great order in devotedness, nor does he lack skill in setting forth what he did and saw. This series throughout is a most creditable enterprise.

The Paris correspondent of the *Nation* writes: The unexpectedness of the Hohenzollern Memoirs is almost as refreshing in France as in Germany. They are not ordinary memoirs, but rather tell-tale impressions of persons and things in the Third French Republic as they were felt by a keenly sensitive and experienced observer. No one ever dreamed that the spare-framed, brick-complexioned German ambassador, sitting silent for the most part, with lack-lustre eyes and head leaning boredly over the right shoulder, was taking interior notes of the passing show, to be transcribed by night with disconcerting frankness and left to be printed. Two prognostications of Bismarck concerning the French republic continue to be of prime actuality. In 1880 he said:

We Germans can only rejoice at France's appropriating Morocco. She will then have enough to do, and we can allow her to enlarge her territory in Africa as compensation for Alsace-Lorraine.

In 1882 he added:

If the French ask the English to leave them free footing in Syria it's all the same to us. Let the French everywhere do whatever they wish—provided they keep away from the Rhine!

The N-rays cleverly effect an entrance into the "New English Dictionary," whose sixth volume reaches N-Niche with the October instalment under Mr. Craigie's oversight (H. Frowde). The discovery is but, three years old, and it is well to be reminded that we owe it to M. Blondlot of the University of Nancy, and the symbolic letter of the name to the initial of the town itself. The present tract of the letter N is commendably catholic in its drafts upon all the languages of the earth, and among its Eastern borrowings Nabob well illustrates our absorbent and plastic mother tongue. We have not only taken it in, but have built upon it a host of derivatives—Nabobess, Nabobship, Nabobery, Nabobical, Nabobish, Nabobishly, Nabobism, Nabobry—mostly with a humorous-censorious implication. In another example, we have fashioned Nanism, Nanity, Nanization, while eschewing the root word, meaning dwarf. Naïf(e) dates back to 1598, whereas Naïve, appearing in 1654, has been very imperfectly naturalized, having still a tendency to be kept foreign by italicising. Dryden's Naïveté, on the

other hand (1673), has held its own against Naïvety. While we have welcomed Renaissance, we would have none of Caxton's ventured Naissance (origin, birth); nor did he fare better with his little boat, his Nacelle, Dante's *navicella*, on which he hoisted his poetic sail after emerging from the Inferno. Apparently by way of Spain, Narrate was an exotic in 1656; a century later it was a Scotticism in the view of Richardson the novelist and of Dr. Johnson, and in 1813 the *Quarterly Review* picked it out of a Scotch work as abominable and absolutely to be proscribed. This was all the more odd because Narration (1432), Narrative, Narratory, Narrator, had long been in vogue through the medium of the French. Such prejudices it is one of the functions of the Oxford Dictionary to suppress, or at least the flaunting of them. We recall Dr. Francis Lieber's objection to Native-born as tautological, but it has the high antiquity of 1500; and we have Natural-born (1583) and Naturally-born (1523). Some of us may have noticed the recent poverty-stricken journalese efflorescence of Nearby for "adjacent," "adjoining," "neighboring," "in the vicinity," etc., etc. The use is, in fact, mostly confined to this country, but George Macdonald exhibits it in 1858. We note here that our periphrastic "in the neighborhood of," for about, crept into the *London Times* in 1893.

It is for the Dictionary to record, not reprobate, modes of speech and of syntax as revealed in their historical map. Purists who endeavor to draw the line between Necessaries and Necessities, will find Miss Mitford a trespasser in the footsteps of Caxton (1481). Foreigners generally monopolize the censure of English for its excess of synonyms, and will have cause on viewing Necessarian, Necessitarian. Necessitudinarian; and, again, Neglectable, Negligeable, Negligible. "Neither—or" occurs in good writers, early and late; and Newman and Ruskin chime in with Shakspeare in coupling Neither with a plural verb. Traces of the mighty are discernible in Nap (Napoleon), for a gold coin, a card-game, a top-boot (so Wellington) and, in the United States, a cannon. The Erasmian trail appears in the first and earliest quotation for Neat (1542), in Udall's translation of the "Apophtegms." "Nailed to the counter" is allotted to Dr. O. W. Holmes in 1842, but it is, of course, a much older locution. Daniel O'Connell applied it scathingly in 1846 to a proslavery judge in South Carolina, one O'Neill: "Let his O be blotted out at any rate, and then *naïl* the rap to the counter." We wonder, by the way, what Dr. Holmes would have said to the definition of Nag (a small riding horse or pony), as covering the raw-boned, ill-favored, but often speedy beast so abundant to view in any shire town of New England. We draw our spinning to a close with three further observations: that for more than a century Negro has prevailingly been spelt with a small initial (as if to emphasize color rather than race); that the Speaker of the House of Commons began to "name" disorderly members in 1792; and that the American inventor of the word Peneplain (correlative to Peninsula) might have paused if he had known of the obsolete Near-isle.

The extent to which the results of modern advanced theological thought is being popularized in Germany can be seen from the phenomenal success of the "Religions-geschichtliche Volksbücher." This series of small books, some of them only good-sized pamphlets, was begun about two years ago under the editorship of Fr. M. Schiele, for the express purpose of bringing the teachings of critical theology to the attention of the people at large. This series has now just passed into the hands of the publisher, J. C. B. Mohr of Tübingen, and in connection with the transfer, it is announced that a total of more than 150,000 copies of the perhaps dozen pamphlets so far issued have been sold. The "Jesus" of Professor Bousset has appeared in 20,000 copies, and the "Paul" of Professor Wrede in 10,000.

The bi-centenary of the birth of Henry Fielding will be celebrated by a dinner in London on April 22, 1907. Sir Arthur Conan Doyle will preside.

A portrait of Dr. Arthur John Evans will soon be presented to the Ashmolean Museum, of which for many years he has been keeper. His distinguished services to archæology, numismatics, and history—especially in connection with the epoch-making discoveries at Knossos—are known to the world of scholars, many of whom in England and Germany have joined in contributing to this memorial tribute. Doubtless, American scholars and others interested in the Cretan disclosures may wish to share in this well-deserved tribute. Contributions may be sent to Messrs. Barclay & Co., Old Bank, Oxford, or to the Hon. Treasurer, G. A. Macmillan, St. Martin's Street, W. C., London.

The American Philological Association will hold its annual meeting at the George Washington University, Washington, D. C., January 2 to 4, in connection with the general meeting of the Archæological Institute of America. The address of the president of the Philological Association, Prof. Elmer Truesdell Merrill of Trinity College, Hartford, will be given at a joint session of the two societies on the evening of Wednesday, January 2. A full programme of the meeting is to be issued early in December.

In the *Empire Review* Hubert Reade gives an interesting account of the proposed founding of a university in Johannesburg, for which the late Alfred Beit left the sum of one million dollars. The university proper will be built in a wooded grove, formerly the property of Beit, near the city. According to the conditions of the will the university must be opened within ten years after the death of the testator.

For the first time the Germans are going to try something like an elective system in their secondary schools. The Cultus Minister of Saxony has published a scheme which next term will be tentatively introduced into four gymnasia of that kingdom. The experiment will be confined to the prima, or highest of the nine classes. This class is henceforth to be divided into two sections, one giving special attention to language and historical studies, the other to mathematics and natural sciences, at the choice of the pupil. The separation will be anything but radical, since in the second section, too, there will still be five

hours of Greek per week and four of Latin. The purpose of the innovation is to make a beginning of the specialization that marks the university course.

The "story hour" at the public library is an expedient for giving wholesome entertainment to children which might be adopted in many cities and large towns. It consists simply in the coming of children at stated times to the library to listen to stories told by a skilled narrator. At the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh the scheme has proved a marked success, and in Boston the centennial of the birth of Hans Christian Andersen was celebrated by a gathering of children at the public library, to whom—a large and interested audience—a lady told Andersen stories. So great was the interest shown that the examining committee have recommended the establishment of the story hour as a regular part of the library work among the young.

The opinion has recently been expressed by a recognized authority that it is hardly worth while to establish permanent libraries in places of less than 400 or 500 people; that the problem must be met by the travelling library. Yet of the 275 public libraries chartered by the Regents of the State of New York since 1892, 58 are in places of less than 500 population. The total population of these 58 places in 1900 was 16,495; the libraries in them have a total of 79,154 volumes, and an annual circulation of 116,268 volumes. The average population of these places is 286; the average number of books in each library is 1,357, and the average annual circulation is 2,004 volumes. The per capita supply of books is 4.7, and the per capita circulation is 7. To equal these averages, it would be necessary for the circulating department of the New York Public Library or for the Utica Public Library to increase its present circulation threefold, and to increase the present supply of books, the one seventeen and the other seven fold.

At the annual meeting this autumn of the Library Association of England the president, Sir William H. Bailey, said that there are now about 600 public libraries, with 5,809,196 books, and nearly 50,000,000 readers.

The *Bote aus Zion*, the religious quarterly which for nearly a quarter of a century has been edited in Jerusalem by the representatives of the famous Syrian Orphans' Home of Father Schneller, publishes in its latest issue, an account of splendid synagogue ruins unearthed by the expedition of the German Orientgesellschaft at Tel-Hum. This is the probable site of the New Testament Capernaum, and some savants are confident that the remains are those of the very synagogue in which Christ himself preached his first sermon and performed some of his notable miracles. The structure was a massive building, almost square in form, with two parallel rows of columns through the middle. Only one side, the eastern, has been preserved in a comparatively satisfactory condition; but this is so richly decorated with architectural ornaments of a distinctively Jewish type that no doubt as to the Jewish character of the structure can be entertained.

RECENT VERSE.

Young Alfred Noyes, whose epic "Drake" has been received with surprising acclaim in the English reviews, is now introduced by Hamilton W. Mabie to American readers in a volume of selected poems (The Macmillan Co.). Mr. Noyes has drawn inspiration from a rather exceptional range of literature—classic poets, Celtic legends, travellers' tales, English ballads, Holy Writ, tales of the road, and Lord Rosebery on Napoleon; but he has digested this heterogeneous bee-bread with the eupepsy of vigorous poetic youth. There is a gusto in his work, a savor of opulence, variety, and ease that is full of hope. As yet Mr. Noyes is, a little too adventurous in his quest of the striking subject, too proud of the mere muscles of his verse; but these are amiable defects in a young poet who, alongside of highly temperamental rhapsodies on barrel organs and mystical songs of Re-Birth, can compose such pregnant stanzas as these from "Statesmen":

His hands upon the wheel deny
The wild demands of circumstance;
His eyes are on the distant sky
Beyond the clouds of chance:

And when, still heating up the wind,
He slowly brings the Ship of State
Home, though the people chafe to find
How dark it is and late;

With all his tacking courses run
At last beyond the roaring sea,
Men find him faithful to the one
Haven where they would be.

Far other he whose words are free
To flatter weakness and conform;
And help a drunken crew to flee
Full sail before the storm;

He scans the rainbow in the wave
And dazzling spray around him hurled;
Their light will last him till his grave
Obliterates his world.

There is much to be said for the frank "closet-drama" as a literary form. It makes possible the presentation of a vigorous, significant action, with a telling compactness that the novel might complicate with loss; it gives room for the use of a richly colored, impassioned style that the novelist would adventure at his peril; and it has the special advantage of evoking—with the right reader—a wealth of memories of realms of gold. The three plays collected by Olive Tilford Dargan in "Lords and Lovers, and Other Dramas" (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) make the most of these capacities of the form. "Lords and Lovers" is a romantic play in two parts of the time of Henry III. of England. It is as readable, using the word in its popular sense, as a good novel, while it has the added charm of workmanlike and impressive blank verse and of dramatic situations, possibly not actable, yet conceived with a fine theatrical unction. Without being imitative, it has something of the Elizabethan manner withal, and an easy opulence of mingled comedy and tragedy that is uncommon in latter-day drama. The second play, "The Shepherd," is in prose. It is a powerful presentation of contemporary Russian life, conceived with real force and imagination, though weakened as a work of art—as is also the concluding play, "The Siege"—by an obvious concession to the desire of the sentimental reader for a measurably happy consummation. In "The Siege" we have at once the worst drama, and, super-

ficially at least, the best poetry of the volume. The action is feverish and unconvincing, but the "sentiments" are moving, and the stylistic dress uncommonly rich. A fair specimen is this bit of passionate Marlowesque, given to Aristocles who is drawn, somewhat audaciously, from Plato:

Aris.—My heart, say thou wilt come.
Ara.— "Tis death.
Aris.— "Tis life!
Come now, O now, else we are cast apart
Far as the dismal Night heaves her vast sigh,
Far as the laboring Chaos breathing blows—
Perchance to hurl eternally about
The farthest stars that from opposed heavens
Dart fiery scouts that die ere they have met,
So long their journey is. Or gloomier fate,
Doomed to sit like stoups that once could weep
Forever in the cave of ended things
That deep in some immortal Lemnos lies
Nor ever opens its dank gates to day!
O, come ere we are lost! Be thy fair arms
The rainbow girdle to this longing storm
And its rude breast will pillow thee as soft
As Leda when, cool-rocked on lily couch,
The great down-bosomed god swam to her love!
Come, Aratea, heart of life! O now
This pulse speaks back to mine—this bosom throbs
Like heaven's Artemis unto her own!

(Kisses her.)
O kiss that holds the mornings of all time,
And dewy seasons of the ungathered rose,
Plant once again thy summer on my lips!"

Finer still as poetry is the concluding speech of the play, in which Dion, the true protagonist of the piece, dies after having obligingly bestowed his wife upon the golden-tongued Aristocles:

. . . Farewell, all hearts. My way is new and long,
And strange may be the fortunes of my shade,
But somewhere I shall lay me down in peace,
For death's unmeasured sea must own a strand,
And e'en eternity beat to a shore.

The two qualities that most impress the closest spectator of Percy Mackaye's poetic drama, "Jeanne d'Arc" (New York: the Macmillan Company), are its lyricism and its obvious spectacular possibilities. In part the lyrical flavor is a matter of the verse, which is sometimes elastic beyond, as it seems to us, the proper limits of even the most flexible blank verse. Thus, when in one of her passages of recitative, Jeanne begins:

Once in the midnight, when I saw them sleeping
After the battle, in the still moonshine,—

It needs but a pair of added lines, with alternate rhyme, to give us a jingling quatrain as far as possible removed from the true blank verse flavor. But even more is lyricism inherent in the whole structure and temper of the piece. It is a succession of moods and pictures with no real dramatic knot, and with but one or two dramatic situations; and the traditions of Jeanne d'Arc are sentimentalized to such a degree that they cease to be quite convincing, either as history or as material for tragedy embodying a criticism of life. The whole effect of the piece, with its succession of rich pictures, its lyrical *élan*, its pervasive sentimentality, is—for the reader at least—that of an opera.

"The Rosary and other Poems," by Robert Cameron Rogers (New York: The John Lane Co.), gives evidence of the intelligent study of a considerable variety of poetic styles and modes. Mr. Rogers's own range is wide enough to include a group of spirited Western poems, "The Prospector," "The Maverick," etc., and such a pleasantly ingenious sonnet as this:

Since none may kiss her eyes save Sleep and I,
Sleep holds himself my rival, and to-night,

Jealous of that he deems his sovereign right,
He will not look on me as he glides by.
What matter then! his malice I defy—
I'll dream awake until the waking light,
Dreams winged with longing sent in Sleep's des-
-spite,
To haunt her chamber till the dark hours fly.

Sleep, should thy languid kiss her eyelids seal,
Then she will dream and dream alone of me;
But if to kiss them haply shouldst decline,
Her waking thoughts across the night will steal
To meet with mine. Ah, Sleep, unknown to thee,
I shall prevail whichever path is thine.

Yet with all its variety and intelligence the volume just misses distinction, chiefly, we should guess, because of a certain limitation of sentiment and because the life in it has been strained through too many books.

"Trumpet and Flag," by Edward Sydney Tylee (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons), is in the phrase of its sub-title a "collection of poems of war and peace." The poems of war are better than those of peace—as must always be the case while passion continues to be a motive in the affairs of men, and the mother of poetry—but even at their best, despite a gift of swinging metre and vigorous phrase, Mr. Tylee's more ambitious pieces have a certain careful timeliness, a skilful obviousness that gives them rather the attraction of an eloquent leading article than of poetry. We like him better in such a fresh and zestful piece as "The Diver":

Swift arrowy flight through sun-soft air;
Bright kiss of waters crystal cool;
The middle darkness of the pool
Of shadowy monsters half aware;
Till deafened by the eddying swirl
I waver back to life again,
And yon June heaven's turquoise stain
Far-flecked with plumes of flying pearl.

Ah, joy! to feel the silken wave
Slip softly over breast and side!
And send great billows circling wide,
To flood the vole's grass-hidden cave;
And stir the water-lily's raft
At anchor in yon little bay,
Where points of glittering sapphire play,
And almost wreck that fairy craft.

O beauty of the Day that dies!
O scented airs from mead and wood!
O pleasure of the dancing blood!
As from the river I arise,
And by its pure embraces seem
Of passion and of care bereft:
A spirit just set free that left
The heavy body in the stream.

In the *caveat emptor* prefixed to his "Pedlar's Pack" (New York: E. D. North) Daniel Henry Holmes modestly affirms that he does not propose to "Homerize or Virgilate," but merely to help "a tired man to kill a Sunday." Yet, though his original and vivacious verse should prove adequate to this end, there is much in the book of serious intent and admirable execution. There is something in the color and composition of Mr. Holmes's verse that suggests the artist's eye, and when in the prelude to a section of "Decorative Panels for Painters Only" we come upon the following, we feel that we have found the secret of his quality:

A LONG WAY AFTER W. E. H.

Sons of the North-light,
Up with your brushes!
Children of Pigment,
Thumb through your pallet!
Look on the flamboyant World about ye,
Hark to the resonant Soul within ye.
Sons of the Rainbow,
Limbs of the Spectrum,
Paint!

It is, indeed, the temperament of the painter blessed with humor, the temperament of the "limb of the spectrum," that gives effectiveness to Mr. Holmes's work. It is evident in phrase, in image, in the waltz measures which he habitually prefers, and in the somewhat Viennese sentiment; but it is assisted by not a little of the faculty of the poet who knows to portray without delineating, as in "A Charmer":

She has no beauty; my memory trips
O'er a hundred prettier women;
But an ugliness, which puckers the lips,
The smart of a ripe persimmon.

She has no brains, and is learned alone
In her golfing and dancing classes;
But in her eyes you may see your own
Conceit, as in looking-glasses.

She has no heart; just a neat little pump,
A marvel of regular action;
Yet I'd give my life to hear it thump
But once out of time by a fraction.

Miss Carolyn Wells's "Whimsey Anthology" (Scribner's) is perhaps the most satisfactory and entertaining of her collections. It contains "logical," "shaped," "alphabetical," "typographical," "alliterative," "catalogue," "mosaic," "punning," and "technical" whimsies; "lipograms," "acrostics," "enigmas," "anagrams," "travesties," "imitative harmonies," "palindromes," "mnemonics," "tongue twisters," "monorhymes," "interior rhymes," "blank verse, in prose," "chain verse," "Jesuitical verse," "echo verse," "macaronic poetry," and limericks. A captious critic, if any such there be, might object that the scheme is too inclusive, and that one or two of the types belong rather in Miss Wells's anthologies of satire and parody. Yet the reader of the book is not likely to complain at having between two covers so abundant a repertory of the most ingenious products of the pen.

In "At the Sign of the Sphinx," second series (New York: Duffield & Co.), the ingenuity of Miss Wells's own pen, or her typewriter, is conspicuous. Her riddles have not, perhaps, sufficient fancy to occupy the æsthetic critic, yet often, as in the following, they have an unlabored humor that is engaging:

Henry the Eighth grew tired of life
With Catherine, his lawful wife:
But for divorce he's no decree;
Enraged, the King cried, "One, two, three!"

But soon my first gave up her soul,
Her body was no more my whole.

The answer is "animate."

In his "Chinatown Ballads" (Duffield & Co.) Wallace Irwin, best known as the author of purely humorous and funny verse, gives evidence of a wider range. Humor is still the predominant quality, but there are touches of grim tragedy, that, coupled with Mr. Irwin's metrical fluency, telling phrase, and dramatizing gift, make the book one that cannot only be read, but re-read.

CURRENT FICTION.

White Fang. By Jack London. New York: The Macmillan Co.

This is the kind of thing Jack London does best. In this atmosphere he wears neither his street swagger nor his more distressing company manners. As a biographer of wild animals he has hardly an

equal. A generation ago this remark would have meant little, but what with Mr. Kipling, Mr. Roberts, Mr. Thompson-Seton, the Rev. Mr. Long, and the rest, this field of natural letters, as it might be called, has become conspicuous. It is the "pathetic" consideration which gives such books their hold upon us; we like to speculate as to the relations or analogies between beast-kind and mankind. Perhaps we do not believe that a stag is capable of soulful love, or a moose of consecutive thought, or a cuckoo of deliberately teaching its offspring to suck eggs; at least we take our disbelief seriously.

Mr. London has not, so far as we know, entered into any controversy, but he has written several books which present feral nature as something distinctly apart from human nature. "White Fang" complements "The Call of the Wild" in showing how readily wild animals may submit themselves to human rule, and how naturally domestic animals may revert to freedom. These dogs and wolves do not talk or think humanly. Instinct impels them and the discipline of experience teaches them what to avoid and what to seek. "Had the cub thought in man-fashion, he might have epitomized life as a voracious appetite. But the cub did not think in man-fashion. He did not look at things with wide vision. He was single-purposed and had but one thought or desire at a time." Three-parts wolf, the cub grows up to become in the end the willing slave of a man who has bestowed upon it such love as a human being may allow an inferior. Being a brute, its experience is brutal, a continuous performance of dog-fights, with no sparing of bloody detail. But, indeed, squeamishness would be out of place here, for if the writer dwells on the savagery of the creature's experience, it is that he may emphasize its fitness. He believes that wild beasts get quite as much pleasure as pain out of the life which they are intended to live. It is under the white man's brutality that White Fang is nearly driven to madness.

Doublings. By Eden Phillpotts and Arnold Bennett. New York: S. S. McClure & Co.

Nothing in Mr. Phillpotts's "The Secret Women," "Children of the Mist," or "The Portreeve," or Mr. Bennett's "Anna of the Five Towns" would suggest that the joint product of these two authors would be a light-hearted, mile-a-minute detective story. The opening is gloomy enough, as if, in coming to London, Mr. Phillpotts had brought along all his customary depression. Philip Masters is hungry, with only sixpence in his pocket, but for some occult reason, when it is revealed that he has lately been discharged from a jiu-jitsu academy for breaking a duke's arm, your spirits insensibly rise. By every unwritten law of the game of fiction, that incident would be out of place in a serious story, and at his grimmest Mr. Phillpotts never fails to play by the rules. In fact, through this whole brilliant *tour de force*, both he and Mr. Bennett continue to play, showing amazing animal spirits, fertility of incident, and, above all, a rapid pace.

The story differs from the average detective mystery only in being quicker, more amusing, and in covering a wider geograph-

ical field, as it ranges from a London model lodging-house to a stagnant West Indian lake. Also the briefly sketched characters are less inanimate than is usual in novels of this class. It is adventure pure and simple from the moment Philip consents to relieve the night watchman. The number of events which follow would furnish several volumes of De Boisgobey. In a tale bringing in Scotland Yard, plain-clothes men, and uniformed police, music-hall queens, motor cars, chartered yachts, treasure hunting in the Spanish Main, Russian secret service people, London clubs, and Obeah fearing negroes, it is hardly within human possibility that the end should fully equal the brilliant beginning.

A Knight of the Cumberland. By John Fox, jr. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This is the very model of a story. It takes the reader into the mountains of the Tennessee border; it tells enough of a story to connect easily the scattered incidents; it happily allots eccentric characters and unusual actions to each other; every word tells; and the little book has a length in absolute proportion to its strength.

Of the characters, the Hon. Samuel Budd closely rivets the attention, he of the Congressional aspirations and the taste for mediæval tournament; he who speaks in a rotation of tongues, passing lightly from the language of the natural Southern man to the tropes of the lawyer, the flights of the politician, the magnificences of Sir Walter Scott. Nor is the reader ever allowed to stray far from the spell of the Blight, the merry maiden so named because nor man nor woman nor sixteen-hand-high mule could resist her. The whole story makes glad the sense of symmetry, compact as it is of fun, manners, and motives, as they flourish in the land that we almost think of as created by Mr. Fox.

When Love Speaks. By Will Payne. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Although Mr. Payne deals competently with business and political corruption in a small town of the Middle West, whose most respected and respectable citizens do not stop at bribery, blackmail, or arson to further their financial interests, "When Love Speaks" is neither a business nor a political novel. The struggles of men and women as human beings must forever be the basis of all good fiction. The contemporary picture has its value; but without the solid foundation of personal interest, the cleverest snapshot of corruption leaves you rather edified than enthusiastic. In the present story, Mr. Payne deliberately uses the Distillers' Trust and the venal judiciary of "Saugenac" as they affect the intimate inward relation of David and Louise Donovan, instead of employing his two young people as a convenient set of rails along which to run a history of commerce in Saugenac. Consequently, his book is alive.

From the opening chapter he squarely grasps the fundamental issue, a question which perennially crops up wherever men and women form any kind of social body: how far complete loyalty to abstract right

is compatible with warm-blooded loyalty to friends; whether it is better to be just or to be merciful. In this case, set forth with considerable imagination, but no disregard for probability, the choice besets Donovan at every turn, with increasing force and pitiless logic. The strain is made all the more acute by the fact that his relation to his wife continually depends upon his deciding between the cause of her brother, an unfaltering believer in surgically clean politics, and a body of friends to whom he is bound by every tie of interest and affection. The story takes in the whole life of a raw, striving town, from its absentee fashionable lady, who turns up with New York standards to patronize a local horse show, to the handsome hotel "dining-room girl." A large number of characters are briefly and unaffectedly described, somewhat after the quiet manner of Brand Whitlock, but with greater force and penetration. The climax is skilfully held back, and the final solution of the problem of one particular pair is managed without flatness, or undue straining of probability. The whole tone of the book is wise, tolerant, and unimpeachably sincere.

Mr. Payne is not once guilty of florid writing. It is, however, none too early (and, let us trust, not yet too late) to protest against a form of brevity which robs an occasional verb of its lawful object, and forces a noun to do an adverb's work, by tacking on an adverbial termination. The average of expression is too dignified to be marred by such slips as "Louise roused"; "she spoke sisterly." On the whole, these blemishes are few and trifling, only noticeable because they are growing so rife in Western fiction as to create a menace.

Caybigan. By James Hopper. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.

In this volume of tales Mr. Hopper has done something roughly comparable to what was done by Kipling in "Soldiers Three" and by Gilbert Parker in "Donovan Pasha." This time it is Anglo-Saxon imperialism in the Philippines instead of in India or Egypt. The natives are poor devils, God bless them, somewhat in the order of monkeys, whose business it is to be grateful to the blond, tubbing, and muscular usurper whom Providence has mysteriously accounted with a big heart and a big stick. The Yankee Jack-of-all-trades idea is super-added here, for the leading person is an American teacher who knows more of fighting than an army officer, more of administration than a mayor, and more of human nature than a psychologist. Caybigan, the hero of one of the fifteen stories which make up the book, is the only native to whom extraordinary virtue is allowed. These tales have proved "magazinable" for sufficiently obvious reasons. They are of the right length (or brevity); and each of them, apart from the sentiment of race, appeals to some consideration of what might be called "justly popular sentiment": such as the love of young beauty, the love of childish innocence, the love of the under dog—most luxurious of all, because most patronizing. The present reviewer has found that these tales, which Mr. Hopper has frankly offered for hasty perusal, endure very well a second reading.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Book-Prices Current, from October, 1905, to July, 1906. By J. H. Slater. London: Elliot Stock.

This is the twentieth annual volume of the English "Book-Prices Current." The chronological arrangement of sales, which, at least in this country, is generally criticised, has one point of advantage. Printing can begin early in the season, and when the last sales come in July, the larger part of the book can be ready. In the American "Book-Prices Current," where the arrangement is alphabetical, no printing can begin until the close of the last sale. Mr. Slater's volume for 1906 includes 6,989 lots, occupying 646 pages, exclusive of the Index. The American volume for 1906, to be issued in December, records upwards of 14,000 lots, occupying something like 800 pages. In the American book \$3 is taken as a limit, and while not every lot bringing this sum is included, the record is practically complete. In the English volume £1 is nominally the limit, though a few cheaper items are included. The record, however, is avowedly not complete, but is presumably representative.

Mr. Slater's Introduction is mainly taken up with lists of items which brought £100 and upwards. First come Shaksperiana, seventeen lots, the highest, "Much Ado About Nothing," 1600, which brought £1,570; and the lowest "Titus Andronicus," 1611, lacking title, which brought £106. Fifteen of the other books which brought £100 or more were parts of that wonderful volume found in Ireland, which contained seventeen early English interludes. It was broken up and the pieces sold separately at Sotheby's, June 30. Recorded in the volume also are two items from the library of Franz Trau, sold in Vienna October, 1905: Cicero's "Officia et Paradoxa," printed by John Fust at Mainz in 1465, on vellum, brought £1,875; and a block book, the Apocalypse of St John, printed probably between 1445 and 1460, brought £1,125.

Fewer items than usual are favored with Mr. Slater's bibliographical notes. To the record of the sale of a copy of Smith's "Generall Historie of Virginia," 1624, for £127, he adds that Sir Edward Bunbury's copy brought £204 in 1896. This sale is often cited as the record, but the sole explanation of the high price is that the Bunbury copy contained a printed title, date 1625, not found in any other copy. This note is added to the record of sale of the first issue of Fielding's "Tom Jones," six volumes, 1749:

The first issue contains a number of misprints, etc., which are referred to in a leaf of "errata" inserted in the first volume. In the second issue these errors were corrected and the leaf withdrawn.

The "errata" are not on a separate leaf, but occupy page lxiv. at the end of the contents. This page is blank in the second issue. The number of leaves is identical in both.

The £95 paid for the first edition of Gray's "Elegy," 1751, on June 6 at Puttick's, is said to be the "record price to date." This is in line with the custom of English writers to ignore American auction sales. The same error was made in the November issue of the *Bookman*, where

it is said that a copy of the first edition of the "Elegy" was "sold recently in London for the record price of \$500." We do not quibble over the difference between £95 and \$500, but the record price, \$740, was paid for the McKee copy, at Anderson's, in this city, May, 1902.

On Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday next C. F. Libbie & Co. of Boston sell the library of the late F. Griswold Tefft. The collection includes two sets of Audubon's "Birds of America," one, the first octavo edition, 1840-1844, the other the second octavo edition, 1856; several of the rarer first editions of American authors; and a few pieces of rare Americana. Among the latter are four of the Darien tracts issued for or against the Scottish colony, in 1699 and 1700. Among the first editions are books by Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier, and Holmes. The Lowell series is the most nearly complete, and contains the "Class Poem," 1838, and "A Year's Life," 1841. Among the Longfellow items is the rare first edition of "Outre-Mer," the two parts published in Boston in 1833 and 1834, here bound in one volume. The complete book was first published in New York in 1835. "The Spanish Student," 1843, in the original boards, uncut, is another choice item. Whittier's "Mog Megone," 1836, is in the original blue cloth, described as "an immaculate copy, the binding as fresh and clean as the day of the issue." It is some time since a copy in the original binding has appeared in the auction room.

Part III. of the library of Wilberforce Eames of the New York Public Library will be sold by the Anderson Auction Company of this city, on Monday and Tuesday, November 26 and 27. This portion of the library is devoted to the history, literatures, and languages of Europe. The Monday sessions are given up to the books on Greece and Rome. Among the books offered during the Tuesday sessions, seventy-four different European languages and dialects are represented. Among the items are the first English translation of Appian, 1578; the *editio princeps* of Diogenes Laertius, 1533; two books, printed privately by Julian Hibbert in Greek types, which he had cut to resemble written Greek; and a collection of books on the Gypsies.

On November 26 and 27 the Merwin-Clayton Sales Company of this city sells a collection, including a series from the Kelmscott Press; Shelley's "Queen Mab," 1813, the title lacking, and imprint scissored from last leaf as in many copies; and first editions of Dickens, Thackeray, Tennyson, Swinburne, Emerson, Freneau, Lowell, and other American authors.

The library of Lawrence W. Hodson, to be sold by Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge in London, on December 3, 4, and 5, is notable as containing a series of twenty-five of the issues of the Kelmscott Press printed on vellum. The number of copies so printed was small, often only five or six, and seldom more than ten. There are also more than twenty manuscripts of Morris's published works, all in the author's autograph. Among these are "The Earthly Paradise," "The Story of the Glittering Plain," "The Life and Death of Jason," "Poems by the Way," and "The

Well at the World's End," as well as his translations of the "Æneid" and the "Odyssey." There are three early fifteenth-century manuscripts of Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales"; two large fragments (one sixty-five leaves, the other thirty-three leaves) of the first edition of the "Canterbury Tales" printed by Caxton about 1475, and the editions of Chaucer's works of 1542, 1561, and 1721.

The library of the late Richard Garnett, to be sold at Sotheby's on December 6, includes three of Shelley's note-books, containing early drafts of many of his published poems, and showing variations from the printed versions, as well as some unpublished scraps of verse and prose, and several drawings. These note-books were presented to the late Dr. Garnett by Sir Percy and Lady Shelley. All the other note-books are in the Bodleian Library.

Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge sold on November 5 and 6 a collection from the library of C. J. Spence. Among the prices are the following: "Biblia Latina Vulgata," manuscript on vellum, fourteenth century, £40; Evangelistarium, illuminated manuscript on vellum, fifteenth century, £141; "Horae ad Usus Sarum," illuminated manuscript on vellum, fifteenth century, £140; "Horae" on vellum, late fifteenth-century French decorations, £500; another, also French fifteenth-century, with seven fine *grisaille* miniatures, £645; Chapman's "Seaven Bookes of the Iliades of Homere, Prince of Poets," 1598, £214. This is the first edition of Chapman's version, and when the work was revised for the folio edition of 1610, books i. and ii. were rewritten. In this copy a few leaves were slightly defective, and some were stained. In 1904 a copy brought £291 at Sotheby's, and another £230 at Hodgson's. At the McKee sale in this city, 1901, a copy brought \$860.

The collection of books, autograph letters, manuscripts, documents, and book-plates belonging to the late George M. Elwood of Rochester was offered at auction last week by the Merwin-Clayton Sales Company of this city. The Private Journal of Aaron Burr, reprinted in full from the original manuscript in the library of William K. Bixby of St. Louis, with introduction, 2 volumes, original boards, uncut, Rochester, 1903, brought \$154. Letters from George Washington to Tobias Lear, with appendix containing miscellaneous Washington letters and documents, reprinted from the originals in the collection of Mr. Bixby, 4to, boards, Rochester, 1905, brought \$51. A first edition of "The Book of Mormon," Palmyra, 1830, sold for \$20. The pages were slightly foxed, and a name was written on the title. An autograph letter of John Brown, the anti-slavery leader, dated Osawatomie, December 5, 1855, brought \$31; a vellum document of appointment, signed by Napoleon, \$25.

The copy of "Modern Chivalry," a curious early American political novel, by that lawyer, politician, chaplain, poet, Hugh Henry Brackenridge, issued in four volumes from 1792 to 1797, which was sold at Anderson's for \$250, on October 25, as "apparently the only complete copy known of the first edition of each volume," did not long retain its uniqueness. Another copy, the four volumes bound in one, has been discovered in a Pennsylvania library, and has come to

New York. But, though two copies are now known, it is not likely that many more will soon come to light. The third volume is one of the crudest specimens of printing extant. It came from the first Pittsburgh press, established by John Scull in 1786, according to Thomas, under the patronage of Brackenridge, the author of this book.

An interesting exhibition of book-bindings, comprising more than a hundred volumes from the libraries of kings and queens of France and of famous personages of the French court, is on view at Charles Scribner's Sons, in this city, until November 24. The collection contains volumes from the libraries of all the rulers of France from Francis I. to Napoleon III.; all the volumes bear the arms or devices of their former owners emblazoned in gold on the covers; and many of the covers are the work of famous French binders, such as Piqué, Derôme, and Padeloup. One of the most curious volumes is the "Davidis Psalmi," which belonged to Louise de Lorraine, Queen of Henry III. This beautiful example of the work of Nicholas Eve is full of the conceits of devout Catholicism. The binding is in brown morocco, with the sides and back covered with the emblems of Christ's passion, tooled in gold. A fine example of the work of Claude Piqué is the "L'Histoire Ecclesiastique," from the library of Charles IX. Clovis Eve is excellently represented by the "Tresor de Tous les Livres d'Amadis de Gaule," which belonged to Marguerite de Valois. Antoine Ruette is represented by the splendid "Ioannis Zonarae Monachi," which belonged to Louis XIII. The "Annales Ecclesiastiques et Civiles," which belonged to the Duc de Penthièvre, is a superb binding by Derôme. Other notable volumes are Marie Antoinette's book of devotions, "Office de la Semaine Sainte," Madame de Maintenon's "Histoires de Philippe de Valois," and the Marquise de Pompadour's "État de Troupes," with a special title-page drawn by Ch. Eisen.

English Literature from the Norman Conquest to Chaucer. By William Henry Schofield. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.

It is characteristic of the indifference with which until recently our early literature has been regarded by the descendants of the men who created it, that since the appearance of Warton's "History of English Poetry" in the eighteenth century no treatise, at once fairly comprehensive and authoritative, on the productions of the period between the Norman conquest and Chaucer, has come from the pen of a scholar of English race. We have been content with turning to translations of Ten Brink and Jusserand. It is well that the task of removing this reproach should have fallen into the hands of a scholar of unquestioned competence. It may be said at once that Professor Schofield's work does not fall below expectation; and as it embodies the results of investigations which have been fruitful in extending and defining our knowledge of the literature of the Middle Ages, it may undoubtedly be accepted as the best general authority for the period which it covers.

The book differs in plan from the other volumes in the series, and indeed from most

histories of English literature, in that the author does not deal with the whole production of each successive period. Instead, he treats his material according to the different *genres*, tracing separately the evolution of each. This method, which Professor Schofield has adopted, it would seem, from the now classical "Littérature française au Moyen Age," by the late Gaston Paris, has both its drawbacks and its advantages. Chief among the drawbacks is the difficulty—for the average reader—of getting a clear idea of the intellectual development of England from the eleventh to the fourteenth century, and the chronological table at the end of the book can hardly be said to remedy this defect. But for professional students the plan of adhering to the evolution of types will have the advantage of presenting material from a novel point of view, to which nobody will deny a fundamental importance.

Another feature of the present work which may provoke debate is the inclusion of chapters on Anglo-Latin and Anglo-French literature, on approximately the same scale as those which deal with writings in the vernacular. Now Latin and French were the natural vehicles of expression for the most intellectual classes in England for two centuries or more after the Norman Conquest; as Professor Schofield says: "The awkward rusticity of much Middle English writing is obviously due to the fact that it was the product of men inferior intellectually, of lower station, and less cultivated than those who were conspicuous in their age, and not to the fact that English itself was a rough instrument of Englishmen prevalently dull." At the same time, the influence of productions in Latin and French by men who lived on English soil, though in many instances no more Englishmen than Spenser was an Irishman, has only an indirect connection with the development of a distinctively English literature. It is therefore questionable whether the author of a book with the above title had not better direct his energies toward giving life to some of the intractable material in which the vernacular abounds, merely devoting, in the manner of his predecessors, so much space to the works in the two rival languages as is necessary for proper perspective. To be sure, the chapters under discussion are not without value; they offer a connected account of their subjects such as is hardly accessible elsewhere; but the man who has mastered Arthurian romance is not likely to go deeply into Duns Scotus; and, on the whole, these second and third chapters contain too many pages of meagre interest.

In the main division of the work—that which deals with English literature proper—the chapter on the romances takes the leading place. On this matter the writer speaks with authority and his discussion of the subject, though it flags toward the end, is the best we have. Here, as throughout the book, Professor Schofield prefaces his treatment of English productions in the particular *genre* with a survey of the antecedent growth of that *genre*, especially in French, on which, as the author rightly insists, the literature of England during this period was mainly dependent. Indeed, the sections on French romances of the various cycles, usually turn out to be the most interesting, as is perhaps inherent

in the case; and this division of the book is rather a compendious treatment of mediæval romance in general than of the merely English contributions. As was to be expected, the author's discussion of the Arthurian legend is of particular interest—only in the pages on French prose Arthurian romances we notice some errors which seem to betray insufficient acquaintance with that *selva obscura*. For instance, the term "Livre d'Artus" is not applied, as Professor Schofield states, to the great "Lancelot du Lac" romance, but to that branch of the Grail-Lancelot cycle which was written to connect the prose rendering of Robert de Boron's "Merlin" with the "Lancelot." Again the "Queste del St. Graal" is not a "part of the enormous 'Grand St. Graal' which tells the whole story." It is a separate romance. On the other hand, the "Grand St. Graal" deals merely with the early history of the Holy Grail. Moreover, it is not correct to say that Arthur "appears everywhere rather as looker-on than as participant" in the prose romances. A mere glance at the "Merlin" and "Mort Artus" will correct that impression; and indeed the difference between the prose and the metrical romances in this respect has been taken as one of the distinguishing characteristics of the former. Finally, in any account of the French prose romances mention should be made of the so-called "de Boron cycle" which has been the subject of so much discussion ever since the publication of the "Huth-Merlin" in 1886. As regards the sources of the Arthurian romances, Professor Schofield adopts the view which will now probably commend itself to all impartial judges, namely, that both Brittany and Wales furnished material. Yet we confess continued skepticism as to Gaston Paris's hypothetical Anglo-Norman romances concerning Arthur and his knights, of which not a single specimen has come down to us.

The remaining chapters on the tales, historical, religious, and didactic works, and lyrics in the vernacular, are thorough and adequate—like the excellent bibliography which concludes the work; and as a rule they are interestingly written. We take exception, however, to one feature: Professor Schofield's habit of presenting without qualifying phrase, as if definitely established, the result of investigations which he has himself conducted or which have been conducted under his influence. The value of these investigations no one will dispute, but they relate to controversial matters, in which absolute certainty will perhaps never be attained. We may cite as examples Miss Paton's identification of Morgain la Fée with the Morrigan, the Irish goddess of war, and Professor Schofield's own interpretation of the Horn-Saga as being of West Scandinavian origin and connected with the Isle of Man. The last-mentioned theory seems to us to meet all the difficulties of the problem better than any other proposed, but it certainly has not found universal acceptance. Even less likely to find general acceptance, in our opinion, is the view that "The Pearl" was inspired by Boccaccio's eclogue. This indubitably constitutes the most interesting parallel to the Middle English poem, which has been brought to light, but any direct relation of dependence between the two is improbable. A startling instance

of the above tendency is the offhand manner in which the author connects the Anglo-Saxon poem commonly known as "The Husband's Message" with the "Chèvrefeuille" of Marie de France.

In literary execution there is considerable unevenness. Parts are admirably written; for example, the introduction, distinguished by its freshness of treatment and breadth of view, the general discussion of the matter of Britain, and the chapter on religious works. On the other hand, the style, as we have intimated, betrays lassitude in the concluding sections of the chapter on romance, and in some pages of the chapter on Anglo-Latin literature. On the whole, however, the work is excellent.

Liberty, Union, and Democracy. The National Ideals of America. By Barrett Wendell. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.25 net.

Professor Wendell would not, we presume, wish to count himself as preëminently either an historian or a publicist. He has not, so far as we know, given himself absorbingly to the study of law, or government, or sociology. We doubt if he would naturally be thought of as the man among us best fitted to write a constitutional history or advise a political party. His reputation, as he himself modestly puts it, is that of a rhetorician or literary critic. Yet he has written, in the volume before us, the most illuminating and stimulating exposition of American national ideals that has appeared for many a day. The book consists of four lectures given as a Lowell Institute course last year. Before that, the same material was used in lectures at the Sorbonne and elsewhere in France. Perhaps the necessity of explaining America to Frenchmen has helped him to look more intently for the main things. Perhaps his study of American literature has led him to a juster appreciation of the political ideas which, in moulding the American character, have made American literature possible. Whatever the cause, his book is the sort of thing we should expect a European critic to produce; and Professor Wendell, with all his cosmopolitanism, is distinctly an American.

The volume begins with an inquiry into the origin and nature of the American national character. To assume, as is commonly done, that our institutions have made our character, is to put the cart before the horse:

Our national character, we must freely admit, existed a century and a half before these institutions under which we now live came into existence. That the character and the institutions are closely interrelated, no one would pretend to deny. But it is not the character which results from the institutions; it is the institutions which result from the character implanted on the Virginian seaboard, and on that of New England, during the first quarter of the seventeenth century (pp. 32, 33).

As with other peoples, so with us, the origin of many social ideals must be traced to religion. To the Puritan of New England we owe much of our American idealism, our high standards of morality, our "saving faith in order," and our belief in popular education. Neither Puritanism nor Calvinism, of course, was born of America, but their working-out here was more

unfettered and consistent than in the England from which they were transplanted; while the pervading belief in the possibility of a godly life, and of a political society which should collectively do the will of God, was only superficially obscured by the hard struggle for existence which was long necessary. It was this very idealism that made our forefathers conservative, and prevented them from being carried off their feet by the revolutions which swept over England and continental Europe. The American Revolution, accordingly, is seen to have been not the origin of our nation, but the birth of our national consciousness. As Professor Wendell puts it, the "truly vital purpose" of the Revolution "was not to overthrow an immemorial system of government and society, replacing it by some philanthropic and untested new one. The vital purpose of the American Revolution was, with all the power of a newly conscious national existence, to maintain against reactionary innovation that historical continuity, those immemorial traditions of our own, which the unbroken experience of five generations had proved favorable among ourselves to prosperity and to righteousness. Alone of revolutions ours was essentially conservative" (pp. 85, 86).

With the ground thus prepared, Professor Wendell goes on to examine our national ideas of liberty, union, and democracy. Familiar as these ideas now are, they have not always been equally prominent. Liberty is the prevailing note of the Revolution. The Declaration of Independence is a sort of party platform whose "glittering and sounding generalities of natural right," as Rufus Choate called them, are subject in practice to substantial modification; but this has not prevented us from thinking of liberty as a concrete fact, not as an abstraction. As for defining the term, however, we have got no further than the never-swinging affirmation of the right of self-government. The difficulty has lain in the adjustment of loyalty to the community or State and loyalty to the nation, a difficulty enhanced by slavery and its aftermath. Out of the controversy has come the firm conviction of the North that there should be no legally privileged class, and that every adult male citizen should be allowed to vote; and the equally firm conviction of the older South that neither of these propositions could with safety be universally applied. Liberty, in short, was for long mainly local, and individual freedom an undefined affirmation. There remained to see whether individual and local freedom could consist with allegiance to a steadily predominating central government; whether one must not love his neighbor less as, perforce, he loved his country more.

The final answer came only with the Civil War. Not that the idea of union was then born. What the war did, rather, was to substitute what Professor Wendell aptly calls a "new unit of liberty" for the local loyalty which hitherto had widely obtained. It wrote into our fundamental law, in characters of blood, the rule that the union was to be perpetual. Around the evolution of this now axiomatic rule had centred two of the greatest controversies known to the history of constitutional government anywhere. For seventy years the crux of political discussion in this country was the question of State rights versus Federalism, until the localism everywhere familiar in

1830 had become, by 1861, only an outgrown tradition, a fading memory, a name to conjure with. Simultaneously, the New England conscience, emancipated from bondage to theology, turned with zeal to social reform, and called for human freedom until freedom came. The brilliant peroration of Webster's reply to Hayne was prophecy and hope, politically speaking, in 1830; for not until 1865 could we affirm that liberty and union had become, for all time, one and inseparable.

Regarding our "ancestral practice" of democracy, Professor Wendell shrewdly observes that "however fervently Americans may have believed that all men are created equal, they have never gone so far as to insist that all men must permanently remain so" (p. 267). We have always delighted in humble careers, but the true secret of our delight "lies not so much in the humility of their origin as in the picturesque contrast between their origin and their achievement" (p. 281). Democracy, in other words, has thus far meant with us only equality of opportunity. The fearfully depressing thing about present-day democracy the world over is the growing tyranny of the majority, the ominous demand for equality of social condition. Here, at last, we come to the gravest danger of our society, the point at which American democracy feels most profoundly the levelling spirit of proletarian Europe. Only in America has democracy shown itself able to expand without destructive revolution. Now is its day of trial, while all the world looks on.

We have made no attempt to summarize Professor Wendell's book, nor even to state completely the outlines of his exposition. We have only indicated a few of the more striking points on which he has flashed his lamp. With sober yet unconventional reflection, keen and matured insight, pervading reasonableness and good sense, and uncommon grace of speech, he has made clear some of the ideals which have made America great. The book should be widely read.

Drama.

Shakespeare and the Modern Stage. By Sidney Lee. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2 net.

Although the eleven papers constituting this volume were, with one exception, published separately by Sidney Lee between 1899 and 1905, they have been so carefully revised that, as a whole, they come as a fresh contribution to Shaksperian discussion. On almost every page they bear evidence of scholarship and sanity. His first paper on the Shaksperian revivals of the present day is even more timely now than when first printed half a dozen years ago; it summarizes, in convincing fashion, the disastrous effects upon dramatic art, and especially upon Shaksperian representation, of the current policy of expending vast sums upon scenic decoration and treating the text as comparatively unimportant. Like other earnest students of the theatre, he realizes how the system of long runs is robbing the stage of its actors and the public of its legitimate opportunities of entertainment and instruction. His position

is unassailable, but the arguments with which he buttresses it are too familiar to readers of the *Nation* to need recapitulation here.

As a rule, the modern manager takes refuge behind the assertion that the public will not endure Shakspeare except in spectacular form. The fallacy of this has been demonstrated over and over again. Edwin Booth made Shakspeare pay with shabby scenery—and a still shabbier company for that matter—for many years. Phelps, at Sadler's Wells, prospered on him for twenty years, with a most modest stage outfit. Henry Irving, of course, spent many fortunes on his scenery, and lost some of them, but that is no proof that he would not have been better off if he had spent much less. The plain truth is that the public will not support a bad Shaksperian performance unless some special compensation is offered. It is notorious that recent Shaksperian revivals in England, except those of F. R. Benson, were due chiefly to the dearth of other practicable plays. The managers who undertook them followed the evil precedent of Charles Kean, in reducing the mangled plays to glittering spectacles—as if they were intended to appeal to the eye only and not to the heart and mind—not so much because these managers mistrusted the power of the text or underrated the public intelligence, as because they were unable to produce the plays in any other way with the slightest chance of financial success. It has been impossible to depend upon the dramatic and literary beauties of these master-works to exercise the spell of their own magic for the simple reason that it has been impossible to collect a company of capable players. The Shaksperian actor is nearly extinct in England, as in this country, because the schools which formerly produced them, the old provincial stock companies, have been starved out of existence by the present system of syndicates and travelling stars.

It was in the provinces that all the best actors of the nineteenth century received their training and cultivated their powers. It was from that source that Phelps derived the company that helped him to make Sadler's Wells, for twenty years, the Mecca of intelligent British theatregoers. His career furnishes one of the brightest pages in modern dramatic history and the most unimpeachable testimony to the truth of Mr. Lee's theories. A far better all-round actor than Macready, and a man of more sterling character, he took Sadler's Wells, a low little music hall in the poor suburb of Islington, miles away from any recognized theatrical district, and, with a faith in the good taste of the working masses that seemed almost Quixotic, began to give good performances of Shakspeare at low prices. His scenery was inexpensive, but always appropriate; his company thoroughly capable. His house was crowded from the first, and before long lovers of Shakspeare from all parts of London were making pilgrimages to the new shrine. During his management he presented no less than thirty-one of Shakspeare's plays, and many notable but now unfamiliar pieces of other Elizabethan dramatists, as well as many famous comedies, ancient and modern, and miscellaneous plays, but always of good quality. He educated the Islingtonians

so effectually in the noblest drama in the language that their critical acumen became almost proverbial. The actor who scored a success before them needed no other certificate of competency. In the end Phelps retired with a comfortable fortune, the great bulk of which was made by sheer acting power out of unadulterated Shakspeare. What has been done once can be done again. But there must be actors.

Mr. Lee seems to suspect that the imagination of modern audiences may be less potent than that of their ancestors, who in the Georgian era were moved so profoundly by performances wholly devoid of scenic illusion; but is it not just as reasonable to suppose that the distractions of spectacle really prevent the exercise of the imagination which they are devised to excite? In an interesting article on the admirable work done by the stock company of Mr. Benson, who has chosen Phelps for his example, Mr. Lee does not allude to any lack of public appreciation.

Mr. Lee is an enthusiastic advocate of the municipal theatre, and illustrates its possible benefits by descriptions of the performances at institutions of this kind in Austria, France, and Hungary. But it must not be forgotten that the conditions on the European Continent are widely different from those which prevail in London or New York. In Europe there are no great theatrical Trusts, like those in England and America, which undoubtedly offer extraordinary opportunities to popular actors of all kinds and pay salaries which no municipal theatre would be likely to offer. This is one of the conditions which has made it difficult for Mr. Benson to keep his forces intact. A moderate, regular income and the promise of a pension suffice to hold the Continental actor, but would be a much weaker inducement in New York or London. With inferior performers municipal theatres would not attract much patronage or be able to effect much good.

Among the most interesting papers in Mr. Lee's volumes are those on Shakspeare's philosophy, oral traditions, and the perils of unscientific research, but space will not permit more than this reference to them. There is not a dull page in the book.

Georgia Cayvan, who died on Monday, after a long period of suffering and retirement, occupied a higher rank artistically than some of her associates enjoying more prominent positions in the eye of the world. Her distinguishing characteristics were a sound intelligence, conscientious study, a healthy comprehension of the elemental human emotions, and a pleasant, ingenuous manner. Of subtilty she had but little. Her strength lay in the suggestion of an honest, hearty, generous nature, and in the open expression of strong, simple feeling, whether scorn, passion, indignation, or love. When the emotion was veiled or complex she was less successful. In the lighter phases of comedy, her natural geniality, her quick understanding, and her ability to deliver a bit of repartee, enabled her to carry off scenes with vivacity and charm. She was born in Bath, Me., nearly fifty years ago, but was reared and educated in Boston, where, while still young, she began to give readings, varied by imitations of birds. She made her first ap-

pearance upon the New York stage as Dolly Dutton in "Hazel Kirke" in June, 1880. A few months later she was playing the part of the heroine on the road very successfully. In 1881 she appeared as Jocasta in George Riddle's excellent production of the "Cedipus Tyrannus." Her performance was notable for classic pose and admirable declamation. After this she played with success in various rôles until she reached the position of leading lady in the Lyceum Theatre of this city. There most of her best work was in "The Wife," "The Charity Ball," "Squire Kate," "Sweet Laverder," "The Idler," "Old Heads and Young Hearts," "Lady Bountiful," and "The Amazons."

Rudolph Besier's neo-classic play, "The Virgin Goddess," which has created such a stir in London, is controlled by Oscar Asche, who is now acting the central character. He is soon to make a tour of the British provinces with it; and later he expects to visit Australia and the United States. He may not reach this country till season after next.

Music.

How to Appreciate Music. By Gustav Kobbé. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co. \$1.50 net.

Famous American Songs. By Gustav Kobbé. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.50 net.

There are thousands of persons who, because they neither play nor sing, think they have no right to call themselves "musical." To them Mr. Kobbé says: "If you love music and appreciate it, you may be more musical than many pianists or singers; and certainly you may become so." It is to help these thousands to "become so" that he has prepared his volume, "How to Appreciate Music." It is written in wholly untechnical language, yet any one who has read its 275 pages will know more about the art and its history, and the greatest composers and performers and works, than nine-tenths of the professional musicians know. The opening chapter is quite properly devoted to the most universal and important of instruments, the pianoforte. A few subheads may be cited to illustrate the author's unpedantic and entertaining manner: "Liszt played the whole orchestra on the pianoforte," "Paderewski's playing of 'Hark, Hark, the Lark,'" "Richard Strauss on Beethoven's pianistic orchestration," "Nine centuries to develop pianoforte from monochord."

Here are elucidation, history, criticism, gossip, anecdote, cleverly commingled, making the book one that can be read for entertainment as well as instruction. Interesting also are the other chapters, sixteen in all, which are concerned with Bach, fugues and sonatas, symphonies, operas, songs, and all other branches of music. Chopin, Schumann, Liszt, Paderewski, and Richard Strauss are honored with separate chapters—a fact which indicates the modernity of the author's taste. He is not one of those who lift their eyes heavenward every time the words "sonata" or "symphony" are mentioned. He is frank and courageous in the expression of his own views; and,

as he says, "something is due the great body of music-lovers who, being told that they *must* admire this, that, and the other classical composer, *because he is classical*, find themselves at a loss and think themselves to blame because modern music makes a more vivid and deeper impression upon them. If they only knew it—they are in the right! But they have needed some one to tell them so."

Mr. Kobbe's "Famous American Songs" consists of seven chapters, devoted to "Home Sweet Home," "Old Folks at Home," "Dixie," "Ben Bolt," "The Star-Spangled Banner," "Yankee Doodle," "Hail Columbia," and "America," and "some war songs." It is significant that the first two of these are concerned with home. In studying the subject of popular songs, the author came to the conclusion that the sentiment most deeply implanted in the human heart, as expressed in music, is love of home. Patriotism may replace it, in time of war, but "comparatively few popular songs, which have survived, celebrate the love affairs of young men and women." Another thing he has noted with regard to songs which live on from generation to generation is "their freedom from immoral suggestion." The method followed in this book is to tell how the songs or airs happened to be written, and to relate the stories of the composers' lives, so far as known. Of special interest is the chapter on "Old Folks at Home" and its composer, Stephen Foster, whose importance as not only one of the greatest of American composers, but also one of the most original melodists of all times, is being more and more fully recognized.

While the policy pursued during the last three years by the New York Philharmonic Society, of importing for each season half-a-dozen eminent conductors undoubtedly afforded interesting opportunities for comparisons in orchestral interpretation, more satisfactory results can, on the whole, be achieved under a single conductor, provided he be of the first rank. Wassily Safonoff is of that rank; and he is now to be with us for at least three years, not only as orchestral interpreter, but as director and professor of the pianoforte at the National Conservatory. At the opening Philharmonic concert, last Friday, he created a sensation by his virile, dramatic, and emotional performance of Tchaikovsky's fifth symphony—a performance which caused not a few to revise their opinion and place this work even above the "Pathetic," which is the most popular symphonic work of the last quarter-century. The wail of the slow movement seemed like the agony of Siberian exiles, while the cyclonic sweep of the last movement was a feat which it takes not only a Russian, but a Safonoff, to perform. It would be a great mistake, however, to suppose that this conductor is simply a Tchaikovsky specialist. The high-strung Tchaikovsky adored the simple and serene Mozart, and so does Safonoff, as he evinced by his performance of that composer's "Kleine Nachtmusik." He also gave a vigorous reading of Beethoven's "Coriolanus" overture. Mr. Lhevinne played Rubinstein's D minor concerto, to the great satisfaction of the audience.

A public appeal for contributions to the Edward MacDowell fund of the Mendelssohn

Glee Club has been written by Prof. Henry van Dyke and signed by many well-known men. The fund will be administered primarily for the support of Mr. MacDowell, and secondarily for a fitting memorial. Probably the property which has been his home at Peterboro, N. H., will be made a resting spot for students in all the arts.

Signor Bonci, who is to sing this season at Hammerstein's new Manhattan Opera House, in a sort of rivalry with Caruso at the Metropolitan, is about thirty-six years of age, a native of Cesena in the Romagna. At the age of twenty he entered the Rossini Conservatory of Music in Pesaro, where he studied for six years with the only teacher he has ever had, Maestro Cohen. On completing his studies there, ten years ago, he made his *début* in the part of Fenton in Verdi's "Falstaff," at the Teatro Regio di Parma. He was immediately engaged to sing Faust at the Teatro della Scala, Milan. Since that time he has appeared with success in Paris, Berlin, London, Vienna, Madrid, and other Continental centres.

Art.

NOTES ON BOOKS.

Two books of a purely utilitarian character are Edmund von Mach's "Outlines of the History of Painting" (Ginn & Co.) and "Terms Commonly Used in Ornamental Design," by T. Erat Harrison and W. G. Paulson Townsend (imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York). The important part of Professor von Mach's book is a series of tables "grouping and grading all the artists" of importance in the history of painting from the thirteenth century to the end of the nineteenth, with the aim of assisting the student to obtain a comprehensive view of the whole field, and, incidentally, of supplying a system for the cataloguing of collections of photographs. The painters are grouped by nationalities, dates, subject-matter, style, etc.; and graded, as to relative importance, by means of differences of type and other devices. All this is extremely well done, and there are few faults to find with inclusions or exclusions; the gravest being, possibly, the rating of Carpaccio as a painter of the first rank and the exclusion from that rank of the vastly more important Maccaccio—a man of almost incalculable influence on those who followed him during a hundred years. In dealing with the nineteenth century, and particularly with this country, the lists become perhaps too inclusive, and the ratings become, more or less, a matter of taste, but the selections are generally intelligent. At the end of the thin volume is a sketch of the history of painting, not ill done, but no better than many to be found elsewhere.

The authors of the other little volume are "Examiners to the Board of Education," and it may fairly be considered a sort of cram book for their examinations. It consists of a series of definitions of such terms as "scroll," "all-over pattern," and the like, with illustrative examples, and is intended "to correct the frequently inexact use of terms among students." The illustrations are interesting and well chosen.

A book of a very different kind is "The Education of an Artist," by C. Lewis Hind (New York: The Macmillan Co.), in which are set forth certain episodes in the life of one Claude Williamson Shaw, an employee in a publishing house, who at the age of thirty-three determined to become a painter, tried landscape painting in Cornwall and figure-drawing in the ateliers of Paris with equal unsuccess, and finally, deciding that desire, is not equivalent to ability, settled down to writing as his medium of artistic expression. Whether it should be reckoned as fiction or as autobiography is questionable, but the book should be called "The Making of an Art Critic." For that the art-critic is the failure in art is as true as if Disraeli had not said it, and, on the whole, it is well that it should be true. It is inevitable that such an one as Claude Williamson Shaw should write about the art he has striven to practise, and it is well that those who are to write of an art should have cared enough for it to make the effort at original production in it. R. A. M. Stevenson, the best of recent art critics, is the type of the failure in art who makes the critic; and if Fromentin cannot be called a failure as an artist, he was yet much less unequivocally successful as a practitioner of painting than as a writer about it. If the critics are not to be the failures in art they must be either successful artists or no artists at all. The first seldom have the ability and seldomer the desire and the leisure to write, and the second have no business to write of a subject they know and care nothing about. The purpose of the book we take to be the binding together of a number of impressionistic and subjective criticisms of some of the masterpieces of painting in European galleries. These make pleasant, if not especially profitable, reading—Mr. Hind is no Stevenson—and afford an excuse for a wealth of illustrations, mainly well executed reproductions of celebrated pictures.

Impressionistic, also, are "Moorish Cities in Spain," by C. Gasquino Hartley (Mrs. Walter Gallichan), and "Romantic Cities of Provence," by Mona Caird, both issued by Charles Scribner's Sons. Both are books of travel, but the first is professedly one of the "Langham Series of Art Monographs," while the second may be rated as an art book in virtue of its illustrations. Both aim at the expression of moods and the reproduction of atmospheres rather than at the statement of fact or the affording of information; both are measurably successful; both possess charm. The drawings of Moorish cities by Elizabeth Hartley are markedly inferior to the reproduction of photographs in the same volume, and might better have been omitted. They are probably accurate enough, but are coarse in feeling and clumsy in execution. Their repellent rather than attractive effect is a capital example of the importance of technical excellence in matters of art. Mr. Pennell, on the contrary, could make almost any material interesting by the brilliancy of his technical treatment, and his drawings of Provence, as of so many other places, make one long to go there—perhaps in quest of disappointment. His fellow-illustrator, Edward M. Synge, is far from his equal, but he is a capable workman, not an amateur. Perhaps he neither glor-

lives nor minimizes his material, but gives us something like a fair equivalent for it in the terms of black and white design.

America is taking a place in the work of Egyptian exploration and excavation. Recently, the Metropolitan Museum in New York announced its entry upon the field, and the University of California has already published a valuable volume of reproductions of papyri fragments. Theodore M. Davis, who signs himself from Newport, but who spends a large part of his time in Egypt, has already given earnest of his enthusiasm in a sumptuous volume on Thothmes I. This year again he has published another large volume, which constitutes a valuable addition to our special literature. The scene of his labors was at Bibân el Molûk, opposite Thebes, and the particular object was the exploration of a rock-cut tomb, which proved to be the tomb of Hâtshopsitû. Mr. Davis contributes a modest introduction; Dr. Edouard Naville writes exhaustively upon "The Life and Monuments of the Queen," and Howard Carter, the inspector-general of the Service des Antiquités, furnishes a "description of the finding and excavation of the tomb." The entrance to the tomb has been known from time immemorial, but its interior had not been explored for many centuries, and no one knew whose tomb it was. It was filled with dirt and small stones which had been compacted in places into a sort of concrete. The passageways and chambers have now been cleared completely, to a total length of nearly eight hundred feet and a sloping depth of over three hundred feet. The outcome of the labor spent in excavation was the determination of the ownership of the tomb and the finding of the sarcophagus of Thothmes I., and that of his daughter, the great Queen Hâtshopsitû (Hâtshepsut: Hatasu). These magnificent memorials are now in the Cairo Museum. The only texts found, except the usual funerary formulæ engraved on the sarcophagi, were on slabs of stone intended for the facing of the final chamber, and were taken from one of the funerary writings of the Egyptians, the "Book of that which is in the Underworld." The volume is one which appeals to the layman as well as the specialist. One who wishes to see how a biography can be pieced together from small bits and scraps of information, will find an excellent example in the contribution of Dr. Naville, and the modest account given by Mr. Carter shows how little the difficult and arduous labor of the explorer may lend itself to self-laudation or personal exploitation. Both men are perfectly qualified for their tasks, Mr. Carter from his official position, and Dr. Naville from the fact that he has been long engaged in the excavation of the unique temple of Queen Hatasu, which nestled under the hills that bound the desert, hidden and forgotten beneath great masses of débris. (London: Archibald Constable & Co. Folio.)

Garrett Chatfield Pier has sent forth the first volume of the catalogue of "Egyptian Antiquities in the Pier Collection" (University of Chicago Press). It consists of specimens represented in twenty-two plates, and includes objects in glazed pottery, flint and other stones, ivory and other materials. There are pendants, or-

naments, inlays, and amulets, but the chief place is given to more than two hundred scarabs, seals, and cylinders. The catalogue describes the articles which the plates picture—a combination which would be exceedingly useful to the lay collector if the author had taken the pains to be a little more exact in his arrangement of transliteration and translation. There are some transpositions of order which must prove misleading to the novice. An instance occurs on the first page of the text. The system of transliteration is that of the school of Professor Erman of Berlin, and while it is admirably precise in notation, it cannot be pronounced. Occasionally the ordinary transliteration is also added. The scarabs and similar objects here shown are mainly historical, including names of rulers from the early dynasties to the Ptolemies. The descriptions are brief and yet sufficient for the most part, and the author has noted as far as possible both the provenance of the object and the place and date of its acquisition. The whole is a conscientious and useful piece of work, free from ostentation and creditably performed. The value of the book is increased by the excellence of the reproduction of the legends and devices on the scarabs.

Students of art history who may buy in good faith a book entitled "The Newest Light on Rembrandt," should be warned that it is merely a *jeu d'esprit* of three well-known Rembrandtists, Dr. W. Martin, Wouter Nighoff, and Dr. Hofstede de Groot. A description of the joke, which seems none of the best, may be found in the London *Athenæum* for November 3. The alleged documents were made of bits of Rembrandt's writing, pieced together, and then photographed. As a diversion between intimates this was well enough, but it seems a questionable matter of taste, not to say morals, to publish the book in the usual way, as a "Supplement" to the well-known "Urkunden."

The *Burlington Magazine* for November is more of a miscellany than usual. Lawrence Binyon's article on portrait drawings of English women, including graceful examples from Lely's hand and school, leads up to "London Leaded Steeples," which, in turn, yield to Saint Cloud porcelain, by M. L. Solon. Next we jump abruptly to Catalan primitives as elucidated by A. van de Put, and pass through Herbert Cook's "Notes on the Study of Titian"—chiefly a closer determination of the work of Francesco Vercellio—to S. M. Peartree's account of the Historical Exhibition at Nuremberg. There are other items, such as Sir Walter Armstrong's little paper on Alessandro Olivero, a practically unknown pupil of one Alvise of Bergamo, but enough has been said to show that the current number offers excellent pickings for tastes of an antiquarian sort.

At the instigation of the Liceo Moderno of Naples, a committee has been formed to arrange systematic excavations at Cumæ in Campania. Cumæ, founded in the eighth century B. C. by some Eubœan sailors, was the first Greek colony on Italian soil, and subsequently played an important part in history. As the northern outpost of Greek civilization, it was the means of spreading

Ionian influence over the whole of central Italy. Cumæ retained its supremacy in Campania until the fourth century B. C., when it was outgrown by Capua.

The excavations for the unearthing of the Roman theatre at Verona are being energetically carried on under the direction of Prof. Gherardo Ghirardini of the University of Padua and yield interesting results. The theatre occupies an area of 15,000 square metres. Soon this important monument will be freed from all the small houses which for a long time have grown up like mushrooms over the site. Only the little church of Santi Siro e Libera, which was erected in the ninth century A. D. among the imposing ruins, will be spared.

At the fall meeting of the National Academy of Design the following associates were elected: Painter, A. L. Groll; sculptor, Isidore Konti; architects, Walter Cook, Cass Gilbert, Thomas Hastings, and George B. Post; engravers, Timothy Cole and C. F. W. Mielatz.

The Art Club of Philadelphia has opened its annual exhibition. Among the artists whose pictures have attracted special attention are Albert L. Groll, Charles Warren Eaton, B. K. Howard, Mary Cassatt, Lillian Genth, Martba Walter, Paula Himmelsbach, and W. W. Gilchrist. The gold medal was awarded to Frank Benson for "Pomona," a single figure in the open air, painted with that fulness of light and color that is characteristic of his treatment of sunlight; and honorable mention was awarded to Henry Ritzenberg's portrait of his father.

Prof. Adolf Furtwängler has been appointed director of the Antiquarium in Munich. This post has been vacant since the death of Prof. W. von Christ.

Gabriel Ferrier has been elected to the vacancy at the French Académie des Beaux-Arts caused by the death of Jules Breton. The new member is a portrait painter, and a regular exhibitor at the Salon.

A new catalogue of the Museum of Old Masters at Brussels has just been issued. There was no real catalogue till M. A. J. Wauters's modest effort in 1900. During the last six years he has been engaged on the revision and enlargement of this work. The scholarly accuracy of this catalogue contrasts, according to the London press, with the new catalogue of the foreign schools at the National Gallery, which seems to be little improvement on the old. It is practically a reprint, with several misprints repeated and only a limited number of additions and alterations.

The Königswarter art collection was sold by auction at Berlin on Tuesday. A portrait of Rembrandt by himself brought \$45,000; Rubens's portrait of Consul Marsejar, \$21,000; a landscape by Cuypp, famous for its morning sun effect, \$18,000; two life-size portraits of men, by Van Dyck, \$14,000 and \$15,000; a small rococo, by Lancret, \$15,000; a Teniers landscape, bought for the Kaiser Freidrich Museum, Berlin, \$7,500; portrait of a man, by Franz Hals, \$7,250; four paintings by Adrian van Ostade, \$9,750, \$8,250, \$10,000, and \$10,500; Hobbema's "Hut on a Mountain Path," \$10,500; Canaletto's "Piazzetta," \$8,100; Reynolds's portrait of himself, \$6,000. The Italian paintings, which were not of the

highest quality, brought lower prices than the work of Dutch artists.

Science.

NATURE STUDY.

The Wit of the Wild. By Ernest Ingersoll. Illustrated. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.20 net.

Brier-Patch Philosophy. By "Peter Rabbit," interpreted by William J. Long. Illustrated by Charles Copeland. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Camp Fires in the Canadian Rockies. By William T. Hornaday. Illustrations by John M. Phillips. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3 net.

My Garden. By Eden Phillpotts. New York: Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3.75 net.

As a title, the "Wit of the Wild" smacks decidedly of the "new school," but not even the fact that Mr. Ingersoll has devoted himself more or less to the distribution of natural history by way of the Sunday supplement has weaned him from the habit of careful observation and modest statement instilled by competent scientific training. In reading him one finds no difficulty whatever in distinguishing what he has actually seen from what he merely infers, nor is he unaware that a safe inference must have a sound foundation in demonstrable fact. While far less conservative than Burroughs, for instance, in treating the borderland between instinct and reason, he is still fairly on the conservative side, and a child may read him with no danger of being seriously misled. Weasels, opossums, squirrels, and various forms of bird and sea life are considered in the present volume, which is made up from contributions to several periodicals, all of the popular type. Of particular importance with reference to present conditions of nature study are certain passages dealing with animal instincts not apparently useful under present circumstances, and hence supposed to have been retained through mere force of inherited habit, even after they have become not only useless, but positively harmful. The feigning of death by the opossum is so treated, but in all such matters Mr. Ingersoll speaks only tentatively, and with becoming caution.

"Brier-Patch Philosophy" is the *Apologia pro sua Schola* of the anti-science group of nature writers, from the pen of their high priest, the Rev. William J. Long. We use the term "anti-science" justifiably, for Mr. Long sets himself sturdily and persistently, all through his volume, against what he conceives, though often wrongly, to be the very foundation principles of scientific method in the field in question. It should perhaps be added here that in points in which he misinterprets genuine scientific method he has sometimes had plausible reason for going wrong, in the assaults which have been made upon his own methods by certain scientists who have written with more heat than caution. In questions of scientific truth a mistake on one side will never be corrected by a corresponding lurch to the other extreme. Any reader acquainted with Mr. Long's earlier work will find in this volume in gen-

eral a distinct gain in carefulness of statement. The wild animal is no longer such a marvel of the most intricate, logical, and persistent intellectual processes as the unwary reader of the "School of the Woods" must infer. "An animal thinks when he must, and then only just enough to take care of himself; after which he goes quietly back to the pleasant ways of making himself in harmony with his universe." But after all, Mr. Long is still convinced that the best way to get at an animal's brain processes under any given circumstances is to reason sympathetically from what goes on in your own head under similar conditions. In other words, he is still ready simply to assume, on purely theoretical grounds, his own view of the main point of difference between himself and the devotees of a more cautious method. In apparently elevating the reasoning powers of animals by the easy method of satirizing the unreason of men, he reaches his highest point of plausibility. But plausibility and proof are two very different things, and it is just in the failure to distinguish carefully between them that Mr. Long has always shown himself radically weak. Doubtless the very controversy which has been stirred up by Mr. Long's writings will secure from scientists themselves more careful study of such rudimentary intelligence as animal life does possess. For this quickening Mr. Long is entitled to some credit, but we may take it for granted that any substantial gains in this field will come from the application of a rigidly scientific method, and not from the bald assumption of a detailed parallelism between the mental processes of widely separated forms of sentient life.

This new book by Mr. Hornaday, director of the New York Zoological Park, takes us into the more rugged mountains of southeastern British Columbia, and has to do primarily with the study of mountain goats and sheep, though the author is too much of the old style naturalist to be at all exclusive. By far the most interesting passages in the book are those which detail the daring exploits of his companion, State Game Commissioner Phillips, of Pennsylvania, in securing the admirable photographs which adorn its pages. The process was simply to corner a wild goat on some broken ledge on the face of a mountain too steep to allow any chance of escape, either upward or downward, and then press up within a few feet of the quarry and use the camera. A misstep, a charge by the cornered animal, or any one of a half-dozen other possible mishaps, would in some of these situations have meant instant death to the daring photographer. Mr. Hornaday asserts bluntly that the danger was too great and ought not to have been incurred. On his return trip he brought five young mountain goats to the New York Zoological Park, but he is not enthusiastic as to their ability to adjust themselves to the climate of the Atlantic seaboard. A chapter on the snow-slides of the Canadian Rockies, describing their almost incredible effect in grinding down the mountain slopes and filling up the valleys, impresses vividly upon the reader the geological newness of the region. We may quote here a few sentences of description:

One incident that awakens one to a realizing sense of the majesty, and at times

the terrors, of the forces exerted in that spot is finding the brawling waters of the creek disappearing under a hill of slide-rock nearly forty feet high. The avalanches have rushed this great mass down from the Phillips Mountains and piled it clear across the valley. But for the open-work character of this great natural dam, which permits the waters of the creek to run under it, the valley above it would now be a lake, thirty feet deep at the spot where our camp stood.

Mr. Hornaday is, of course, vigorous in his advocacy of such improvements in the game laws and their administration as will permanently preserve the animal life of this region, especially the bears, sheep, goats, deer, and moose. After all, the real friends of all forms of our native wild life are not sentimentalists, who carry on an impossible propaganda against any killing at all, but the intelligent sportsmen and naturalists, who do not hesitate to indulge their pleasure in rod or gun on due occasion and in due measure.

"My Garden," with its copious illustrations, is certainly a pleasure to the eye, and we find its leaves besprinkled with a pleasant humor here and there. The general reader, however, will shy at the constant stream of technical botanical names, and most of those to whom these names really mean something will question seriously the taste of the garden-enthusiast who apparently sets no limit but those of standing-room and climate to the number of genera, species, and varieties which may allowably be crowded into one small garden. The book contains many valuable bits of information for the amateur, but it has no index. The author's particular favorite is the iris, and the three chapters which it receives must be excepted, in the main, from the criticism which we have passed upon the book as a whole.

In the *Geographical Journal* for November Major P. M. Sykes describes his recent travels in Persia, dwelling particularly on the physiography of the Lut, or great central desert, which he crossed from Yezd to Meshed. The results of the Percy Sladen expedition to the Seychelles are given by J. S. Gardiner. The discussion of his paper by members of the Royal Geographical Society is reported in full, special interest being shown in his theory that the connection of the islands and Madagascar with India was broken in the Secondary Period by the action of deep ocean currents. C. W. Hobley contributes some notes on the Turkana, an East African tribe, who are remarkable for their gigantic size and their morality. Adultery ranks first among serious offences, and cases of murder seldom or never occur. The pending boundary question of Uganda and the Congo State is discussed by Douglas W. Freshfield, in the course of which he quotes the testimony of Dr. Wollaston as to the treatment of the natives by a Belgian officer. The doctor was a member of the party sent out by the Natural History Department of the British Museum to explore the Ruwenzori region. The Belgian who commanded the escort "camped in the natives' gardens, cut down the sham-bas, at one place shot the village cow, while his soldiers looted the houses. In return for these barbarities, they rose up against him, and we suffered for it. . . . When we left Beni a week ago, they were

preparing a punitive expedition to quell these wretched people." Among the other contents are the papers on coast erosion read at the British Association meeting at York, and a brief account of what is said to be the record ascent for a woman, 23,264 feet, by Mrs. Fanny Bullock Workman, in the Nun Kun Mountains of Kashmir.

Recent work at the National Cannery Laboratory, an account of which has been published in the *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, has established the reason for the often observed discoloration of canned fruits and vegetables. The samples examined varied from actual brown or black deposit in the fruit or vegetable, through mere discoloration of the contents where they came in contact with the can, to the simple discoloration of the can itself. The discoloration indicates that a chemical change has taken place, and that another compound has been formed. A gas called hydrogen sulphide (H_2S), the same gas that is formed in rotting eggs, combines with some metallic salts to make varicolored compounds. The metals in canned goods are tin, lead from the solder, and possibly some iron. After the can is soldered, the tin and lead are chemically attacked by the acid of the fruit or vegetable, salts form, and these salts mix with the fruit or vegetable juice. Thus the oxalic or other acid of the vegetable acts on the tin and makes tin oxalate or similar salt. This action is particularly noticeable with the highly acid fruits and vegetables, such as rhubarb, but appreciable quantities of the metals are dissolved by squash, peas, and even corn. The foregoing process explains the presence of metallic salts. The hydrogen sulphide may come from one of three sources: first, improperly sterilized fruit may contain unkilld organisms—germs—capable of evolving this gas through the breaking up of proteid matter in the fruit; second, the sulphites sometimes used as preservatives may, by chemical action with the vegetable acid, form sulphurous acid, which in contact with tin produces hydrogen sulphide; third, by the prolonged action of the steam in cooking, the proteid matter of the fruit or vegetable may be broken up and hydrogen sulphide result from the decomposition. Whenever such metallic salts and hydrogen sulphide are produced they combine chemically to form a new compound. It has not yet been determined whether such small quantities of metallic salts in canned goods have a poisonous effect. Probably, however, the only result is that discoloration will make the goods less attractive in appearance and therefore less salable. The conclusions reached are that the use of sulphites as preservatives should be avoided; that, when fruits and vegetables that require long cooking are sealed, as little solder and flux as possible should be used, and that the tin plate should be of high grade and contain little or no lead.

The scientific investigation of the nature of earthquakes, which had its initiation in Japan under John Milne, has had good results. The contents of the seventy quarto volumes of Proceedings are virtually summed up by Professor Milne, in a paper recently read before the Royal Society. From the fifteen hundred observing stations reporting to the Central Meteorological Station in Tokio, it is shown that in

Japan between one and two thousand shocks occur annually, most of them at the base of its steep eastern suboceanic frontier. Fifteen seismic districts are mapped out. The observations have led to improvements in architecture in Japan.

Circulars numbered 119, 120, and 121 from Harvard College Observatory announce that in August and September nine additional photographs of Saturn, showing images of Phœbe, were obtained with the 24-inch Bruce telescope at Arequipa. The study of the distribution of variable stars by superposing a negative on a positive of a different date, has been continued this fall by Miss Henrietta S. Leavitt, with the result that she discovered thirty-one new variable stars. During an examination of photographs taken with the 1-inch Cooke lens, a new object was found, by Miss Leavitt, in the constellation Vela. The object does not appear on any plate taken before December 5, 1905, but is seen on fourteen plates taken since that date. The latest plate taken before its appearance was July 12, 1905, on which stars as faint as the magnitude 11.5 are clearly seen. In summing up the results of this study Professor Edward C. Pickering says:

The Nova shows considerable fluctuation in light during the period covered by the observations, and it is not impossible that it may again become sufficiently bright for its spectrum to be obtained. Even without such proof, there can be little doubt that the object observed is actually a nova.

Dr. Charles Lane Poor, professor of astronomy in Columbia University, announced in an address before the New York Academy of Sciences Monday evening that Frederick G. Bourne, Cornelius Vanderbilt, and others will found the New York Observatory and Nautical Museum. These men have agreed to raise an endowment and to purchase apparatus that will make the institution one of the best equipped in existence.

The Poirier bequest of 200,000 francs, left to the French Société de Géographie is to be used for a novel purpose—pensions for one-time explorers in need or for their widows. One of the first five to benefit by it is Désiré Charnay, who is now seventy-eight years old. He began on a Government mission in Mexico in 1857, and six years later, with the help of Viollet-le-Duc, published his "Cités et Ruines Américaines." Then for many years he wandered through South America, Madagascar, Java, and Australia, sometimes on the Government missions by which France encourages explorations, always writing illustrated travel articles for *Le Tour du Monde*. In 1880 Pierre Lorillard joined with the French Government in fitting him out for an extended expedition in Mexico, with rich results for museum collections and the book (1884) "Anciennes Villes du Nouveau Monde."

Finance.

TIGHT MONEY AND CURRENCY REFORM.

The publication of a plan for more elastic banknote issues coincides with renewed stringency in the money market. Such incidents as the recent deficit in the re-

serve of the national banks of this city and the 20 per cent. rate for call money will doubtless be used in urging Congress to action. Whether a defective currency system is or is not responsible for these troubles, it may easily have aggravated them.

The proposals formulated at Washington were the result of a conference between fiscal officers of the Government and committees of bankers professedly for the purpose of harmonizing the two projects known as the "Bankers' Association plan" and the "Chamber of Commerce plan." The outcome is a compromise, based mainly on the suggestions of the New York Chamber of Commerce. The agreement contemplates retention of the present form of banknote issues, secured, as heretofore, by deposit of Government bonds with the Treasury. It proposes, in addition, a "credit" or "emergency" currency without such bond security. In order, however, to prevent the retirement of the existing bond-secured circulation, and the derangement of the Government bond market through sale of the collateral, the new credit notes are to be limited, in the case of each bank, first, to 40 per cent. of its outstanding bond-secured notes, and, in case of further issues, to 12½ per cent. of capital. The first of these two instalments is to be taxed 2½ per cent.; the second 5 per cent.

It is further proposed that these credit note issues, inasmuch as they have no bond collateral behind them, shall be supported by the same cash reserve (25 per cent. in city banks and 15 in country institutions) as is required to be held against national bank deposits. This provision is altogether wise. It was, in fact, incorporated in the National Bank law during its first ten years of operation, and was abandoned, in 1874, on the single and explicit ground that the Government bonds, deposited to secure the note circulation, were a sufficient guarantee.

Public money deposited in the banks, is to bear 2 per cent. interest, but no collateral security is to be required for the deposits. This is a step beyond the Chamber of Commerce plan of 1902, which proposed the interest charge, but retained the idea of required collateral—merely enlarging the scope of acceptable securities. It is worth while to observe that in two respects our Federal Government's bank account differs from that of the British Exchequer, for instance, or even from that of New York city—both of which deposit their surplus funds in bank without requiring collateral. One is the enormous total to which, in our haphazard revenue system, the Federal surplus rises. To-day, the Government's bank deposits foot up \$135,000,000; they have ranged for six years in the neighborhood of \$100,000,000, and have been as high as \$168,000,000. The second point of difference is a consequence of the first: all national banks demand a chance at the public deposits. The responsibility of our fiscal officers would be considerably increased if they had to distribute these credit funds without asking security or special guarantee.

It is hardly to be expected that the expiring Congress, in its next short session, will act on this or any other thoroughgoing measure of currency reform. But it is also open to question whether, even with

the Sub-Treasury system and bank circulation laws reformed out-of-hand, Wall Street would promptly see an end of its money market convulsions. No serious financier imagines that it would. Neither the Treasury surplus nor restriction of bank circulation caused the disorder into which this autumn's markets have fallen. The cause is the overgranting of credit, for purely speculative purposes, by the very institutions which are now crying for relief, or for reform of the currency system. The most imperative need of the hour is a reform in the relations of fiduciary institutions to powerful Stock Exchange speculators.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Armitage, F. P. A History of Chemistry. Longmans. \$1.60 net.
 Babies' Hymnal. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
 Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania. Vol. VI., Part I. Philadelphia.
 Baucroft, Laura. The Twinkle Tales. 6 vols. Chicago: Reilly & Britton Co. 50 cents each.
 Barcheller, Tryphosa Bates. Glimpses of Italian Court Life. Donoheday, Page & Co.
 Beebe, C. William. The Log of the Sun. Henry Holt & Co.
 Belasco, David, and Chas. A. Byrne. Book of Fairy Tales. The A. B. Beuesch Co.
 Bierer, Everard. The Evolution of Religions. Putnam's. \$2 net.
 Blane, William. The Silent Land and Other Poems. London: Elliot Stock.
 Blind and the Deaf, The, 1900. Washington: Government Printing Office.
 Bradley, Will. Peter Poodle: Toy Maker to the King. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50 net.
 Cairns, D. S. Christianity in the Modern World. A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$1.25 net.
 Chadwick, French Ensor. Causes of the Civil War. Harpers. \$2 net.
 Cirkel, August. Looking Forward. Chicago: Looking Forward Publishing Co.
 Constantine, E. G. Marine Engineers and How to Become One. D. Van Nostrand Co. \$2 net.
 Crissey, Forrest. The Making of an American School-Teacher. Chicago: C. M. Barnes Co. 50 cents net.
 D'Alme, E. E. Fournier. The Electron Theory. Longmans. \$1.50 net.
 Dawson, Coningsby William. The Worker and Other Poems. Macmillan Co. \$1.25 net.

Deland, Margaret. The Story of a Child in Old Chester. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.
 Elliot's Scenes of Clerical Life. Macmillan Co. \$2.
 Elliot, G. F. Scott. The Romance of Plant Life. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
 Ellis, Edward S. Lost in the Forbidden Land. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co.
 Emmanuel, Walter. The Dogs of War. Scribners. \$1.25.
 English, Douglas. "Woe, Tin'rous Beastes." Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$1.50 net.
 Evans, Edwin. Tchaikovsky. Dutton. \$1.25.
 Eyahu, Wilhelm and Carrie. The Profession of Teaching Music. Leipzig.
 Fenu, G. Mauville. "Tention! Philadelphia: Lippincott.
 Fontana-Russo, Luigi. Politica Commerciale. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.
 Furey, Francis T. New and Complete History of the World. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co.
 Galsworthy, John. The Man of Property. Putnam's. \$1.50.
 Harrison, Peleg D. The Stars and Stripes and Other American Flags. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$3 net.
 Hill, George Birkbeck. Letters of. Arranged by Lucy Crump. Longmans.
 Hillis, Newell Dwight. The Fortune of the Republic. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.20 net.
 Historical Records and Studies. Vol. IV. United States Catholic Historical Society.
 Hodges, George, and John Reichert. The Administration of an Institutional Church. Harpers. \$3 net.
 Houston, Edwin J. The Young Prospector. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. \$1.50.
 Innes, Charles H. Air Compressors and Blowing Engines. D. Van Nostrand Co. \$2 net.
 Irwin, Wallace. Random Rhymes and Odd Numbers. Macmillan Co. \$1.50.
 Kleiser, Greenville. How to Speak in Public. Funk & Wagnalls Co. \$1.25 net.
 Lane's Arabian Nights. Edited by S. Lane-Poole. Macmillan Co. \$1.10 net.
 Lawson, W. R. American Finance. Edinburgh: Wm. Blackwood & Sons. 6s. net.
 Lytton, Robert, First Earl of. Personal and Literary Letters. Edited by Lady Betty Balfour. 2 vols. Longmans. \$3 net.
 Macgregor, D. H. Industrial Combination. Macmillan Co. \$2.50 net.
 Mackail, J. W. Select Epigrams from the Greek Anthology. Longmans.
 Maeterlinck, Maurice. The Swarm. Translated by Alfred Sutro. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.20 net.
 Meyer, Ernst von. A History of Chemistry. Translated by George McGowan. Macmillan Co. \$4.25 net.
 Michael, W. Cromwell. 2 vols. Berlin: Ernst Hofmann & Co.
 Molloy, Fitzgerald. Sir Joshua and His Circle. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$6.50 net.
 Moore, George. Memoirs of My Dead Life. Appleton. \$1.50 net.
 Morgan, C. Lloyd. The Interpretation of Nature. Putnam's. \$1.25 net.
 Nelson's Encyclopaedia. Edited by F. M. Colby and G. Sandeman. Vol. VIII. Thomas Nelson & Sons.

Nettleship, R. L. Memoir of Thomas Hill Green. Longmans. \$1.50 net.
 Noble, Pierre de. Versailles and the Trilans. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$3.50 net.
 North, Leigh. Predecessors of Cleopatra. Broadway Publishing Co.
 Old Roof-Tree Letters of Ishbel to her Half-Brother Mark Latimer. Longmans. \$1.50 net.
 Onian, C. The Political History of England. Vol. IV. Longmans.
 Owen, William B., and Edgar J. Goodspeed. Hæmeric Vocabularies. University of Chicago.
 Parkhurst, John A. Research in Stellar Photography. Washington: Carnegie Institute.
 Peck, Harry Thurston. Twenty Years of the Republic. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$2.50 net.
 Prose You Ought to Know. Edited by John R. Howard. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.50 net.
 Racine's Les Plaideurs. Edited by Charles H. C. Wright. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 60 cents.
 Reid, Stuart. Life and Letters of the First Earl of Durham. 2 vols. Longmans. \$10 net.
 Rhodes, James Ford. History of the United States. Vols. VI. and VII. Macmillan. \$2.50 net.
 Rome. Described by Great Writers. Edited by Esther Singleton. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.60 net.
 Schuyler, Montgomery. Westward the Course of Empire. Putnam's. \$1.25 net.
 Shakespeare, William. The Complete Works of. Edited by W. J. Craig. Henry Frowde.
 Shaw, G. Bernard. Dramatic Opinions and Essays. 2 vols. Brentano's.
 Shaw, Bernard. Three Plays for Puritans. Brentano's. \$1.25 net.
 Sheldon, Mary L. A Sentiment in Verse for Every Day in the Year. Philadelphia: S. Burns Weston. 35 cents.
 Smith, Gipsy. His Life and Work. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1 net.
 Somerville, E. O., and Martin Ross. Some Irish Yesterdays. Longmans. \$1.50.
 Stevens, N. M. Studies in Scramatogenesis. Part II. Washington: Carnegie Institute.
 Sweethearts Always: Poems of Love. Selected by Janet Madison. Chicago: Reilly & Britton Co.
 Thielton-Dyer, T. F. Folk-Lore of Women. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
 Thomas, Henry Wilton. The Sword of Wealth. Putnam's. \$1.50.
 Thurston, Clara Bell. The Jingle of a Jap. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co.
 Tout, T. F. An Advanced History of Great Britain. Longmans. \$1.50.
 Upton, George P. The Staudard Operas. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
 Waller, Mary E. Through the Gates of the Netherlands. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$3 net.
 Washington, Henry S. The Roman Comagmatic Region. Washington: Carnegie Institute.
 Webb, Sidney and Beatrice. English Local Government. Longmans.
 Whiting, Lillian. The Land of Enchantment. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$2.50 net.
 Whyte, Christina Gowans. The Story Book for Girls. Macmillan Co. \$1.50.
 Wilcox, Henry S. A Strange Flaw. Chicago: Thompson & Thomas.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 29, 1906.

The Week.

The German Ambassador's appeal, at the New York Chamber of Commerce dinner, last week, for a square tariff deal must not be allowed to fall on deaf ears. His exposition of the great growth of the trade between the two countries should rouse to action even those who can be moved only by self-interest. A vast amount of exploration and exploitation would have to be done in South America before our trade there could hope to reach the sum of \$350,000,000, which represents the business to be done between Germany and the United States this year. Shall this be deliberately decreased? Moreover, the amount of money each country is permanently investing in the other is steadily increasing. As a market for the sale of American bonds Germany has long attracted the attention of our capitalists. To meet the growing demand, a new bank in Berlin has just been started which will make a specialty of American securities and furnish accurate and up-to-date information to any German investor who thinks of purchasing our stocks and bonds. Every such enterprise will be hindered if there is a failure to agree on a reciprocity treaty. Continue on the present basis of unequal treatment we cannot. We must either improve matters by a new treaty or find ourselves at swords' points; for Germany, if the existing *modus vivendi* is not renewed or bettered, will be forced by her other treaty arrangements to discriminate against us. Every manufacturers' association and chamber of commerce in the country ought to be fighting for the very thing that Ambassador Sternburg asks.

That there is to be a determined effort to pass the Ship Subsidy bill at the coming session of Congress is now apparent. The President will be urged to follow up the speeches of Messrs. Root and Shaw with a recommendation in his annual message. In other words, the Republican leaders have failed to read the signs of the times. They are as fatuously disregarding the warning of the candidacies of Hearst and Moran as are our railway presidents. Neither of the two Secretaries seems to realize that the unrest among the voters is due to a desire to strike at special privileges. The ship-subsidy measure is nothing else than a bill to give special privileges to a few citizens, to induce them to embark in a business which would not pay for itself without Gov-

ernment aid. This sort of thing creates Socialists as quickly as any policy that can be devised. If it is defensible, there are plenty of exporters engaged in risky enterprises that are equally entitled to Government aid. Though they do not send the ships abroad, they do the cargoes which must be carried. In one aspect, the ship-subsidy campaign is ill-timed. The Commissioner of Navigation has just reported that if the present rate of construction is not checked by strikes or delays in steel, the output of our shipyards will be the largest in half a century. This is hardly a reason why the shipyards should be allowed to help themselves out of the public Treasury.

President Roosevelt addressed the Porto Ricans as "fellow-citizens." This is technically incorrect. They are not citizens of the United States—they are only subjects. Failure to give them a national status has been one of the most shocking cases of neglect of duty by Congress. Every Porto Rican travelling abroad is forced to undergo the humiliation of declaring himself a man without a country. "Are you an American?" "No." "Then you must still be a Spaniard?" "No." What, then, are you?" "I am a citizen of Porto Rico." Mr. Roosevelt showed that he was aware of this discrimination against one class of people under the American flag, and promised to do what he could to have it removed. He has before urged Congress to do the Porto Ricans this elementary justice, but thus far in vain. Let us hope that even the short session of Congress will not be too short to remedy this mean treatment of our island wards. But it has been notoriously hard from the beginning to do what President McKinley called "our plain duty" to Porto Rico. As a witty woman said at the time, the duty was so plain that it was actually repulsive.

We have been anxious to see what sign of encouragement the Home Market Club would detect in the result of the late election, with its defeats and reduced majorities for leading "standpatters." At last week's banquet, James W. Van Cleave, president of the National Association of Manufacturers, suggested a truly comforting line of thought. "I am not," he said, "an immediate revisionist, or a standpatter. I stand between the two. And I feel, especially since the election, that a large majority of the people are with me." The programme he proposes for the reconciliation of divergent views is as follows: Congress is soon to pass an

act creating a tariff commission like the one of 1882. Then all through the short session of the Fifty-ninth Congress and the long session of the Sixtieth, that commission is to pore over the Dingley schedules and take testimony as to what business interests desire. Then, and not till then, namely, in the summer of 1908, the Republican party is to promise to revise the tariff. The people will vote in November for the Republican candidates, of course; and some time after March 4, 1909, the new President will call Congress together and the sacred schedules will be touched at last. The suggestion differs from that of the "standpatter" only in deferring hope definitely for three years instead of talking vaguely about "next year" or the "near future." It differs from that of the sincere revisionist in that the latter would have the preliminary inquiry made in the regular manner by the Ways and Means and Finance Committees of House and Senate, and have the new tariff law signed by President Roosevelt, and not his unknown successor. President Van Cleave's proposal deserves the old lady's characterization as "a middle extreme."

The insistence by the junior Senator-elect from Arkansas that what the United States Senate needs is a "good, old-fashioned row," is not for the public to pass over lightly. We have heard about many things that the upper house needs: better men, a higher sense of patriotism, less corporation money, less talk, election by the people, publicity for executive sessions, a larger membership, a smaller membership, a redistributed membership, an age limit, a closure rule, the loss of control over appointments, with a gain of prestige by the House. But "Jeff" Davis now asserts that the real way to regeneration is through strife. He is going to tell the corporation-ridden graybeards just what he thinks of them, and right to their faces, too. What is more, he is not going to spend a half-hour in bowing and apologizing every time he touches a colleague on the raw. A little more than ten years ago something along the same line was said by another new Southern Senator, every bit as aggressive as Vardaman or Davis, and with considerably more of a record than either one of them for stirring up affairs at home. The question is, Will our latter-day fire-eaters go the way of Tillman and the radicals who have preceded him? For six years to come they will sit daily in a company of sweet-faced old gentlemen and impassive-faced old gentlemen who never lose their tempers, and never applaud the good things in each other's speeches.

Can flesh and blood maintain righteous and flaming wrath in the face of it? Peer Gynt, fighting Bojgen in the dark, had an easy time by comparison. "Shaking up the Senate" is, in fact, fitly to be compared with that other achievement attempted about as often by new members, "reviving its oratorical traditions." The boy orator is really half-brother to the shaker-up of dry bones; one expects to startle and amaze the Senate by what he says, the other by the way he says it. The Senate is used to both; it will not be ruffled by either. And if the new member is a sensible person, he will plunge into the routine of committee work as Tillman and Beveridge have done, and presently find himself with a reputation among his critical fellows.

Edward H. Harriman's statement that "the widest possible distribution of ownership of railway properties is a most desirable thing," will be applauded off-hand in many quarters, though there is another side of the question. In theory, no one would endorse the personal ownership of the great majority of shares in the Union Pacific, with its numerous subsidiary properties, by Mr. Harriman. Still less would people be pleased by the announcement that Mr. Rockefeller, for instance, had in his own name all the shares of two or three competing trans-continental railways. The contrasting ideal, which the public would accept with the most complacency, would be such distribution of ownership, in safe hands, as is common in many smaller corporations, where no officer or "insider" holds, personally or through combinations and affiliations, such a preponderating portion in the stock that he cannot be unseated; and where, accordingly, officers and managers can be called to account. We doubt, however, if this is exactly the sort of "distribution" which Mr. Harriman had in mind. Nobody who is "running" a great corporation to suit himself and his immediate associates, would approve such an arrangement. Railway men are aware that the most convenient ownership is the holding of shares by a great number of individuals widely separated, none of them possessing enough to make his voice of importance in an annual meeting. If votes for directors are cast at random, with the sole alternative of giving proxies to the existing management, that management can readily dispense with such an empty formality as actually owning a controlling interest. If this lesson had not been learned before, our life insurance companies would have taught it. The defect of this "widest possible distribution" is that it leaves a very slight check on the errors or misdeeds of a virtually self-perpetuating executive.

Peary's own account of his winning

the farthest north shows the achievement to have been possible through an extraordinary combination of good luck and good management. The remarkable dash from the Roosevelt would have been in vain if at the last the condition of the ice had not permitted a matter of 130 miles to be made in a few days—an almost unexampled feat on the polar ice; and it is fair to add that the story of the new record would never have been told if Peary's associates, equipment, and personal leadership had not been of the best. Indeed, the journey back over the crumbling ice to northern Greenland constitutes the most thrilling part of the narrative. Of the fifty-two days spent between the last land and the new farthest north, twelve were lost through storm or open water. In about 290 miles of actual sledging, the party, numbering at the last seven men and six teams, consumed forty days. Provisions were failing and the weaker dogs were being fed to the stronger, when the great opportunity appeared. The six days' storm, which had drifted the party seventy miles eastward to near longitude 65° west, had also beaten the snow into the crevices of the ice pack. Then an extraordinary march of more than thirty miles was made in a single day. A few days later the new record was made after a continuous march of twenty-four hours, ending on the noon of April 21 last. It is evident that, had not circumstances favored this final spurt, it would have been quite impossible to pass Nansen's mark of 86° 14', not to mention the Duke of Abruzzi's 86° 33'. On the other hand, it was a kind of luck upon which the gallant Peary had reckoned, and by which he profited with foresight and daring. The history of Arctic exploration has no finer chapter. Yet the bearing of this expedition upon Polar exploration generally can only be surmised. It is clear that without the delay of twelve days on the march northwards which depleted the stock of provisions, and with equally favorable conditions at the end, Peary might readily have got, say, a hundred miles nearer the pole. When it is recalled how far North the Fram drifted, it would seem that a dash with sledges from such a floating base might, under fortunate circumstances, bring some happy explorer within considerably less than 200 miles of the pole. The getting back will always be the pinch, though some emulator of the unfortunate Andree may yet do the trick by balloon.

Dr. Algernon S. Crapsey's letter of withdrawal from the Episcopal Church is written in excellent taste and with deep religious feeling. Any Church would be the poorer for losing such a man. Such gifts as his are too rare in any communion. He makes it clear that

he was seeking neither notoriety nor martyrdom, but was, out of a sense of duty to others as well as himself, challenging "an authoritative and deliberate decision" of the Church whether his views were permissible. Having now got it, he retires with dignity; but how can he say, as he does, that the judgment against him "affects no person" but himself, and urge the "hundreds of clergymen and thousands of laymen in the Episcopal Church who have reached the same conclusions that I have" to stay in the Church, where, Dr. Crapsey alleges, their "position is just as tenable as it ever was"? This seems to us to be in the interest neither of ecclesiastical order nor of sound morals. Every clergyman must, of course, settle the question with his own conscience; but the idea that the progress of truth or the reform of the creed can best be effected by remaining in a morally ambiguous position, is one to which we find it difficult to subscribe.

The so-called honor system in colleges has been much discussed of late. Championship of the system, it is to be noted, comes largely from the South. Many Southern professors declare that not only in examinations, but deportment generally, Southern students are bound by the honor of a gentleman. A similar sentiment, we are assured, frowns upon and keeps down horse-play in the classroom, "ragging" professors, and other demonstrations that in too many colleges of the North are regarded as lawful recreations. The South, it is plain, is exceptionally blessed. Where a clear-cut student sentiment exists in support of a high code of ethics, faculties would be foolish, or worse, to run counter to it. The existence of such a sentiment, as a fixed tradition, is evidently far different from the deliberate attempt to create it. President Hyde's remarks in the *Nation* of November 15, for instance, apply not so much to the Southern institution, as to the honor system as consciously introduced in the North. He is right, we feel, in doubting if the results of the propaganda have fulfilled its promise. The honor system in the North is weak precisely where the liberal régime in the South is strong—namely, in an aggressive student sentiment to enforce it. President Hyde recalls that in a college in which evidence of cheating is referred to a student tribunal, no evidence except that of the blue-books has ever been presented. This means either that for several years no student has ever seen a college mate cheating, or that the express agreement to report and discipline offenders has been persistently disregarded. So apparent is it that a certain amount of cheating has gone on that advocates of the system often rest merely on the assertion that there is less cheating, after all, than there was when the activity of

proctors made it a kind of sport. If this be the case, it is clear that student sentiment remains pretty much what it was, and that the adoption of a system has not inculcated an effective sense of honor; it has nowhere evoked a public feeling so tonic and formidable as that which prevails south of Mason and Dixon's line.

Prince Bülow's second-day speech in the Reichstag passed from the general subject of German foreign policy to the means of carrying it out—the diplomatic service. He diverged into a witty discussion of the "new diplomacy," made necessary by modern developments. He said that he was in the habit of advising young diplomatists to take for their model Alcibiades. He was "intellectual with the Athenians, ate black broth with the Spartans, and wore flowing garments among the Persians." Yet, what help, in the actual transaction of his business, does a diplomatic representative gain from being thought a jolly good fellow, or—in the United States—from having, what foreign nations now seem to regard as indispensable, an American wife? Not much, we think. Of course, the personal and social advantage is obvious. We all like approachable and interesting foreigners, whether of diplomatic rank or not; but because Sternburg lets Roosevelt beat him at tennis, are we to knuckle down to Germany in the tariff controversy? Because M. Jusserand is scholarly and affable, and Madame Jusserand charming, are we the less strenuously to protect Lodge's bogus jewelry from competition with the real French article? Even if the suggestion that Mr. Bryce be made British Ambassador were carried out—and surely this country should receive him with open arms—should we allow his great personal popularity to weigh in settling the fisheries dispute? The expounders of the new diplomacy are mixing up two different things. An ambassador represents his own people. Therein, it is of the highest importance that he should be agreeable, friendly, captivating—what you will. But he also represents his Government. That is a business capacity. In the questions arising out of it, personal charm has to give way to force of reason and the true interest of the two countries. Representatives of one people to another have a useful function; the more gracious and sympathetic they are, the better. But for an insinuating Alcibiades-diplomat to presume upon his personal acceptability as a ground for demanding governmental favors, would be much like an amusing guest at a dinner suddenly asking his host for a loan.

Berlin finds it difficult to predict what

new phase the racial struggle in Prussian Poland may assume in consequence of the sudden death of Dr. Florian von Stablewski, Archbishop of Posen and Gnesen, which occurred on Sunday. As an uncompromising champion of the Poles in their resistance to the complete Germanization of the schools, he made himself extremely obnoxious to the Prussian Government. Nevertheless, to force the election of a German Archbishop in succession to Dr. Stablewski, as the *Kölnische Zeitung* strongly urges, might only add to the bitterness of the conflict. On the part of the Government, it would be carrying the war into the enemy's camp by threatening the very citadel of Polish influence and aspirations—namely, the Catholic Church. What Catholicism means to the Poles is well expressed by the Paris *Temps*, which speaks particularly of the situation in Russian Poland, but makes no exception of Posen: "People are converted, not to Catholicism, but to the 'Polish faith.'" Entrance into the bosom of the Roman Church is so little an act of religion, and so largely a political step, that it used to be common to hear Poles of the middle classes say: "Were our country to achieve its freedom tomorrow, we, too, could cry, *Los von Rom*; but the Roman Church is our great weapon in the struggle for the preservation of our national life."

The decision of the German naval authorities to use turbine engines hereafter is remarkable, because up to this time their prejudice against turbines has been strong. A complete reversal of judgment has taken place, and it will be interesting to see if the German merchant fleet will now indulge in vessels thus propelled. Hitherto both the North German Lloyd and the Hamburg-American companies have stuck by the reciprocating engine. England alone has gone in for the turbines whole-souled. In this her procedure has been characteristic of the spirit of the Admiralty for some decades. Once convinced that an invention is valuable, it invests in the device with British thoroughness. This was true of the adoption of the torpedo boat and torpedo-boat destroyer. With the submarine the Admiralty delayed until France had a big start; but, once the conversion was effected, the building of submarines went on with astonishing rapidity. With the turbines England again took the lead, and it will be years before any other country has a turbine battleship like the Dreadnought. At Washington the authorities are inexcusably indifferent to submarines and torpedo work of all kinds, being blinded by the craze for monster battleships. And the turbine engine has few, if any, friends in the Navy Department—not any more than had the original Monitor, and other inventions.

Witte *redivivus* is bulking large nowadays against the flat background of a characterless bureaucratic ministry—so much so that the reactionaries are demanding his expulsion from the country. While Russia was still suffering from the violent after-effects of the dissolution of the Duma, Witte was ill at a German watering place. With the establishment of comparative calm in the empire, his tonsils are cured, and there is some rumor of his being considered for the post of Governor-General of Poland. Why Witte should have become the object of such universal detestation is both easy and hard to understand. The reactionaries hate him as the author of Constitutionalism, and, in fact, as the originator of that industrial policy which has been the principal factor in the upbuilding of a revolutionary workingmen's party. The Liberal elements were outraged by his attempt to mutilate popular representation on the eve of the meeting of the Duma. And he encountered the common fate of the trimmer in times of stress. Nevertheless, there is no denying that as an opportunist he has displayed remarkable skill, and he is still the only person in Russia that has accomplished anything definite and big. It is not impossible that with time remembrance of his rather devious policy with regard to the Duma will fade, while the liberties he has been instrumental in gaining will plead for him when these liberties are in danger of submersion.

Pope Pius has approved a Diocesan Association organized by the Cardinal-Archbishop of Bordeaux, and it is announced that the French Government will regard this body as a "cult association" under the Separation Act. If so, the way is open to reconciliation and to putting an end to the present unseemly squabbling over the inventory of church possessions. As in many cases involving personal dignity, the compromise has a comic aspect. Archbishop Lecot undoubtedly reports to Pius X. that the Diocesan Association is organized under the old law, and in flat defiance of the impious Separation Act. Minister Briand, on the other hand, reports to M. Clemenceau that a cult association has been formed under the Separation Act. Moreover, the Diocesan Association which the Vatican accepts seems to be, but for the name, the *association fabricienne* which, though recommended by the French episcopate, was summarily rejected by the Vatican. In fine, the quarrel has very largely had to do with names. It has been so serious, however, that one must heartily welcome an agreement if merely on the basis that the State is to say tweedledum contentedly, while the Church persistently intones tweedledee.

SECRETARY ROOT ON SOUTH AMERICAN TRADE.

Secretary Root's second speech at Kansas City dropped from diplomacy into trade, as was natural in an address to a Commercial Congress. Doubtless, many members looked upon his recent South American trip as that of a glorified drummer, and expected a report from him accordingly. They did not get that, but they did get a discussion of the whole question of our trade relations with the republics to the south of us, marked by the breadth of view which characterizes most of the Secretary's public utterances. We say this, though from some of his conclusions at Kansas City we strongly dissent.

His argument was for subsidizing steamship lines to South America, but he first stated some of the antecedent obstacles to our developing a large South American trade, and did it with a fairness seldom met with in the speeches of subsidy-advocates. Mr. Root frankly admitted that American manufacturers and exporters have gone about the business of catering to the South American market in a blundering and back-handed fashion. They have not been willing to suit their goods to the customer's demand. They have taken no pains to get agents who speak his language or know his ways. They have not been ready to adapt themselves to his usual system of credits; they have established no banking facilities of their own; have not thought of investments as far-reaching and designed to secure slow though increasing returns in enlarged trade, but have wanted huge profits at once, or have turned away in disgust; they have had, finally, nothing but contempt for the men whom they expect to buy their wares. All this Mr. Root admits. It is, indeed, an old story. The very consular reports have for years been filled with it. The Secretary thinks that, in time, we Americans will learn to "do our business abroad as we have done it at home, with force and energy," but concedes that, as respects South America at least, we have not yet learned how.

The truth is, and it is a fair inference from Secretary Root's admissions, that what we have to deal with in this matter is a state of mind, more than a state of trade. American policy has too long and too successfully discouraged attention to foreign commerce. The habit of disregarding it has at last become ingrained. When the amiable Dingley, framer of the fiscal law under which we live, could express the wish that the oceans surrounding us were of fire, so that no ships could cross, how can the average American be expected to give intelligent attention to trade beyond the seas? In fact, he has not done so. The chief reason why we have not done better in South American trade

is that we have not thought it worth bothering about. All our energies and plans have been concentrated upon developing our own vast territory—the greatest area in the world over which absolute free trade prevails. Upon that we have been taught to fix our eyes exclusively; while bidden by all that is patriotic to keep foreigners off it, and to have as little to do with them as possible.

Such an inveterate attitude cannot be changed in a day, though influences are, it is true, at work to change it. We are accumulating capital. We are multiplying our power of production, at the same time that we are reaching the limit of our own lands available for settlement. When the crest of our present wave of prosperity is passed, with its unprecedented demand at home, we shall undoubtedly be driven, by necessity, to turn our minds to the cultivation of the foreign field. The main thing is to get American business men and investors seriously to bend their faculties to the subject. When they do, and the preliminary mental difficulty is overcome, we shall not hear so much of the invincible obstacle in the lack of mere ships.

On the question of ship-subsidies itself, Mr. Root did not appear to have informed himself with his customary care. He says, for example, that Germany has abandoned the policy of free ships. Since when? Within the year, one great German liner was turned out of an English shipyard. Mr. Root also refers to the tariff provision allowing substantially free importation of ship-building materials. If he had read the testimony in the Senate Committee report, he would have found that, in practice, this law is entirely illusory. Yet the Secretary is wholly frank in granting that the protective policy has been disastrous to our shipping interests. He even defends a subsidy as but due "compensation for injuries inflicted upon American shipping by American laws." It might occur to others first to remove those injuries. But that is not the way of the Socialist legislator, known as a protectionist. Having taken the taxpayers' money to give one industry an unfair advantage, his remedy is, not to undo that wrong, but to commit another by giving any one who complains (if he has political power enough) a share of the pickings.

Mr. Root speaks only of a ship-subsidy for the South American trade. But does he imagine that the Ship Trust will allow money to be voted for that, without insisting that it be given ten times as much? On that point the Secretary might have consulted the pending bill to advantage. And as for his idea that a subsidized South American line would instantly create business, has he forgotten the old scandals of the Pacific Mail subsidy, and the complete failure of the

subsidized steamers to Brazil to promote any business except that of the lobbyist and Congressional corruptionist?

A "PROGRESSIVE" PARADISE.

In the recent borough elections in London, something like a political revolution occurred. The "Progressives," who for some years had been carrying everything before them, were unexpectedly routed. Control of borough after borough was won by the "Moderates"; and it is confidently predicted that this result foreshadows a similar defeat for the Progressives in the coming elections to the London County Council. The Progressives are, of course, the advanced municipal experimenters, of socialistic leanings, in close alliance with the Labor Party and affiliated generally with the Liberals; the Moderates act with the Conservatives. Thus this upset in the boroughs may have important political consequences of a national sort. Mr. Balfour has, in fact, hailed it as a sign of a speedy Conservative revival; the wisest Liberals do not deny its significance.

Now, what was the cause of this marked change of heart in London voters? Tax-bills. The management of the affairs of the boroughs was becoming fearfully extravagant. Lavish borrowing was the order of the day, to keep up with the costly application of socialistic theories. The rates were going up, and were bound to go much higher, unless a halt was called; and the rate-payers did, in the election, imperatively call a halt. In several of the boroughs there were also scandals, the exposure of which had something to do with the revulsion against the Progressives. On the demand of aggrieved rate-payers, an official inquiry was made into the administration of the Poor Law in Poplar. This is a metropolitan union signalized by Charles Booth ten years ago as the least pauperized of the ten which he grouped as "specially devoted to manufacture and trade." To-day, as the investigation showed, it is the most pauperized; while it has incurred so great a debt that there is now no sufficient security for further loans.

How this unhappy change was brought about, is shown in detail by the report of the chief inspector of the Local Government Board, J. S. Davy. It has just been issued as a Blue Book. The story is a depressing one of bad management, careless waste, and use of the public funds in a way to extend the very evils to be checked. This condition of affairs is the more significant in that William Crooks, the well-known Labor member of Parliament, was one of the Poplar guardians. Thus it was under the most Progressive auspices that the paupers have increased fourfold, while the rates have jumped up almost as

ominously. Early in 1904, the relieving officers had orders to grant outdoor relief to all applicants without insisting upon a labor test. The result was that the weekly cost rose from \$450 to \$1,500, though Inspector Davy reports that "there is good ground for thinking that the high figures of relief were artificial, and in no way represented the real need."

Many cases of flagrant abuse were unearthed. A typical instance is that of a certain Mrs. Carey, one of a deputation of unemployed women whom Premier Balfour received a year ago. She asserted that her husband was a dock laborer, seldom employed more than two days a week. They had six small children; and Mrs. Carey declared: "If something is not done, we shall have to eat one another, or else there will be bloodshed." Relief was given to this family by the guardians without investigation; but the official inquiry brought out the fact that Carey had earned \$14 during the week preceding his wife's call upon Mr. Balfour, and that his average weekly earnings during 1904 and 1905 were nearly \$10.

Management of the Poplar workhouse was so lax as practically to put a premium upon being a tramp. A generous dietary was provided—better, as Mr. Crooks admitted, than that of the self-supporting laborer. Tobacco and beer were freely supplied. This was against all rules, but the irregularity was got over by means of a medical certificate, saying that, in many cases, beer was necessary for reasons of health. However, when the medical examiner was called before the inspector, he testified that so much pressure was put upon him by the guardians that he could not refuse to give the certificate. But after the official inquiry, such certified beer almost ceased to exist. This may have been hard on the inmates, but it at least removed temptation from the guardians, some of whom had been seen on the workhouse premises drunk.

Poplar had also a farm-colony in Essex, where a hundred acres were procured and accommodation provided for 150 men. A summary of the report adds:

They had three meat meals a day, with allowances of tobacco; and, as a farm of that size cultivated by plough in the ordinary way would not occupy more than four or five men, only spade labor was employed, the land being dug over and over again to give some pretence of work, however useless. The discipline was very lax; the chief constable of Essex complained of the conduct of the inmates, many of whom had convictions against their names.

Naturally, the experiment proved a total failure.

Such a concrete experience as this teaches its own lessons, and asks its unanswerable questions. The hardest of these is, "Who will pay the bills of

Socialism?" That its cost will be great, is admitted by its more intelligent advocates. Ordinary taxes will not begin to cover it. Hence, as John Graham Brooks has pointed out in the November *Atlantic*, English Socialists are frankly going over to the plan of confiscatory taxes. They propose to take anywhere from 10 to 15 per cent. of the fortunes of the rich, who ought to be duly thankful that anything at all is left them. But an act of Parliament will first be necessary, and if the confiscators cannot even elect a borough council, how are they going to get a majority in the House of Commons?

THE FOOTBALL SEASON.

The football season just ending has been distinguished by a great improvement in the game from the point of view of both players and spectators. The new rules have been successful in "opening up" the play, in giving larger opportunity to the individual player, and in making it possible for those watching to follow the ball as in early days of American football. The forward pass and the onside kick have added an interest and necessitated a skill lacking of late years. Most important of all, brains are now at a premium, instead of brawn. The fat, unwieldy players of a year ago have given way to lighter and more active men. It is no longer a question of battering-ram line-plunges, with both teams piled upon the man with the ball, or of wearing out opponents by incessant attacks upon one or two players. It takes head-work and strategy now to win, as was clearly proved at New Haven on Saturday. There the Harvard team, perfect in its line defence and superior in the old-fashioned football and in kicking, was easily defeated by the daring and the excellent tactics of the Yale eleven—wonderfully trained in the new rules by the master-coach, Walter Camp.

More than that, the spirit of the players has somewhat improved; they have behaved this year slightly more like gentlemen. This advance is not due to the extra official provided by the new rules, because in most games both captains have declined to avail themselves of the added umpire, a bad example which Harvard and Yale did not follow on Saturday. There is such need of this extra umpire that his presence should be made compulsory, if only to enforce the new and complicated rules. On every one of the large college teams, this year, save Cornell's, one or more men have been disqualified for foul play, which in past years would have been overlooked. Nevertheless, we must admit that this season, at least, there have been reported no flagrant cases of biting, gouging, or maiming. But, as F. S. Bangs of Columbia has pointed out, there is still room for improvement.

So far as accidents go, according to the Chicago *Tribune's* figures, the death roll has been decreased to eleven, while the serious injuries have fallen from 159 to 104. It is, of course, impossible to say whether the total number of players this year was greater or less, but probably the proportion of serious injuries has been smaller. It seems to be established, too, that the elimination of mass-play has decreased the risk of accidents to schoolboys, among whom still occur most of the deaths. That the danger of accident will disappear so long as men must come into violent personal contact is not to be expected. A bad fall while running in a broken field may be quite as disastrous as being doubled up under ten or fifteen excited players. But the hazard has been slightly reduced.

The general objections to football remain unchanged. President Eliot has noted that the game has been bettered; but he welcomed the opportunity afforded by the recent dinner to the Harvard crew to declare again for athletics of which the rules do not have to be changed from year to year. Lawn tennis and rowing are, in his opinion, the only sports fit for intercollegiate contests. He is, moreover, reported this week as saying that it would do Harvard "no harm to break off athletic relations with Yale, or even with every other university"—a sentiment in which we most heartily concur. To our minds, Columbia has lost nothing and gained much by her abolition of intercollegiate football, and we trust that her governing bodies will not allow themselves to be influenced by the clamor of the undergraduates for the restoration of the combats.

Changes in rules, more umpires, stronger insistence upon bona-fide students as players, are all well enough. Yet they do not touch the real vice of intercollegiate matches—the utter absorption of the undergraduates, the spectacular character of the struggles, the huge money stake, the newspaper notoriety—in short, the total disproportion of athletics to studies in the college world. Faculties and athletic committees have meekly submitted to the domination of the athletes; the scandals about professionalism, about hired outsiders, and financial mismanagement, are all too well known to bear repetition here. These evils must be grappled with and eradicated, for they are clear evidence that the great intercollegiate contests no longer serve the purpose for which they were intended—the stimulating of the mass of undergraduates to beneficial exercise.

TASTE VS. RULE IN ENGLISH.

The formal rule of grammar has lost much of its authority as an arbiter of English expression. Little of positive

law is left in the linguistic Israel, and each may use without serious let or hindrance whatever form of speech is right in his own eyes. It is not the man who defies the grammarian that is put on the defensive to-day, but rather the one who is over-conspicuous in observing his dictates. Theoretically, formal grammar should be merely the succinct statement of the facts of good usage. Practically, the limits of good usage are always too vague to admit of succinct statement with any approach to scientific accuracy. The difficulties in the way of a scientifically unassailable code of "good English" are insurmountable, even for a single brief period, to say nothing of the fact that the best usage of one decade may differ in scores of particulars from that of the next. The downfall of the Harveys and Pinneos of our childhood, therefore, is due not simply to their many mistakes in points where accuracy was readily attainable. The most carefully elaborated code of rules based upon the usage of a former generation could not be rigidly fitted to the best English of the present.

The growing appreciation of this plasticity, even among the most highly cultivated and careful writers and speakers, makes it unlikely that the credit of rules of grammar as such will ever be fully restored, even with scholarly and unceasing revision. Only a few of the most fundamental and persistent facts of expression will be left to the dogmatic method. For all beyond that the dependence will be upon the cultivation of taste rather than the memorizing of rules. Unfortunately, however, mere emancipation from cramping rules does not implant the germs of good taste. A newly realized freedom may tempt to license in language as readily as in anything else. The readiness with which even educated people fall into slang proves that the current lack of respect for the rules of linguists has passed with many to the point of disrespect for language itself. Quintilian's pious declaration of reverence for speech as that gift of the gods which most sharply distinguishes man from the lower animals would seem strained to-day; but as compared with the opposite extreme there can be no question which attitude is likely to make language of the greater service.

The fundamental position of critics like Professor Lounsbury, who have been brushing away the ill-supported claims of the grammars and dictionaries to final authority, has been widely misunderstood. In showing that the split infinitive, for instance, has been used sporadically by good English writers for centuries past, Professor Lounsbury has neither proved nor intended to prove that good English usage demands the uniform insertion into the infinitive of all that it can be made to hold. His warfare is against the habit of dogmatic

assertion that no good writer would use such or such an expression, when the archives of literature show that various writers of incontestably good standing *have* done so. But while he is not to blame for the blithe readiness of his fellow-citizens to overdraw their account at the bank of logic, the fact of this readiness perhaps puts the responsibility upon men like him, teachers of English possessed of national reputation and influence, to do positive work upon the ground which has so effectively been cleared of the jerry-built grammatical structures of the past. To many, Professor Lounsbury has seemed to prove that all things are *lawful*; may we not look to him now for some positive aid to bewildered teachers and pupils in our schools in determining what is or is not *expedient*? Lowell once defined the ideal of Harvard as the development in her students of "that good taste which is the conscience of the mind, and that conscience which is the good taste of the soul." Something akin to this is wanted in the special realm of language, if the passing of the grammatical catalogue is not to be signal for linguistic anarchy.

Only the exceptional child is born into a circle where, because of the absence of anything but good models to imitate, it learns no habits of speech but the best. The great majority must acquaint themselves with good English, if at all, against the influence of daily surroundings, and chiefly by the study of written models. But the study of models, unfortunately, is a deceptive process. It is not alone the Browning or Whitman enthusiast who will mistake a characteristic blemish for a peculiar mark of virtue; and blemishes, as the Roman rhetorician noticed centuries ago, are much easier to imitate than virtues. Then, too, even in its most perfect achievement, a mere superficial imitation is so evidently undesirable that willingness to attempt it is a pretty plain evidence of mental weakness. The study of models for the cultivation of style can be a safe reliance only as the student learns to see through the surface to underlying principles, and then to apply those principles with a strict regard to difference of subject and circumstance. As a guide to that kind of study, there is room for a critical analysis of representative authors somewhere between the broad sweep of such essays as Lowell's appreciation of Milton or Spenser, and the inadequate and pedantic treatment found in the typical school or college text-book. If the chief agents in the final removal of the false guide-boards of the past will but blaze a possible path to good English in this direction, they will win the gratitude of many who find themselves for the present decidedly bewildered by the loss of the old and faulty authorities.

THE BOOKS OF A POET AND BIBLIOGRAPHER.

The library of the late Richard Garnett, Keeper of the Printed Books of the British Museum, is soon to be put up at auction in London. The catalogue is of no slight interest to bibliophiles, representing as it does the personal preferences and accumulations of a trained bibliographer, who was also a poet and a critic. Garnett was a man who knew both the outsides and insides of books as few men of our time. His long service at the British Museum gave him an intimate knowledge of the book market, and the best facilities both for purchase and collation. It is curious, then, to note that he was personally very little of a bibliophile, being apparently, with all his love of books, devoid of any insatiable desire of personal possession. Rarities bought as such were exceptional on his shelves. As he was a poet and the friend of poets, presentation copies came naturally his way. One finds, for example, gifts ranging all the way from Coventry Patmore to William Watson. In fact, such records of friendship give color to the whole collection. But it is strange to note that so famous a specialist on books possessed, for example, practically no incunabula, and only such early printed books—few at that—as served his historical studies.

A sound psychological reason for this void may be found in his daily routine. Clearly, early printing and quaint title-pages could make little appeal to the mere curiosity of one behind the scenes in the British Museum. It seems as if abundance of knowledge had chastened any collector's covetousness he may have been born with. For a Garnett, the quais of Paris and the back streets of Florence could have afforded few surprises. He could presumably hardly remember a time when he first thrilled at the sight of old stamped pigskin, or an illegible scrap of manuscript bound into a sixteenth-century tome. All these things were from youth a part of his work, and he seems to have purged himself of the gnawing desire that masters your true amateur.

On the other hand, there came easily to him treasures for which many of us put our bank accounts and consciences in pawn. A grandson of Coleridge gave him the annotated Ariosto of "S. T. C." Shelley's son gave him three manuscript notebooks of the poet, containing, besides the "Ode to the West Wind," unpublished memoranda for "Adonais," "The Cenci," and "Charles I." It was a rather poor return for this courtesy that Garnett made in later years by unearthing and republishing one of Shelley's well-forgotten juvenile romances. But it was ever difficult to keep the cult of Shelley in the grooves of common sense. Garnett was no more a victim of excessive piety than many an-

other worshipper at this flickering shrine. It is to his credit, however, that he used a greater discretion with regard to the Shelley notebooks, which remain in great part undivulged—properly so, we presume. Curiously enough, for so convinced a Shelleyan, Garnett had never been foresighted enough to secure the contemporary first editions of his idol, although his collection of biographical material was extensive. Again, ready access to the *penetrabilia* of the British Museum explains much.

Beyond a small group of pamphlets and books relating to the British Museum and to Dante, the library differs from that of the average scholarly gentleman chiefly in those presentation copies that we have already mentioned. Thomas Hardy, Richard Jefferies, and George Meredith are the brightest names in this list, though few of the younger British writers failed, at one time or another, to pay some tribute of respect to their learned colleague. Inscribed copies from foreign writers and scholars are surprisingly rare, for the keeper's duties brought him little in contact with readers at the Museum. Those who have had occasion to consult him by letter can testify to his unflinching courtesy and serviceableness.

As befitted a high official at a venerable library, his sympathy with what are called the newer movements appears to have been defective. To him, probably, the *nouveau jeu* was represented by the writers for the *Germ*, of which bibliographical treasure he had an original copy. It is a little surprising, then, to find that his file of the *Yellow Book* is complete; but this is due possibly to the fact that he was a contributor, having been chosen, apparently, to ballast with his name and erudition that decidedly whimsical enterprise. In general, Garnett's concession to modernity seems to have been the minimum practicable for a titular critic. This appears in a singular omission in his scanty collection of Americana. It is probable that no other British critic of equal repute would fail to have a copy of Walt Whitman. But to the "Good Gray Poet" and the tedious literature surrounding him, Garnett appears to have been blessedly oblivious.

Upon American literature, indeed, Garnett seems to have had the old-time notions. Like many Englishmen of liberal stamp, he was an Emersonian, possessing two sets of the works; otherwise his American library consisted largely of Edmund Clarence Stedman's "American Anthology" and an edition of Poe, the gift of Prof. George E. Woodberry, one of the editors. Hawthorne is unrepresented, and Lowell also. But Garnett was interested in that undervalued American writer, Herman Melville, owning not only a copy of "The Whale" ("Moby Dick"), but also the two volumes of the remarkable, if un-

read, religious poem. "Clarel: a Pilgrimage to the Holy Land."

Such an excursion in these rewarding but little known fields suggests that Garnett never fully lost the adventurous spirit that makes a good reader. It is clear that he never really regarded himself as a collector. There have unquestionably been great librarians who were also great collectors, but in general it seems that the ideal bibliographer must cultivate a disinterestedness alien to the apparently kindred pursuit of bibliopolism.

CONFERENCE ON SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.

CHARLOTTESVILLE, Va., November 24.

On Friday and Saturday there met at the University of Virginia the State university presidents, the State superintendents of public instruction, and the university professors of secondary education from Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee. Among other guests were the United States Commissioner of Education, secretary of the General Education Board of New York, president of the University of Texas, presidents of the Virginia colleges, five State examiners of Virginia, Dr. S. A. Knapp of Louisiana, D. J. Crosby of the United States Department of Agriculture, and Professor Lockhead of MacDonald College, Canada. The object of this meeting was to consider the present condition of public high schools in the six States above mentioned, to plan a coöperative campaign for the establishment and development of more public high schools, to draw up bills on the subject for legislative enactment, and to work out the general principles of organization, supervision, and support. It was peculiarly fitting that a gathering of this kind should be held at the university founded by Thomas Jefferson as the capstone of the public school system, including free high schools within the reach of every child. This complete system of public education has not yet been realized in Virginia or in the South, though the Western States have carried out Jefferson's ideals with remarkable success. The present high school movement in the South is intended to give to this section similar school advantages to those now enjoyed elsewhere.

The conference was the direct outcome of the General Education Board's interest in Southern educational progress. This board is contributing to six universities the salaries and expenses of the professors of secondary education, who are the leaders in the high school campaign. For the last year these men have been studying the situation in their respective States, have been organizing high schools at "strategic points," and have directed the educational enthusiasm of officials, teachers, and citizens, to this particular need. The monthly report of each professor has been manifolded at the board's office in New York, and sent to the other professors in order that the experience of each may aid the work of all. After a year of such beginnings, this conference was called in order to systematize

results, and to decide on definite plans for the future.

The sessions were not public, and the discussions were free and informal. Each general topic was first presented in one or two papers, and then considered by the conference as a whole. The morning of Friday was spent on the question, "In what definite ways may the State Department of Education further the establishment and development of a system of public high schools?" The State superintendents outlined conditions in their respective States, and suggested plans for improving these conditions. It was evident that the laws and traditions of the different States are too diverse to allow uniform plans. There are variations in the method of levying taxes for schools—by county court or county commissioners, by direct vote of the people, etc.; there are variations in the minimum and maximum of school tax permitted by law; there are variations in local school units—district, township, or county; there are variations in the authority of local and State school boards. Some of the six States already have high school laws; others have none. Some allow high schools to be supported out of the general school fund; others require special taxation. In spite of these differences, the discussions resulted in establishing several principles of importance: the necessity of State supervision of high schools, the value of State appropriations to promote local self-help, the emphasis to be put upon both county (or township) and district support, the need of opening high schools in towns and villages to children of the rural communities, the advisability of starting with three grades of high schools, etc.

The afternoon was devoted to the relations of the State university and the professors of secondary education to the public high schools. The professors reported on the work so far done by them, and plans were made for further advance. In the evening a reception was given to the members of the conference by the faculty and students of the University of Virginia.

Saturday morning was devoted to agriculture in the high school, papers being read by Dr. Knapp and Mr. Crosby, and discussed by Professor Lockhead. It was the opinion of the Conference that a creditable course in agriculture, suited to local conditions, should be a part of the curriculum of every rural high school. At present there are in Alabama nine district agricultural high schools, supported by the State. The last Georgia Legislature appropriated to eleven district agriculture high schools, to be located at accessible points, certain fees that will give each district about \$6,000 a year.

The amount and methods of science teaching in the high school were taken up in the afternoon, there being some difference of opinion as to the place of natural science in such schools. Then followed the discussion of the agencies and methods of training teachers for the public high schools in the South. The present meagre opportunities for preparing these teachers were outlined and means suggested for meeting present needs. The evening was spent in an informal talk about various matters brought up in former sessions.

The present conditions of public high schools in these six States are on the whole

encouraging; and the large number of private high schools has greatly aided in supplying past and present deficiencies. Through a \$50,000 legislative appropriation of last March, the Virginia State Board of Education has organized one hundred and forty-nine new public high schools. The University of Georgia has so used its accrediting system as to develop fairly good high schools in most of the towns of the State. Tennessee is rapidly organizing county high schools at convenient centres, open to all the children in the county. North Carolina, South Carolina, and Alabama are not so well advanced in regard to high-schools, attention having been concentrated on the building up of an efficient system of elementary schools. Of course, the cities throughout the South have for years had public high schools of various grades of efficiency. The present movement is not for them, except indirectly; it is for the small towns in the rural districts, thus equalizing the advantages in the different sections of the State. The next five years in the South will witness such a growth of elementary and secondary education, as will affect every phase of Southern life and achievement.

Correspondence.

THE CASE OF THE TWENTY-FIFTH INFANTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Whatever the provocation, and confessedly it was the moral one of antipathy, not a physical imposition, shots were fired from the gallery of one of the barracks in Fort Brown into a neighboring dwelling beyond the wall, and almost simultaneously other shots were fired into the town from the vicinity of two other occupied barracks. Immediately, and as if by prearrangement, an armed party, variously estimated at from ten to fifteen, scaled the wall and began to fire into the houses of near-by residents. There certainly was no present provocation of any sort. One man was killed and one wounded within a building; a police officer who had no arms in his hands was gravely wounded in the street, and his horse was killed; and very many shots were fired with intention into houses where women and children were sleeping and men and women were sitting quietly. It is clear that unprovoked murderous assaults with firearms were made by the concerted action of a number of soldiers acting in direct defiance of military regulations and in violation of civil law.

As a military offence, it was not only subversive of all discipline, but closely approached mutiny in spirit if not technically. Why were not these men at once apprehended? Besides the general oversight of a company exercised by its first sergeant, a non-commissioned officer is always in charge of each barrack, whose particular duty it is to preserve order and to see that the public property is not misused. The arms are always kept in locked gun-racks, and ammunition is in the bands of the men only when specially served. The stain of firing may readily be removed where there are facilities, but

a dozen or more rifles cannot be cleaned in the middle of the night without attracting attention, any more than they could be surreptitiously removed without observation.

Officers might readily fall to anticipate such an outbreak from troops whose previous record had been good, and who had been stationed there less than a fortnight. Whether after its occurrence the officers did or did not at once do what they should to discover the guilty, is beside the present question. That question is: What is possible to be done, when discipline is so far subverted that an entire battalion, known to contain such lawless and dangerous men, substitutes for the manifest requirements of justice its own code for the concealment and protection of the guilty? It is morally certain that each company contained rioters whom non-participants could, if they would, pick out. It is preposterous to suppose that those non-commissioned officers, or the most of the privates, would hesitate to denounce cowardice in action, or, if possible, to apprehend a deserter going over to the enemy. To class the obduracy that refused in any way to assist the three successive inspectors with the code that restrains a boy from "peaching" upon a schoolmate who transgresses a master's regulation, is more than illogical; it is wicked. That the receiver is as bad as the thief is no more true than that an accomplice after the fact is fairly *particeps criminis*. Discharge without honor, clearly within the President's authority, is mild punishment for men so lost to military pride. They sacrifice nothing but the privilege of wearing the uniform they have disgraced. A false loyalty of comradeship has made them disloyal to the military service, and through it to the nation, and has generated a conspiracy of criminal silence that in anticipation would have been thought incredible.

ALFRED A. WOODHULL.

Princeton, N. J., November 23.

[The word "peaching," in so far as it suggests a minor offence, was unhappily chosen. We have no desire to minimize the crimes of the riotous negro soldiers. No one can denounce their lawlessness in terms too severe for our amen. The point which we wish to emphasize is that in the present condition of sentiment, in the army and out, regarding informers of all kinds, the refusal of the soldiers to tell who did the shooting is scarcely surprising, though it is none the less deplorable. We feel that under the circumstances a wholesale punishment by dishonorable discharge serves the ends neither of justice nor of discipline.—ED. NATION.]

THE HONOR SYSTEM IN COLLEGE AND OUT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: President Hyde's letter in the *Nation* of November 15 touches the core of a matter where cause and effect are persistently confused. Whether in college or out of it, the recognition, even implicitly, of the possibility of a double standard of honor is an ethical blunder. The so-called

"honor system," as *sometimes* understood, proceeds upon a supposition that the laws of organized society exist not to protect the honest man, but to terrorize him into good behavior. It harks back to the law of the jungle, where each beast takes what he can. There is no more a divergence of interests between faculty and students than there is between the judges on the Supreme Bench and any law-abiding citizen. It is just as much to the interest of one as the other in each case that a malefactor—whether the forger of a cheque or the would-be thief of a B.A. degree—be promptly detected and punished.

As one who has had only a limited chance, and that some time ago, to observe the workings of the "honor system" in examinations, I am willing to defer to those who have had more experience. If a system is ethically sound and also the most practicable, it is to be welcomed. But first of all, we must clear the atmosphere of the befogging fallacy that students may be expected to cheat if watched. An honest man, we repeat, has no quarrel with either policeman or judge, with proctor or professor. Why should he have? We must also indignantly reject the plan, sometimes introduced, that the instructors, having turned such matters over to others, must be oblivious to fraud. No one can shift his responsibility altogether. All are guardians of the law. It is a question of manhood suffrage. Personally, I believe that maturer minds are best fitted to weigh evidence. A jury of students might, perhaps, impose the penalty.

But what concerns us primarily is not the particular system adopted, but the attitude assumed by all concerned, and Mr. Hyde has done a public service in making this general attitude clear. One might wish, however, that he had stated one point in different language. By way of showing that honor is not a thing to be confined to examinations he urges that the students in Southern colleges should cease to "look lightly" on "sexual offences" which leave on character more lasting scars than "cheating in examinations." Whether or no Southern students are essentially worse in this respect than Northern students I will leave to the impartial statistician, but this chiasmic contrast of sins will, I fear, distract the attention of some readers from the main thesis. What one should emphasize is that, while immorality of the one sort undermines a man's fitness for society, the habit of "cribbing" in examinations would logically be fit training for the defaulter.

Many of the protests of "Protestantism" were based upon sound reason, and the protest against legal oaths made by the Quakers is germane to this discussion as asserting that a man's word is too sacred to be nullified by a child's reservation of "over the left" or to be reinforced by an oath on the Bible. For college haziness in regard to moral standards the students have not always been solely to blame. In a certain college catalogue, from the years 1891-2 to 1896-7, used to occur a formula administered to entering undergraduates, beginning: "We, the undersigned, do individually for ourselves promise, without any mental reservation, that" . . . and closing: "We also declare that we regard ourselves bound to keep this promise and on no account what-

ever to violate it." This surprising recognition of a succession of mental reservations has been for some years, I believe, discarded by the institution in question. Unfortunately, there still survives, even among some members of our college faculties, the notion that the ordinary criminal law ceases to be applicable to the student during the four years of his college life. This survival of an ancient privilege is now a mischievous anachronism. College students claim the privileges of independent living; they must accept its responsibilities.

FRANCIS G. ALLINSON.

Brown University, Providence, November 21.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: President Hyde of Bowdoin understates the case, I think, when he says, in your issue of November 15, that the "honor system" is of long standing in "several Southern colleges." It is so, I think, in nearly all Southern colleges—at least in nearly (if not quite) all of the best repute. And he might have added—as I now do—that no college (North or South) has ever tried this system in good faith without satisfaction with the results.

I regret the phrase "honor system." There is no such "system." It is simply the honor principle. Its application to examinations is only one of its aspects, and by no means the most important. As I understand this "honor principle," it is, above all, the obligation to truthfulness and honesty—not in examinations only, but everywhere. Its test is the scorn of a lie, everywhere, as unmanly, cowardly, disgraceful. If I am at all right in this conception I cannot agree with President Hyde that this sentiment should "come to the surface" "only under such stirring experience as love or war." On the contrary, it should be everywhere present and potent, in the least as well as in the greatest things.

I sympathize with that Southern student who inquired in advance whether the examination was to be conducted on honor or not. If I am trusted, I am under the obligation of honor to be worthy of confidence. If I am under espionage or suspicion, I recognize no such obligation (beyond my own self-respect). If the principle means: "You crib if you can; I catch you if I can," I shudder to think of its influence upon character, not only during student life, but upon the standards of conduct and business in after years. Our colleges should at least set the highest ideals of conduct, even if imperfectly attainable. The honor system, I admit, is far from perfect in results, but it is at least an effort to recognize what is best.

I write this with the most profound respect for President Hyde, to whose example and to whose writings I have been accustomed to look for the highest ethical ideals. I am well aware that I have no authority to set against the weight of his name. But I have a long and wide experience, and, at the end of it all, in spite of all shortcomings, an unshaken faith in the essential honor and honesty of American youth, if they are treated honorably and trusted as gentlemen. I have seen this very confidence transform character. Let President Hyde try it at Bowdoin—for just one year—with faith, with patience, with forbearance. I venture to predict that he

would add his testimony to that of all others who have so tried it.

EDWARD S. JOYNES.

University of South Carolina, Columbia,
November 18.

ACQUIRING A TASTE FOR LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your articles on teaching literature in the schools confirm me in my feeling that to live with people who know the great writers of English is worth hours and volumes of set instruction.

Just here may I venture upon something personal? My father and mother were hard working people, with little time for anything but toil; yet, loving books, they made time to read them; and of their experience made an atmosphere of healthy interest for their children. In the North Church, of which Dr. Samuel Spring was pastor, there had been founded a library where the members of the parish had access to the works of Addison, Pope, and Locke, of Goldsmith and Johnson. These books were in a case in the vestry. For Sunday reading we owned a few volumes: Bunyan, "Paradise Lost," with some narrow religious memoirs. We learned much of the Bible by heart. Pierpont's Readers gave us lessons, extracts in prose and verse from some of the best writings, English and American. [Doubtless there was much in the earlier reading that was beyond us; but enough was made ours to become a priceless possession, and to prepare the way for fuller apprehension of, not less than the delight in, the literature of later years.]

I cite these facts, not as exceptional, but as instances of how workers for daily bread improved the small time at their command, and how greatly the sum of happiness was increased for themselves and their children. I have many similar cases in mind. There is a mistaken notion that the common people are debarred appreciation of our literature, except as it comes through school and college.

L.

Newburyport, Mass., November 15.

Notes.

The Oxford University Press has now ready a "Life of Frederick York Powell, with a Selection from his Letters and Occasional Writings," by Oliver Elton. With his friendships and enthusiasms and insatiable curiosity, Powell ought to afford material for an unusual biography.

The Sproul Company is issuing the "University Press Shakespeare" in forty volumes. Sidney Lee furnishes a General Introduction and notes, the latter at the foot of the pages. Various well-known writers contribute Introductions to the separate plays. The Cambridge text is used by arrangement with the Macmillan Company.

Longmans, Green & Co. are printing an adaptation, by P. A. Barnett, of Goffeaux's "De Robinsone Crusoe," which is nothing less than a Latin version of our well-known Robinson. The new edition is adapted for young readers.

Two volumes of the "Thesaurus Linguae Latinae" have appeared, and the international committee in charge of the work

has arranged to issue the third volume under charge of the general editor, Dr. Lommatzsch of Munich. Dr. Alfred Giesecke, of the firm of G. B. Teubner, recently established a fund yielding five thousand marks a year in the interests of the work.

Prescott still continues to be read, which is praise that can be given to very few of the historians. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. have brought out a library edition of his Complete Works, in twelve volumes, fully illustrated. It presents a readable page.

We have before us from the same publishers eighteen volumes of their thin-paper classics in flexible leather bindings. The poets—Burns, Keats, Longfellow, Tennyson, etc.—are compressed within a single volume each; other works, such as Boswell's "Johnson," Carlyle's "French Revolution," and Hugo's "Les Misérables," extend to sets of two volumes. The longest of these, "Les Misérables," is still in fair-sized type. There are photogravure frontispieces, and to many of the works specially prepared Introductions.

A striking poem by William Vaughn Moody, "The Death of Eve," is one of the features of the December *Century*. In form and substance, it is far removed from the smooth commonplaces of most magazine verse.

In "Lincoln the Lawyer" (The Century Co.) Frederick Trevor Hill gives us a good reason for welcoming his book, which is that "no one has heretofore attempted a summing up of the great President's legal career." Many accounts of Lincoln at the bar and many anecdotes about him are scattered through the pages of Herndon, Arnold, Holland, Lamon, and Nicolay, but this book is the first effort to make a careful estimate of his position and reputation as a lawyer, and to present the main features of his twenty-three years' practice in the Illinois courts. No layman—not to mention the lawyer—can fail to be interested by evidence so carefully sifted and a story so well told. Indeed, many parts of the book have almost the value of original documents, since the writer has gathered much material at first hand from Judge Weldon, James Ewing, Col. Peter Dey, and other witnesses. In some cases we wish for more detail. It seems a pity that the important speech delivered by Lincoln in the case of Hurd vs. Railroad Bridge Co., a full report of which was preserved by the late Representative Hitt, should not have been printed as one of the appendices. Again we may regret that only the last chapter of 17 pages is devoted to Lincoln's work as President, in which, as the author shows, his legal training was often of the greatest value. When these chapters first appeared in the *Century Magazine*, the illustrations were far better and more numerous than those of the present volume.

Sir Oliver Lodge's "School Teaching and School Reform" (London: Williams & Norgate) contains four lectures delivered to secondary teachers in training at the University of Birmingham. They discuss in a sketchy way the aims of the various subjects of the curriculum, and the methods of teaching those subjects. There are scattered pages on interest, attention, and other psychological topics. A portion of

one lecture is devoted to boarding-school problems—the fag system, the utilization of pupils' leisure, and the increase of teachers' salaries. Rambling, superficial, and trite, are adjectives which fairly characterize the work. Sir Oliver Lodge is entitled to much more than a respectful hearing in the field of physics, but these lectures illustrate once more the fallacy of inferring that because men are distinguished in a special branch of learning, their casual utterances on educational questions outside that field are particularly worthy of attention.

"The Art of Class Management and Discipline," by Joseph S. Taylor (A. S. Barnes & Co.), "is intended as a slight contribution to the art of class discipline. It is offered to that hapless young woman who is just beginning to teach." There is need of such a book, certainly, but the character of this contribution scarcely justifies its publication. In the main it consists of stale generalizations which are undoubtedly true, but which can scarcely aid a teacher who faces for the first time a live class and the concrete problems which it offers for her immediate solution. Chapter IV. on devices of class government is specific so far as it goes, and the same remark applies to scattered pages of other chapters. The remainder of the book is a dreary waste.

Americans of Welsh extraction cannot but feel interest in the forthcoming publication of the life and letters of Edward Lhuyd (1660-1709). Few Welshmen have been held in higher esteem, have done better service to their nation, or displayed greater intellectual brilliance and versatility. Sir Hans Sloane spoke of him as "the best naturalist in Europe," and he was no less distinguished in the realms of language and archaeology. What gives his work its special value is the fact that in many cases, *e. g.*, in Celtic philology, he made use of methods which are usually associated with modern research. We know that he trained and supported a band of Oxford undergraduates, and travelled with them in the United Kingdom and Brittany to collect materials for his books. Their hardly-won information—they were chased by robbers in Ireland, treated as conjurers in Wales, arrested as thieves in Cornwall—was embodied in his "Lythophylacii Britannici Ichnographia" (printed at the expense of Sir Isaac Newton and others) and his "Archæologia Britannica," as well as in the writings of Ray, Lister, Baxter, Nicholson, etc. The life and correspondence are to be brought out by Richard Ellis of Jesus College, of which foundation Lhuyd was also a member. The letters he wrote himself are to be followed by those which reached him from Oxford during his travels. These are particularly valuable, since to some extent they bridge over the gap which opens with the death of Antony Wood in 1695, and is not closed until 1705, when Hearne's diaries begin. In the course of the next few months a mural tablet is to be erected to his memory in the Welsh aisle of St. Michael's Church, Oxford, by the Edward Lhuyd Society.

"Les Druides et les Dieux Celtiques à formes d'animaux" (Paris: Honoré Champion) adds yet another to the series of chatty little volumes by H. D'Arbois de Jubainville. Among the most interesting

chapters is that which deals with the "gutuatri," the Gaulish priests, or flamens; literally, those who invoke the gods, (Compare the English "god," meaning "the invoked," and Gothic "gudja," the invoker, *i. e.*, the priest.) We hear of one of them in Hirtius's addition to Cæsar's Gallic Commentaries. M. De Jubainville, by the way, compares the gutuatri with Chryses, the Priest of Apollo, in the "Iliad," not, as might have been expected, with the Druids. A good deal of space is devoted to contrasting these latter with Pythagoras and his disciples. Unlike the Pythagoreans, the Druids believed that death was the middle point in a long life, and that their souls went to a land of bliss beyond the limits of ocean to vivify new bodies. This view comes nearer to that referred to by Hesiod, *circa* 700 B. C., and by the author of the "Odyssey." We need scarcely say that the book is crammed with learning; it is somewhat elementary in places, but generally speaking to the purpose. We recommend it to students of Celtic history and thought.

Paul V. Bacon furnishes a new edition of Heyse's "L'Arrabbiata" (Boston: Allyn & Bacon). That which distinguishes the book from other editions is an interesting introduction narrating a personal visit to Heyse at his home in Munich, when the author told, among other things, of a Swiss who had heard of Heyse's "Im Paradiese," and sent in his card, happy in the thought of meeting the author of "Paradise Lost"! The editor visited Sorrento and Capri to verify certain allusions in the story. One could wish, however, that the book were embellished with illustrations of the author and the scenes he describes—factors of greater value to the American student reaching out after foreign culture than is often realized.

The publishing house of the Viuda de Ch. Bouret, Paris and Mexico City, has just brought out two books which, though remotely separated in time, both deal with the development of a national spirit in Mexico. It is only in so far as this is in some degree true that the title of the first, "Los precusores de la independencia Mexicana en el siglo xvi.," is justified. The author, Luis Gonzalez Obregón, treats of the dissensions of Cortés and his followers with the Spanish crown and its agents, and of the movements later in the sixteenth century, wherein the conquerors and their sons displayed a tendency to resist authority, and even to throw off allegiance to Spain. Events of this sort up to 1568 alone are studied; and only the title itself connects these events with the Mexican wars of independence in the nineteenth century. It would be interesting to have traced out for us as to Mexico alone the tendencies toward separation which were notable in practically all the Spanish colonies almost from the first. In the other book the author, who remains anonymous, has made what he calls "an essay in historical psychology" under the title "Porfirio Diaz (September, 1830—September, 1865)," his aim being thus to reveal "the life of the people in its intimate phases as shown in the life of a man who is all transparent." Some apparently new data as to Diaz's birth and origin are brought out. This is, however, no adequate biography of Diaz even for his early life and military career

—indeed, no such biography may be expected during his lifetime. The real value of this work lies in its frequent reproductions of passages from what may be called Diaz's own memoirs of his boyhood and military career up to the end of the French intervention. These are the recollections of Diaz, as related by him in recent years to the late Matías Romero, who put them in order for private publication. Translations from them were furnished to an Englishwoman, who recently wrote a book on Diaz, and who used them as "hitherto unpublished" selections from the "diary" of the pacificator of Mexico. It was this use of them which seems to have inspired the idea of making them more generally available in Spanish, and the anonymous author has evidently full authorization for such use. It would be much more interesting and valuable to have the "Memoirs" in their entirety, as edited by Romero, and approved by Diaz; but we note as perhaps significant the statement of our author that only a few of the "initiated" have seen these memoirs, and that, "owing to certain defects beyond remedy, they may have to become entirely dead letter."

Number 8 in the series of "Unpublished or Very Rare Documents for the History of Mexico" is "Causa instruida contra el General Leonardo Marquez por graves delitos del orden militar" (Mexico City: Librería de la Vda. de Ch. Bouret). These are the documents in the trial of Gen. Marquez for insubordination, embargo of money designed for the general treasury, etc., under the reactionary government of Miramon in 1859. The trial was suspended in 1860 because the reactionists were in straits and needed the services of Marquez in the field. The suspension became definite with the fall of the government which instigated the trial, and Marquez figured again in the anti-Juarez ranks as a general of the Intervention and Maximilian's Empire; and escaped to Havana after having, in Maximilian's conception, betrayed him. These documents, apart from the matter of personal interest, contain material bearing on the so-called "Wars of the Reform."

Lady Jebb is preparing a life of the late Sir Richard Jebb, to be published before the end of next year. She will be grateful for the loan of letters written by Sir Richard, and she will return them as soon as they are copied. Her address is Springfield, Cambridge, England.

Léon Vanderkindere, well known as a politician and historian, died in Brussels this month, at the age of sixty-four. At one time he was a professor at the Brussels Free University. Among his best-known writings are "The Age of Artevelde," 1879, "Belgian History in the Middle Ages," 1890, and "The Territorial Formation of the Belgian Principality in the Middle Ages."

A monument to Calvin is to be erected in Geneva in 1909, the four hundredth anniversary of his birth. The money is being raised by an international committee, headed by Prof. Lucien Gautier of Lausanne.

From an article by Dr. Ernest Schultze in the *Societe Praxis* of Berlin, on "People's Libraries in German Villages," it appears that there has been a five-fold increase in the number of these libraries

during the last ten years. In 1895 there were less than one thousand; now there are between five and six thousand. Their distribution is very uneven throughout the empire. The kingdoms of Saxony and Württemberg and the provinces of Brandenburg and Schleswig-Holstein have the largest supply, while Bavaria, Alsace-Lorraine, and Mecklenburg have few. More significant even than the great increase in numbers, says Dr. Schultze, are the enlargement and improvement in quality.

The problem of a "learned proletariat," or a supply of university graduates far beyond the demands of the professions in Germany, a subject that perplexed Bismarck, is again under discussion. Dr. J. Courod, an authority on political economy in the University of Halle, has published an article on the subject in the latest issue of the "Jahrbücher für Nationalökonomie und Statistik." In analyzing the causes he declares that a sentimental pride in higher education as such, originating in the class distinctions of the Middle Ages, and the failure to appreciate the intellectual demands of the productive callings of modern life are largely responsible. As remedies he suggests that matriculation fees be materially increased; and that stipendia at the disposal of the universities be given only to students showing special qualification. In addition he urges that the consequences of overcrowding the professions be published far and wide.

NOTES FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

E. Gordon Duff's "Printers, Stationers, and Bookbinders of Westminster and London from 1476 to 1534," just published here by G. P. Putnam's Sons, is made up of two series of lectures delivered at the University of Cambridge, in 1899 and 1904. The author is the recognized living authority on earliest English printers and their books, and is of that comparatively new school of bibliographers of which the late Robert Proctor was the most prominent. The custom of the older writers was to describe a book, the title, the colophon, the number of leaves, the illustrations, etc., then to pass on to the next. William Blades with Caxton's work, and Proctor with that of the Continental printers, based studies on the comparison and classification of books by the types with which they were printed. It was also the way of Henry Bradshaw, who, as late as 1882, wrote to Francis Fry:

The only way to really find out about these things is to take all a man's books which he is known to have printed—or, at any rate, such as can be got at—and to study his habits of printing; not only his type and cuts, but also his habits of using these materials. . . . But I really do not know three people in Europe now living who study things in this way.

In these lectures the first half-century of book-making in England is covered. The Westminster printers, Caxton, Wynken de Worde, and Notary; the London printers, Pynson, Lettoun, and William de Machlinia; foreign printers and the books they made for the English market; the early English bookbinders—these are some of the subjects touched upon. The lectures are narrative in form, not technical, and are filled with interesting allusions and notes on old

printers and their ways, old books, and old bindings. They are in the nature of outlines of that larger work on the history and development of printing in England which is yet to be written.

The Society of Iconophiles has recently published a volume which will interest all collectors of prints relating to New York city. It is an Index to the illustrations in the famous series of New York City Common Council Manuals prepared by Davis T. Valentine, Clerk of the Council. The Index itself has been prepared by R. H. Lawrence, secretary of the Society. The Introduction (19 pages) is by William Loring Andrews, preëminently a lover of pictures of old New York. The first Manual, for 1841 and 1842, is a little volume of 185 pages measuring 4¾ by 3½ inches. It is the scarcest and most valuable of the series. The size of the volume was enlarged for the issue of 1844 and 1845, again in 1849; and finally in 1868, 1869, and 1870 the annual became a large octavo. The Index as here printed is divided into four sections: (1.) Plates and Maps; (2.) Maps and Plans of the City of New York and Vicinity; (3.) Miscellaneous Maps; (4.) Facsimiles, Letters, Signatures, Documents, Broadside, and Certificates. Following these lists, which give titles in full, is a general short title Index in a single alphabet to all illustrations. The volume is printed at the Gillis Press. The copies not taken by members of the Society are offered for sale by Charles Scribner's Sons.

Sidney Lee, chairman of the executive committee of the Trustees of Shakespeare's Birthplace, issues the announcement that the trustees have acquired perfect copies, in exceptionally fine condition, of quartos of "The Merchant of Venice," 1600, and "King Lear," 1608. For these the trustees paid a little more than one thousand pounds, and they now appeal for more generous public support in order to make the Shakespeare Birthplace Library "altogether worthy of its national character."

Three works printed by William Caxton have been discovered by Hodgson, the London auctioneer, in a private collection sent for sale from Whitley Beaumont, Yorkshire. The three volumes, all more or less damaged by the cutting away of blank margins or the abstraction of entire leaves, are "The Royal Book, or Book for a King," 1484, "The Book of Good Manners," 1487, and "The Doctrinal of Sapience," 1489. The first, according to the London *Athenæum*, contains only 100 out of 160 leaves, and only three of six woodcuts. The second book, of which there are but two perfect copies in England, contains sixty out of sixty-six leaves. "The Doctrinal of Sapience" has fifty out of ninety-two leaves.

Stan. V. Henkels will sell at the auction rooms of Davis & Harvey in Philadelphia, on Friday and Saturday of this week, the collection of portraits of officers in the army and navy in the War of the Revolution, of 1812, and the Mexican War, also views of land and naval battles, belonging to James T. Mitchell, Chief Justice of Pennsylvania. There are many contemporary portraits in mezzotint, and there is a notable collection of pictures of John Paul Jones.

The third portion of the library of Gov. Samuel W. Pennypacker, being his

books relating to the history of Pennsylvania and his collection of periodicals, will be sold by Mr. Henkels on December 5 and 6. The collection, containing, all told, 1,231 lots, is especially rich, so far as rarities are concerned, in German, Dutch, and Swedish books on Pennsylvania. Among these are books on New Sweden by Acrelius, Biorck, Campanius Holm, and Hesselius; among Dutch books are Vander Donck's "Beschryvinge van Nieuw Nederland," 1656 and Webb's "Nader Informatio en Bericht," 1686; and among the German books, Pastorius's "Beschreibung der zu allerletzt erfunden Provintz Pennsylvaniae," 1700; and a translation of Thomas's "Pennsylvania and West New Jersey," intended as a supplement to Pastorius, the title being "Continuatio der Beschreibung der Landschaft Pennsylvaniae," 1702. It is rather surprising that Gov. Pennypacker had so few of the early books of William Penn. He seems not to have owned Penn's first book on Pennsylvania, "Some Account of the Province of Pennsylvania," 1681, a copy of which was sold at the low price of \$210, in the Proud sale in 1903; he does, however, have the scarce "Further Account," 1685. Nor has he apparently Penn's "Letter," 1685, except in a Dutch translation, or the "Frame of the Government of the Province of Pennsylvania," 1691, both of which occurred in the Proud sale. The most valuable Pennsylvania book in the collection is no doubt the copy of the first printed Pennsylvania Laws, printed by Andrew Bradford, in 1714, of which no copy seems to have been sold at auction in this country during the last thirty years. Another great rarity, "Some Letters and an Abstract of Letters from Pennsylvania," 1691, is believed to be one of three copies known. The collection of periodicals includes some rare series of early American magazines.

The autograph collection of the late F. Griswold Tefft, together with that of the late William L. Bryant, will be sold by C. F. Libbie & Co. of Boston, on Monday, December 3. There are several letters of Washington, a short A.L.S. of Lincoln written from the Executive Mansion on June 10, 1861, to Capt. Dahlgren, about a new gun; a Bryant manuscript, the poem "The Strange Lady," three pages folio, besides several Bryant letters; letters of Hawthorne, Irving, Ruskin, Emerson, Longfellow; a number of Revolutionary documents, some of historical interest, from the papers of Major-General Edward Hand; etc. Some interesting broadsides, several relating to New Hampshire, are included in the sale.

The selection of books, broadsides, and autographs from the collection of James Terry of Hartford, to be sold by C. F. Libbie & Co., on December 6 and 7, includes some choice items, the most notable perhaps being a copy of the first edition of the Saybrook Platform, printed at New London in 1710 by Thomas Short. The autographs are largely from the correspondence of Gov. William Plumer of New Hampshire and Benjamin Trumbull, the historian. They include a number of letters of John Adams, John Quincy Adams, Silas Deane, Roger Sherman, William Williams, etc. Among the books and broadsides are several relating to Dartmouth College and its progenitor, the Indian Charity School of Eleazar Wheelock. Stephen

R. Bradley's "Vermont's Appeal to the Candid and Impartial World," 1780, a presentation copy with inscription by Ethan Allen is another choice item.

A FEW OF THE ILLUSTRATED BOOKS.

Court Beauties of Old Whitehall. Historiettes of the Restoration. By W. R. H. Trowbridge. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. New York. \$3.75 net.

It is interesting to observe how differently historians approach the question of moral judgments. Lord Acton, for one, considered that the biographer should show no mercy in denouncing the offences of a sinner who died five hundred years ago. "I exhort you," he once said to a distinguished audience, "never to debase the moral currency or to lower the standard of rectitude, but to try others by the final maxim that governs your own lives, and to suffer no man and no cause to escape the undying penalty which history has the power to inflict on wrong." Over against Lord Acton stands H. C. Lea, who points out that owing to the fluctuation of the moral standard one must take care how he applies his own ethical principles to men of other ages and other lands. In the volume before us Mr. Trowbridge also gives an opinion on this subject. "No people," he says, "are more ridiculous than the literary policemen who nab historical offenders and prosecute them at the bar of a remote posterity, unless it be the literary whitewashers who defend the same criminals at the same bar. Such convictions and acquittals of the dead are like a burlesque of justice which lacks the sense of humor."

When we say that the foregoing passage stands before a long and minute account of Barbara Villiers, Duchess of Cleveland, we give the reader some means of judging Mr. Trowbridge's attitude towards the sultanas who reigned at Whitehall after the Restoration. In each of them he sees a type, from the Countess of Shrewsbury, "the Messalina" of the period, to the Duchess of Richmond, its "Prude," and the Duchess of Portsmouth, its "Spy." Leaving praise or blame altogether aside, he sketches eight women who either supplied abundant gossip for the memoir writers or affected the course of English politics. Besides those already mentioned the list includes the Duchess de Mazarin, the Countess de Gramont, the Duchess of Tyrconnel, and the Duchess of Orleans.

The Court of the Restoration has been written about so often that one is entitled to exact from each new volume some special merit of treatment or learning. A book like Forneron's "Louise de Kéroual" has ample warrant on the score both of its erudition and its relation to important public issues. At the other extreme comes the volume which is made up from scraps of Gramont, Pepys, and St. Evremont, with a large supply of photogravures thrown in to catch the purchaser's eye. Mr. Trowbridge has not delved like Forneron, but he knows the diarists well and has a better grasp of English history at large than is possessed by most writers who sport with the beauties of the Restoration. As for the material, it is not easy to write a Sunday-school book on such a subject, and Mr. Trowbridge

makes no pretension to be a concealed moralist. So far as we can infer, he writes for an audience from which the young person has been eliminated, and he considers it his chief function to amuse. In three at least of his studies we think that *suppressio veri* could have been carried somewhat farther without creating an incorrect impression, but the general reader who takes up a book on the Restoration is bound to run his own risks.

It is not improbable that Mr. Trowbridge has hoped to give his volume a distinctive quality by lightness of touch. If this is the case, he has in a measure succeeded. We think, however, that he has not quite hit the strain when he writes:

La Belle Stuart! The glamour of the Restoration is in that romantic name. At the sound of it our thoughts at once rush back to childhood, when we learnt English history out of story books and picture books; and old, half-forgotten tales of the Merry Monarch, and the gay doings of cavaliers with periwigs and swords, of maids of honor all lace and perfume, crowd upon the memory. La Belle Stuart! to the very children of the Board Schools—if imagination be a faculty looked upon with favor at those practical seats of municipal learning—must come visions of a far-off romantic time.

This passage will do more than columns of comment to let the reader know how Mr. Trowbridge handles his subject.

Highways and Byways in Dorset. By Sir Frederick Treves. With illustrations by Joseph Pennell. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2.

Few counties are richer in historical associations than Dorset, few have more variety of scenery and architecture. Her fine harbors of Poole and Weymouth invited the invader from the days of the marauding Saxons and Danes to the morning in June, 1685, when the effeminate Duke of Monmouth, the Pretender, landed at Lyme Regis for that campaign which was to end in the defeat at Sedgemoor. Charles II. after the battle of Worcester made his escape through Dorset, hid in its country houses, and finally embarked for France on a coal brig from Poole. His adventures and the humors of his escape in the disguise of a groom are here told with great spirit.

Everywhere are traces of Celtic and later Roman occupation, the pit-dwellings and earthworks of men who toiled with horn picks, and yet managed to erect great camps or cities of refuge like Maiden Castle, two miles south of Dorchester. These earthworks, Thomas Hardy has used in the setting of his village tragedies to give an impression of gloom and vast spaces. Maumbury Rings, introduced with so much effect in the "Mayor of Casterbridge," Hardy labelled a Roman amphitheatre. Sir Frederick follows the common tradition adopted by Hardy, and ignores the theories of modern archaeologists, who conjecture that the amphitheatre was built long before the coming of the Romans, and was a great temple of the sun. Dorset is also full of beautiful old manor houses that have been converted into farmhouses, of decaying roofs of thatch that are being replaced by hideous corrugated iron, and of churches painfully restored.

The guide to Wessex usually dwells too long and too often on the Wessex of Hardy. Sir Frederick is happily more

interested in British and Roman Dorset, and in the description of her scenery, often wild and desolate without grandeur, and then again wonderfully fertile, a country of lush grass and butter-making. Everywhere he succeeds in giving the reader a vivid picture of Dorset coloring; the "jade green" of the downs, whose long rolling lines are "like terrific sea-combers about to break upon a shoal," the rich yellow of the stone buildings which suffuses the church roofs and aisles with a golden radiance instead of the cold misty gray of less fortunate counties. Sir Frederick Treves, himself a native of Dorset, writes thus of Hardy's Edgdon Heath, commonly called the Great Heath:

The tone of the moor is a russet-brown, splashed by the bracken with green and by the heather with purple. Under the summer sun marvellous colors appear; . . . a faraway plateau may be Gobelins blue, and a near hillock bronze-brown. There may be here a bare slope of mushroom-colored sand, and there a reedy marsh of parrot green.

There are glorified guide-books, whose charm depends on their illustrations, for which the text is a mere thread. But with the present series this is never the case, and for that reason the volumes are the most attractive of their type. None that we have encountered has a style more pleasing than this description by the famous court physician. Mr. Pennell's drawings in pastel are as usual excellent, and are especially successful with the gloomier scenery.

Certain Delightful English Towns. By W. D. Howells. New York: Harper & Brothers. \$3.

There is no doubt that to see and enjoy England aright one must be an American. The country is, in the first place, peculiarly rich in small comforts that her people take for granted, not knowing their own bliss. The Frenchman or German, having his own notions of comfort, regards the English brand with a critical eye. He has his own cheap and satisfactory equivalent for neat-handed, soft-voiced servants, railway porters obsequious for twopence, and the afternoon tea that at certain hours seems to gush spontaneously all over England. Mr. Howells believes too that it will always be the American mind that "wherever it goes catches in some rhyme, some phrase, some story of fact or fable that makes the place more home to him than the house where he was born." The Englishman cannot be expected to recall Kingsley's Mary at the sight of Chester and the river Dee, because he is probably absorbed in making the history that is to thrill the New Zealand tourist centuries hence. To the literary reminiscences, quite as much as the creature comforts, Mr. Howells does full justice, and shows an intimacy with Saxon Kings and the early vicissitudes of the British which could never thrive in the English breast. Plymouth, Exeter, Bath, Bristol, Southampton, Oxford, and Chester were among the towns that he found delightful, and has enriched for the wiser sort of tourist, who should cultivate his exquisite tolerance, and resolve, when visiting those scenes, to enjoy even the hotels. Mr. Howells has a good word for nearly all of them; and they offer in general so lit-

tle and at such high prices that one can only feel how priceless to his travelling companions must have been this gift of quietly ignoring the unpleasant or inferior.

The book is illustrated, not strikingly, but sufficiently well. What will endear its pages to every reader is its unflinching humor, its nice balancing of the emotions and æsthetic impressions by one on whom no charm whether of setting or human association was thrown away.

Herbert W. Tompkins's "In Constable's Country" (E. P. Dutton & Co.) has a peculiar attraction not at all due to the text, since those who wish to read about East Anglia will find all they want related with better effect in Mr. Dutt's volume in the Highways and Byways Series. The publishers of the present volume have wisely expended their energies on the illustrations, which will charm every admirer of Constable. Here are reproduced in color sixteen of the most famous of Constable's paintings, half of these, including the "Haywain," dearest of all to most lovers of Constable, from the pictures in the National Gallery. All are, in fact, drawn from the London galleries, which have been not only fortunate in gifts from the heirs of Constable, but ready for the last twenty years to pay twice as many thousands for a Constable as he earned hundreds, though Constable was by no means without honor in his own day. Mr. Tompkins's share in the volume led him to wander through marshy Suffolk, which was Gainsborough's county as well as Constable's, and to describe the charms of its "lilled lowland waters," as they were called by Stevenson. Like Rembrandt, Constable was a miller's son, and Mr. Tompkins has collected here all the known facts of his life, first as a miller and then as a painter of a county that has much of the Teuton spirit in its scenery, so that though Constable directly influenced the French school, it is of the Dutch that one is constantly reminded in his coloring and composition. The text is, as we have said, by no means the main interest, but it is well enough as a setting to the pictures, which are excellent examples of color illustration.

John Addington Symonds's translation of the Life of Benvenuto Cellini is reissued by Brentano in two volumes that are a model of good bookmaking. The work was done by the Merrymount Press, and, barring a rather trivial title page and imperfect opacity of the paper, it is hard to see how it could be better. There are forty-one photogravure plates, representing Cellini's work or his patrons, associates, and enemies. All of Symonds's excellent introductory material is retained, and there is an index. Royal Cortissoz has contributed a preface in which he points out with sympathetic yet critical discernment the discrepancy between Cellini's personal forcefulness and artistic achievement. The essay is useful as a corrective to Symonds's, who was naturally obsessed by the sheer personality of his hero. This reprint is likely to remain for years the preferable library edition of these fascinating memoirs.

The palaces of France, in both their beauty and their historical associations, are capable of furnishing endless themes for artist and author. The latest volume of

this kind is "The Châteaux of Touraine" (The Century Co.), with text by Maria Hornor Lansdale and illustrations by Jules Guérin. The pale, flat colors used by M. Guérin bring out the romance of the country admirably—of his work no commendation is necessary. It seems almost a pity that photographic reproductions, with their hard lines and glaring lights, should have been interspersed, although some of these are excellent of their kind. The story of the châteaux is filled with the echoes of old romance, cruel and sweet by turns.

John Lane presents a very welcome reprint of Alexander Gilchrist's "The Life of William Blake," in a single volume, friendly both to the hand and eye. This reduction in bulk has been effected by the omission of long extracts from Blake's works, which are now readily accessible. There are more than fifty well executed reproductions, about half of which are drawings from the collection of the editor, W. Graham Robertson, and previously unpublished. Gilchrist's book leaves something to be desired in the article of criticism, but forty-three years after its issue, it remains the standard source for the facts of Blake's life. Without it, we should be largely reduced to surmise as to his personality, as we are, for example, in the case of that other great visionary, El Greco. This reprint is admirable from the point of view of the general reader, and, by reason of its illustrations, necessary also to the special student.

The proper record of Emma Hamilton must be pictorial. It was her beauty that conquered England's greatest admiral and that inspired one of England's greatest painters, and beauty calls for more subtle delineation than that of the printer. Mr. Baily has therefore done well in bringing together in his "Emma, Lady Hamilton" (F. A. Stokes Co.), a handsome quarto volume, some twenty or more reproductions of the most famous of her portraits. These are accompanied by a text, but as this is more of a setting for the pictures than an original contribution to history, it need not detain us. On the whole, the illustrations may be highly praised, though they vary a good deal in process and in quality. The selection made is altogether excellent; it includes all the best Romneys that are really of Lady Hamilton, and among the most beautiful will be found two or three that are far from familiar. Although the book is not an authoritative life or a critical essay on her portraiture, it is quite the best pictorial record.

From Houghton, Mifflin & Co. comes a holiday edition of Whittier's "Snow-Bound," for which Howard Pyle, John J. Enneking, and Edmund H. Garnett have made drawings, and Adrian J. Iorio has furnished decorations. The same house publishes "The Story of Pocahontas and Captain John Smith," told and pictured by E. Boyd Smith, who, it will be remembered, made the pictures last year for "The Story of Noah's Ark," with their rare combination of beauty and humor. His work this year is of the same character, though without the hilarious fun.

One of the most charming of the simpler holiday books is an edition of Thackeray's "Ballads and Songs" (Putnams), with illustrations by H. M. Brock. The drawings fit in capitally with the humor

and occasional touches of pathos of the poems. Less attractive, perhaps, but more elaborate, is Browning's "Last Ride Together," from the same publishers, with decorations and pictures by Frederick Simpson Coburn.

Perhaps the best of Dickens's Christmas tales is that which lies embedded in "Pickwick," including the visit to the manor farm, the story of the goblin, and the sports on the ice which tempted Mr. Winkle to skate and Mr. Pickwick to slide. This section of the book has been printed by the Baker & Taylor Company in a separate volume, as "Mr. Pickwick's Christmas," with illustrations in line and color by George Alfred Williams. Our wanderers take on a very genteel appearance in these pictures.

Among the holiday books offered this year by Scribners is an edition of Cable's "Old Creole Days," illustrated by Albert Herter.

Scribners also have "A Little Book of Bores," by Oliver Herford, who furnishes both text and pictures. The humor runs with the alphabet, beginning:

A is the Autograph bore
Whom Authors so loudly deplore,
Tho' it's probable quite,
If the Dears ceased to write,
They'd deplore even more than before.

The peculiar sentiment of Max Müller's "Memories" seems to retain a perennial interest for English as well as for German readers. Again we have it in decorative borders and designs, the old translation, a good one by George P. Upton, published by A. C. McClurg & Co.

Most attractive of all the cheaper holiday books, perhaps, is George Eliot's "Scenes of Clerical Life" (Macmillans), fully illustrated in color and line by Hugh Thomson. His color work is new to us, but it has all the charm of his more familiar line drawings.

"A Cheerful Year Book" (Holt & Co.) is a diary for recording engagements and other matters of the kind, and it is something more. On alternate pages there are humorous drawings with bits of aphoristic wisdom by F. M. Knowles on the perplexities of life. And, as the title page says, "the whole is introduced and concluded with profound and edifying remarks by Carolyn Wells." It is altogether a piece of foolery which combines the *utile* and the *dulce*.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Amulet. By Charles Egbert Craddock. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Once again we must wish that Miss Murfree might stick to her mountaineers. Her present historical romance is a sad affair, perfectly artificial and unreal from start to finish. It may be historically sound, but this, other things being unequal, is an altogether trivial consideration. The eighteenth century English of its dialogue is certainly incorrect, a curious farrago. When the fair Arabella is in form, to be sure, and thinking of her part, she says, "Lord," and "La," and "monstrous genteel"; and the gallant military gentlemen who surround her are capable in an emergency not only of "zounds" and "gad-zooks," but of "Stap me," and "Split me," phrases upon which they obviously plume themselves. The girl is silly and the men

are wooden; and the events recorded are supposed to take place on the frontier of the Cherokee country, in the year 1763.

The Soul of an Artist. By Neera. Translated from the Italian of Neera by E. L. Murison. New York: Paul Elder & Co.

It is easy to see why for the uses of an American publisher the present title is more available than "Anima Sola," or its equivalent. Few persons willingly expose themselves to books of religious philosophy or of devotion, but plenty of us are ready to set out at a moment's notice in search of the least bit of fresh information about the mysterious "temperament." These pages are supposed to contain the confessions or confidences of an Italian actress of note. They are addressed in a series of imaginary letters to an English nobleman with whom she has once been intimate, but from whom she has now been long separated. His "monastic soul" has permitted him hardly or not at all to overstep the bounds of friendship, while she has cherished for him an ideal passion, the expression of her search for that absolutely satisfying companionship which is never to become the portion of her lonely soul. These are, in short, the records of a nature abnormally sensitive and self-conscious. But while it is commonest in such cases, as in that of Marie Bashkirtseff, that a morbid personal vanity should be the principal motive, what is chiefly expressed here is a morbid spiritual fastidiousness. This person, to be sure, is emotionally unbalanced, the slave of moods, continually subject to a physical melancholy which might be taken as the result of an unfulfilled eroticism. To say this of an English or American book would be to condemn it as intolerable on grounds of taste if not of morals. But in these matters the Latin races have a dignity to which we rarely attain. Love, which has been in its highest form denied her, is Neera's theme. Of *Vamour* she is not ignorant: its unrest, its ecstasy, its satiety; but of love the interpreter of human life she can only dream:

When I encounter one who loves the gray mists of winter; who prefers the green depths of a thicket to the bluest of seas or the most golden of suns; cold to heat; to external life, reflection; to music, silence; to color, shadow; to action, thought; then I say this is my relative. When I encounter one who lives in his soul as a priest in his temple, serving and adoring the mystery of his office, there is my brother.

This is of course not a true autobiography, but a fiction. There is something a little humorous in the earnestness with which the writer of the "Foreword" advises us that Neera is really one Anna Zuccari of Milan, "wife of Signor Radius," and a well-known novelist; and that though she writes much of "the overpowering passion, love, she is very domestic, the angel of her home—not at all the portrait of any one of the heroines of her books." There is a further hint that the great Duse may have served as model for the writer of these confessions. This is a matter of slight consequence in judging of a book which expresses not a personality, but a temperamental type.

Trusia. By Davis Brinton. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.

The Zenda microbe multiplies, and it

seems that with each new culture the creature creeps closer to the every-day, so that whereas the original heroes were on more or less lofty British altitudes they later became jaunty Americans, while the heroines grew less and less unapproachably exalted. We do not say that in "Trusia" the limit has been reached. The future it is given to none to know. But it may safely be said that thus far this type of romance has heard no clearer call of the tame. Not that the adventures fall below the orthodox standard in variety or vehemence. It is rather that the domain of lost causes, lost kings, and idolized, imperilled heiresses—apparent seems newly invaded when the saviors are a New York club man and his cockney valet. The proceedings are by turns stirring, comic, and bathetic. If there were less real gore and real killing it would read like unstaged extravaganza. Even as it is it seems widowed without light music.

Yet the plots and mysteries are not unoriginal. As the story bounds from one melodramatic situation to another, so the manner of its telling springs from height to height of flowery language, then plunges into sudden depths of contemporary slang. We have queering eyes and initiate perceptions, portraits gazing from their coigns, the soft indulgence of Diana (meaning moonlight), hair as light as the sheen of a spider's craft, a mouth as sweet and kind as the animate soul of a rose. Then in mitigation of all this dazzle the hero may be heard saying, "Forgive me, sweetheart, but love will not be denied. Let the king have Krovitch, but you come with me." Yet when all is said the traditional proof of the pudding is not wholly lacking—to this sillibub: The eating of it is painless and entertaining.

Under Pontius Pilate. By William Schuyler. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.

Mr. Schuyler's version of the New Testament story is a series of imaginary letters supposed to be addressed to a Stoic friend at Athens by a Roman military officer quartered in Judæa, one Caius Claudius Proculus, the nephew of Pilate's wife. All the well-known figures of the drama are introduced. The writer is intimate with Herod, Herodias, and Salome, and is present at the dance which earned the head of John the Baptist. At every turn of the narrative, which is naturally crowded with direct quotations from the New Testament, the reader asks himself what is the gain over the immortal outlines of the original. Apparently to supply details for the unimaginative is the motive of the whole.

Mr. Schuyler makes Mary Magdalene the heroine and Caius Proculus her lover, who, after her conversion, is drawn by her example into the Christian faith. In order to bring together the chief personages he assumes that she is identical with that other Mary who chose the better part in the house of Lazarus. In the Bible there is certainly no such identification. It is all done reverently enough, and can be read; but there is an effort at modernization in the attitude of the characters, and in the style there is more than one lapse of taste. It was, we think, a mistake to imply in the preface that the letters exist in a Latin authentic original, though, of course, only the most unwary could be taken in.

Rosemary in Search of a Father. By C. N. and A. M. Williamson. New York: S. S. McClure & Co.

When this has been described as a "pretty" tale of the whipped cream and bonbon box type, there is not much more to say about it. A rich, disconsolate young man mourning his lost lady love is seized upon by an adventuresome Monte Carlo. She plays upon his respectful sympathy with a pathetic romance of hunger and a wicked, gambling mother. He (in all honor) engages her services as secretary at forty dollars a week, and hands her out ten thousand francs to begin with. As he is unimpeachably faithful to the lost lady—in addition to being the most high-toned young man alive—Hugh is also the most innocent youth who has ever made money in a gold mine and come to Europe to heal a broken heart. After his rescue by a petticoated little Lord Fautleroy, the story proceeds smoothly to its happy end, by all the sign-posted highroads known to sentimental fiction.

The Doctor. By Ralph Connor. New York: Fleming H. Revell & Co.

"The Doctor" is a conventional novel about young people (apparently for young people), reeled off with the fluency of a practised story teller. Its best point is a description of a diphtheria epidemic in a Canadian construction camp; its least effective, the Southern beauty who had "a reserve of proud command due to the strain of a regnant, haughty, slave-ruling race." Amateurs of every kind of dialect will find their account between the covers of this book—habitant talk, Irish brogue (of the Irish comedy variety), and whole pages of which the following is a fair example: "But 'e hain't got no toes to give 'im the feelin' of 'is toes in 'is mind or hennywheres else." "Dummed old fool," sez the doctor." Presumably there exist somewhere readers who find this amusing, since the first edition has run high into the tens of thousands even before the date of publication, but it is hard to see why the average adult should not find the story at once commonplace and passably long-winded.

LAFCADIO HEARN.

The Life and Letters of Lafcadio Hearn. By Elizabeth Bisland. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$6 net.

About one-third of the first of these two generous volumes is taken up with the *Life* by Mrs. Bisland, who was an intimate friend of Hearn's from his early manhood until his death; the *Letters* follow, printed so far as possible chronologically (he eschewed dates), and without comment. Such a division is somewhat unusual, but, in the present case, judicious. Of the biographical chapters, it is possible to speak with praise, while admitting considerable reservations. Despite an occasional infelicity of taste and even of grammar, they give an eloquent account of the struggles through which Hearn passed, and depict in warm colors the romantic side of his character. What we miss is any adequate critical examination of his literary method or any study of the strange exotic elements that entered into his philosophy. Hearn's place in our literature by reason both of

the manner and the contents of his writings, is so unique that the absence of such critical discussion in his official biography lays the work open to the charge of amateurishness. Altogether, the most valuable sections here, if not in the whole book, are the half-dozen autobiographic papers now for the first time printed—little sketches of particular moments in his career which make us regret that death or uncertainty of purpose kept him from writing the whole inner story of his life; it would have been a work of extraordinary interest, without parallel in the language.

If ever of any one, it could be said of Hearn that the child was father of the man. The very elements of his nativity—his birth from the love-match of an Irish army officer and a Greek woman on the island of Lefkada (from which, by an unexplained alteration of the first vowel, he received his name); his early translation to Ireland and abandonment by his parents—may help to account for the exotic strain in his character and for the unappealed nostalgia that drove him, through life, a restless wanderer from land to land. All this was pretty well known before, but we owe to the present biography a knowledge of the morbid, tormented years between his first childhood and his emigration to America. He was, it appears, adopted by a wealthy grand-aunt, a Mrs. Brenane, and taken to Wales, where he was surrounded by the heated religious atmosphere of a home newly converted to Catholicism. The most striking of the autobiographic fragments goes back to his sixth year, when, as he says, he knew a good deal about ghosts, and very little about gods. He had been taught to pronounce the invocation, "In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost," but had no understanding of what the words meant. He continues:

One of the appellations, however, seriously interested me; and the first religious question that I remember asking was a question about the *Holy Ghost*. It was the word "Ghost," of course, that had excited my curiosity; and I put the question with fear and trembling because it appeared to relate to a forbidden subject. The answer I cannot recollect; but it gave me an idea that the Holy Ghost was a *white ghost*, and not in the habit of making faces at small people after dusk. Nevertheless, the name filled me with vague suspicion, especially after I had learned to spell it correctly, in a prayer-book; and I discovered a mystery and an awfulness unspeakable in the capital G. Even now the aspect of that formidable letter will sometimes revive those dim and fearsome imaginings of childhood.

But he was not long to remain in this groping ignorance. One of the few visitors to the house was a certain "Cousin Jane," who passed the winters with them—a tall girl, as he describes her, a convert, who looked like some of the long angels in his French pictures, and who gave him "the idea of Sorrow as a dim something that she personally represented." One day she caught the child up into her lap, and, with her piercing black eyes fixed upon his, began to catechise him:

"My child!—is it possible that you do not know who God is?"

"No," I answered in a coking whisper.

"God!—God who made you!—God who made the sun and the moon and the sky,—and the trees and the beautiful flowers,—everything! . . . You do not know?"

I was too much alarmed by her manner to reply.

"You do not know," she went on, "that God made you and me?—that God made your father and your mother? and everybody? . . . You do not know about Heaven and Hell?"

I do not remember all the rest of her words; I can recall with distinctness only the following:

"and send you down to Hell to burn alive in fire for ever and ever! . . . Think of it!—always burning, burning, burning!—screaming and burning! screaming and burning!—never to be saved from that pain of fire! . . . You remember when you burned your finger at the lamp?—Think of your whole body burning,—always, always, always burning!—for ever and ever!"

I can still see her face as in the instant of that utterance,—the horror upon it, and the pain. . . . Then she suddenly burst into tears, and kissed me, and left the room.

Just how much the man's imagination has played over this memory of childhood, it would not be easy to say; but on the whole one gets the impression of a boy strangely sensitive to the dim shadows of life and involved from birth in a network of dreams from which he could never free himself. And from this imaginative terror of religion he passed to the more tangible distresses of poverty. For two years, indeed, he had the protection of a Jesuit college in the north of France. It was here that he acquired his intimate knowledge of French. Here he lost one of his eyes while playing the game of "The Giant's Stride," a disfigurement of which he was always extremely sensitive; and here he became possessed with the ineradicable notion that some mysterious Jesuitical plot was formed against him. After this he disappears for a while into obscurity. "When I was a boy of sixteen," he wrote in Japan to one of his pupils, "although my blood relations were—some of them—very rich, no one would pay anything to help me finish my education. I had to become what you never have had to become—a servant. I partly lost my sight. I had two years of sickness in bed. I had no one to help me. And I had to educate myself in spite of all difficulties." Then came a brief season of starving in London, of hiding in a workhouse in an evil quarter by the Thames, and some time in the year 1869, at the age of nineteen, without money or friends, and with broken health, he found himself in the streets of New York. How he now contrived to live does not appear. He left the city by an emigrant train for Cincinnati, carrying with him through life an implacable hatred and horror of New York as "something cyclopean without solemnity, something pandemonic without grotesqueness—preamite bridges—superimpositions of iron roads higher than the aqueducts of the Romans—gloom, vapor, roarings and lightnings." In Cincinnati he got into newspaper work, toiling fourteen hours a day at "that intensely vulgar and commonplace thing, called American journalism." Here he became acquainted with H. E. Krehbiel, to whom the most interesting of his letters were addressed. But the lure of the South was in his blood, and he soon went to New Orleans.

At this point his correspondence begins, and for the rest of his life we can track him through his own letters in his wanderings in the West Indies, his brief return to New York, and his various homes in Japan. It was well known that he married a Japanese

woman, and for the sake of his children became a subject of the Mikado. It is now plain that in his later years he began to weary of Japan as he had wearied of everything else. His was the extremely romantic temperament that craves ever-changing sensations, and is never content. In the end the gray monotony of Japanese life, the lack of deep emotions, the obliteration of personality, began to wear on him; and at the same time he saw all that had first attracted him in the country pushed to the wall by the exigencies of the new civilization. There is something painful in the utter disillusion of his last letters. They are filled with one cry—the cry for money that he may provide for his family. His position as Government teacher was insecure, and the royalties on all his books were amounting to only \$88 a year; death, swift and sudden, came to him as a release.

Unquestionably these letters of Hearn's are among the most interesting that have appeared for a number of years—probably the most valuable since the publication of FitzGerald's. It is unnecessary to say that Hearn had at his command a style of extraordinary vividness and flexibility. Everything lives under his magic touch—his creole home in New Orleans, the waifs of society that cross his path, the drowsy splendor of tropic islands, the enormous madness of great cities, the exquisite delicacy of Japan. Most of all we have been interested in the intimate revelation of the artist preparing himself for his chosen work. He had the conscience of the French *littérateur*, of a Flaubert, one of the rarest of Anglo-Saxon gifts. In the *débacle* of religious convictions he turned to art as to a new and relentless faith. "Yet the hardest of all sacrifices for the artist," he writes, "is this sacrifice to art—this trampling of self under foot!" And to the extent of crushing out worldly ambitions, he made the sacrifice. His aim was perfectly clear. He wished "to create something different from the stone-gray and somewhat chilly style of latter-day English or American romance"; he sought "the English realization of a Latin style, modelled upon foreign masters, and rendered even more forcible by that element of *strength* which is the characteristic of Northern tongues." To this end he toiled endlessly over the language of his essays and tales, writing and rewriting with infinite patience. He had "the rare yet terribly necessary gift of waiting." And with his style he deliberately fostered all the romantic elements of his own character. There are unpleasant stories abroad about the devious ways into which his search for unusual emotions led him—stories to which Mrs. Bisland does not allude, but for the most part his cultivation of the romantic *Ich* was innocent, if odd. His reading was in out-of-the-way fields; at one time in New Orleans he owned a library of some 500 books, valued at \$2,000, and every volume "queer." His unappealed longing for the tropics was due in part to delicate health, in part to his passion for luxurious sensations.

As sometimes goes with the impressionistic temperament he had also a curious interest in science, and made of Herbert Spencer the Bible of his faith. It was this union of impressionism and devotion to Spencerian evolution that rendered him the

ideal interpreter of Japan. To the spirit of India he would have been utterly blind, for the Buddhism of that land was the farthest possible removed from impressionism or romanticism of any form; the austere self-abnegation of the ancient Pāli books would have remained forever foreign to him. But to the Buddhism of Japan, with its mixture of Shinto ancestor worship and its flutterings of quaint æstheticism, he came with the fullest preparation. His Spencerianism easily fused with one aspect of Buddhist philosophy; his romanticism was ready to seize on all the ghostly suggestions of a past forever haunting the present, and coming to the surface in unexpected ways. The result is a series of books perfectly unique in our language. They are not in the great, free tradition of English literature, but they will probably increase in fame for many years to come. The disappearance of the ancient Japan on which they are based will give them the rare preciousness of something that cannot be repeated or imitated. Into the laboratory of the brain that created these pieces of jewelled impressionism, the letters introduce us. Almost, but not quite, we can see the soul of the man.

Life and Letters of Robert Edward Lee.
By J. William Jones. New York: The Neale Publishing Co. \$2.

The atmosphere of Washington and Lee University is difficult to resist. The veneration that surrounded Lee when he undertook its presidency after the war, kindness, devotion, loyalty, all the higher emotions that ennoble life—with such things this book is saturated. It cannot but stir the best feelings of every good man, and yet it must be stated that the author is extremely disappointing. His title is imposing, his fulfilment is scant. He does not in the least accomplish the purpose announced in his preface of giving his subject fresh treatment.

Dr. Jones was a Confederate chaplain during the war, and has since been connected with Washington and Lee University. There he had many opportunities of seeing Lee, and after his death had access to his papers. Further, Dr. Jones has had considerable experience of editorial work. He was therefore well qualified to present to the public a biography of Lee founded on unused documents and information, or a volume of personal reminiscences, or, again, a collection of documents hitherto unpublished. Unfortunately, he fails all along the line. He has a few unpublished letters to set out, but these are all of slight importance; they are buried under a mass of other letters reprinted from previous books on the subject, and there is no system to indicate to the reader which letters are hitherto unpublished and which not. Of personal reminiscences we get only a very few pages, mostly at the end of the book; such value as they may have is overshadowed by the fact that they are inhedded in a long narrative of the war that is neither fresh nor specially distinguished for accuracy. Among the unpublished papers perhaps the most interesting are some scraps found in Lee's army satchel, untouched since Appomattox. From these one quotation may be made:

Private and public life are subject to

the same rules; and truth and manliness are two qualities that will carry you through this world much better than *policy*, or *tact*, or *expediency*, or any other word that was ever devised to conceal or mystify a deviation from a straight line.

In conclusion this volume suggests that the time is now getting near when Lee's correspondence should be given to the world complete and edited with the same scientific care as that of Washington.

Jefferson, Cabell, and the University of Virginia. By John S. Patton. New York and Washington: The Neale Publishing Company. \$2.

This volume of nearly four hundred pages contains, first, an account of the founding of the University of Virginia, based on the correspondence of Thomas Jefferson and Joseph C. Cabell, Jefferson's able coadjutor in securing the necessary legislation. The legislation prior to the chartering of the university in 1819—such as Mr. Mercer's bill of 1817—is entirely overlooked. This legislation, and a full account of the Jefferson and Cabell correspondence, has been treated in the History of the University of Virginia and its Alumni, published by the Lewis Publishing Company (New York, 1904). Next is given an account of the early days of the university, and especially of the misbehavior of the students, until the final evolution of the "honor system." Then follows a description of the Jeffersonian buildings, an account of the early faculty, notices of the literary societies, and other student organizations, of their various publications, and of the great fire of 1895. We have also the story of the restoration of the buildings, the late development of athletics, and of student societies, and a brief account of the "schools"—as the separate and independent chairs of this university are called—with the recent establishment of the presidency of the university. Chronological order is not strictly followed, but the reader may get a good idea of the organization and development of the university.

Other chapters are devoted to the alumni who were in the Confederate army and the civil service, and to lists of students who attained honors and won prizes. In chapter xxv. the list of orators before the Society of the Alumni, from 1838 to 1861, is very defective. One misses the names of the Hon. Muscoe R. H. Garnett, orator in 1849, and the Hon. John Randolph Tucker, orator in 1850.

In addition to a number of errors of proof, which may easily be corrected, we find others more serious, among them the following: p. 12, Edmund Randolph for Edmund Pendleton; p. 33, Budwell for Burwell; p. 49, Dale for Dade. Professor Bledsoe is referred to as Alfred on p. 214 and in note to p. 335, but correctly as Albert on p. 335. Notwithstanding these oversights, the volume contains much information that an alumnus may be glad to have in convenient compass.

Der Erste Petrusbrief: seine Entstehung und Stellung in der Geschichte des Urchristentums. Von Dr. Daniel Völter. Strassburg: J. H. Ed. Heitz.

The first epistle of Peter is not one of the greatest of the New Testament writ-

ings, but it has a beauty and attractiveness peculiar to itself in its kindly sympathy, its intimacy of appeal, and its pervading atmosphere of buoyant hope. Many a downcast spirit has turned to it and found refreshment when the loftier writings of St. Paul and the Evangelists seemed to be beyond reach. Critical objections of no little seriousness have been raised against the Petrine authorship, and the date of the writing has been fixed in various years of the last two decades of the first century, and by Baur as late as 115 A. D. Harnack, to whom the objections to the authenticity are insuperable, yet who cannot believe the letter as a whole to be a falsification, has suggested that the opening and closing paragraphs are interpolations, thus saving the author from the charge of pseudonymity. In this he is followed by McGiffert. But now appears a monograph by Dr. Daniel Völter, professor of theology at Amsterdam, which finds far more serious interpolations, involving, in fact, all the distinctively Christian portions of the epistle. The theory of the Dutch scholar amounts really to a division of the letter into two distinct compositions, an original portion, which was written in Rome in the years following the Neronian persecution, and sections added by the redactor for the purpose of strengthening Christians of Asia Minor during a persecution which occurred about 115 A. D. The Christianity of the original letter is declared to be little more than a denationalized Judaism, founded almost exclusively upon the Old Testament, and not strictly a new religion grounded upon original doctrines and sacraments. To the later author, all allusions to doctrines positively Christian are attributed.

There is, of course, no textual authority for such a division, and the internal proof which Professor Völter advances appears weak and inconclusive. As a specimen of the evidence for interpolation may be cited the clause in 1:3, "begat us again unto a living hope by the resurrection of Jesus," whereas, in 1:23, the text reads, "having been begotten again . . . through the word of God." The critic thinks it impossible that both the "word of God" and the "resurrection of Jesus" should be made the media of the new birth, and he therefore strikes out the first passage with its allusion to Christ as not authentic. This amounts to saying that the Biblical writers were granted inspired protection from a change of metaphor—which is a serious draft on faith. Indeed, it is the discovery of a mixed metaphor in 2:5ff., the passage on the "living stones," upon which Dr. Völter lays greatest weight in proving the presence of large interpolations. But, we may ask, when was it demonstrated that the writer of a simple letter like I. Peter could not become involved in his figures? The theory proposed is ingenious, but the reasons advanced have no cogency whatever. In aducing parallels, however, between I. Peter and other writings, such as Romans, Ephésians, James, and I. Clement, Dr. Völter has done some careful work, and his brochure is valuable for this material, whatever one may think of his principal thesis.

The brilliant success of the analysts of the Hexateuch and of certain of the pro-

phetical writings has given occasion to violent endeavors to achieve like fruitful results in the documentary separation of literary productions of too brief extent and too great homogeneity to require the hypothesis of different sources. It is one thing to discover distinct documents in a history extending over centuries, in which the most careless reader finds discrepancies, and quite another matter to establish diverse elements in a simple tract of a page or two. The real significance of abortive endeavors like the theory under review is in the tribute they imply to the success of the creators of the sober Biblical science of modern times.

America's Awakening. The Triumph of Righteousness in High Places. By Philip Loring Allen. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.25 net.

The recent exposure of political and corporate corruption in this country has been, on the whole, so depressing, the plain and necessary portrayal of facts so harrowing and upsetting, that it is refreshing to find a book which, like this of Mr. Allen's, takes the hopeful view. Yet it should be said at once that the volume has no kinship whatever with the pious optimism which has followed so promptly, especially in certain religious weeklies, President Roosevelt's pronouncement against the muck-rake. The common starting-point of all such baleful apologies is a denial of things as they are. Mr. Allen, on the other hand, has nothing to conceal or condone. He does not hold a brief for any reformer or any fad. What he has done is to point out, in a straightforward way, the forces which, in this period of extraordinary social turmoil, have steadily made for righteousness both in the community and in the average man; to show some of the specific good that has followed the exposure of evil; and to indicate some of the directions in which genuine reform is unmistakably going.

After a short chapter on "How the Awakening Came," in which the situation in 1900 and the general sweep of reform since that time are briefly sketched, and another on "Graft among the Fathers," Mr. Allen passes in rapid review typical episodes in the public careers of six leaders of reform—LaFollette, Jerome, Folk, Weaver, Tom Johnson, and Everett Colby. The purpose here, as elsewhere, is not so much to narrate the main facts, though the narrative is well attended to, as to point out the reasons for the success which each of these leaders attained, and the results which have already flowed from it. With President Roosevelt as the inspiration, a few men working for the public good have, in a brief time, aroused the public conscience; and it is from this public conscience, long thought to be dead, that the reformers have drawn strength. Whether it be Missouri farmers rallying to support Folk, or citizens of Philadelphia hounding their councilmen until the gas lease was withdrawn; or men, women, and children in New York contributing to a Jerome campaign fund, the explanation is the same. The people who did these things had responded to a moral appeal, and were ready to do anything in support of leaders whose honor and sincerity they could trust.

All this, of course, has in one way or

another been pointed out before, though hardly so interestingly or connectedly. Mr. Allen, however, is one of the first to dwell upon the deep and widespread moral purpose which has underlain these various movements, and which still perdures. The striking thing after all is that, had as conditions have been, the people have not lost faith in the possibility of bettering them. Most noteworthy of all, perhaps, is the spectacle of machine-made legislatures, as in Pennsylvania and Missouri, supporting reform governors, and passing laws of a progressive and reforming character. Non-partisanship and independent voting have the field, politics and public work have been separated as never before, and the plea for party loyalty and the straight ticket has lost much of its charm. To quote Mr. Allen:

When the various Legislatures met in 1905, there were for the first time, probably, in the history of this country, five States with Democratic governors and Republican Legislatures. The number was reduced to four by the unseating of Alva Adams in Colorado. Yet the other Democratic governors got along quite as well with their opposition Legislatures as the average executives in States where there had been a clean sweep. There was not a deadlock in any of the States with divided governments. In Missouri, where the Senate was Democratic and the House Republican, it was the latter body which gave Gov. Folk the more loyal support. . . . In Massachusetts, Gov. Douglas actually vetoed fewer bills than any of his Republican predecessors who had dealt with legislatures of their own party faith. The Republican governors of Michigan and Indiana vetoed eleven and seventeen, respectively, of the bills passed by the Republican Legislatures of those States. Gov. Johnson of Minnesota, though a Democrat, was able to approve all but one of those passed by his State's Republican Legislature.

The novelty and assured interest of Mr. Allen's book lie chiefly, of course, in his interpretation of events. Sometimes, however, he adds materially to our knowledge—or at least to generally available knowledge—of important transactions. Such is his detailed account of the source and size of the Jerome campaign fund of 1905:

There were, in theory at least, three separate funds. The Citizens Union had one, the Jerome nominators had one, and there was a third which was spoken of as "Jerome's personal fund." The Citizens Union issued on October 17th an appeal for \$50,000. . . . The Jerome nominators two days later asked for \$65,000. . . . The money began to come at once, and it is the proud distinction of this campaign that it did not come in large corporate checks, but in small amounts from individuals whose hearts were in what they sent. The largest check received was for \$5,000. The smallest item was a "lucky penny." [The total amount collected was \$120,433.53, given by 2,443 contributors.]

The last two chapters, on "The Trend Towards a Pure Democracy" and "The Moral Wave and the Average Man," are full of cheer for all who believe in popular government. In the former, Mr. Allen points out particularly the extent to which virtual popular election of United States Senators has already gone in this country. A constitutional amendment seems as remote as ever, but nomination by primaries or conventions at the same time as other State officers, nomination by special convention, as lately in Rhode Island, and the pledging of legislative candidates in advance, are methods which are rapidly

bringing the choice of Senators under popular control. Of the thirty vacancies to occur in 1907, one-half "have already been filled or will be filled by methods that approximate popular election" (p. 261). The last chapter calls attention to the striking increase in personal and business honesty in the last five years, as shown, for example, by the receipts of national and State "conscience funds," and the statistics of fidelity bonding companies. One puts down Mr. Allen's book, not with the comfortable assurance that the millennium is at hand, but with distinct heartening and courage at the fresh and stimulating view of the earnestness and moral soundness which the American people are exhibiting in this crisis of their democracy.

How to Choose a Farm. By Thomas F. Hunt. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.75.

This is a remarkable volume for the amount of information that has been compressed, without loss of enthusiasm, and dryness of style. It covers an enormous field; including the soils and the conditions of farming in every part of our continent. For instance, Florida, the only region of the United States, besides California, where tropical fruits can be grown, is treated with as much accuracy as the corn and apple States. In this connection we note that the work is based on critical examination of facts; the style is readable, never swamped by dry statistics.

Dr. Hunt lays stress on home-building. Those who exploit land merely to wring wealth out of it are pretty sure to end in disaster. One of the most conspicuous examples was the Florida orange-planting of the eighties—tens of thousands investing their all, together with millions of borrowed money, in orange groves. The frosts of 1895 swept out the whole enterprise, and drove the victims out of the State like a flock of sheep. Had these people gone to create homes, instead of to get rich quick, they would be there now, owning good farms, and would have all the oranges the market calls for. The present tide, not only into Florida but elsewhere, countryward from city, is fortunately of a wholesome home-making sort. This book should be carefully studied by those people who purpose "returning to Nature." They will discover that men who fail in one spot will do well to examine their methods rather than seek another location with unknown conditions. The future development of agriculture will be in the way of more scientific culture, more segregation of crops, and more knowledge of environment.

Drama.

The Struggle for a Free Stage in London. By Watson Nicholson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2.50 net.

This book, although not likely to prove very attractive to the ordinary reader of theatrical biography or gossip, will be valuable to the genuine student of dramatic history, for the demonstration which it affords of the blighting effects of a monopoly upon the art which, professedly, it

was designed to foster. In it Dr. Watson Nicholson, instructor in English at Harvard, traces in detail, with praiseworthy industry, the various phases of the long struggle between the minor London theatres and the two great houses, Covent Garden and Drury Lane, whose patents conferring the sole right to present the national drama were granted by Charles II. in 1662 and continued in force, though constantly defied or evaded, until they were abolished finally by the Theatrical Regulation Bill in 1843. It is all ancient history, of course, but the story hitherto has been told "by parcels, not intently." Dr. Nicholson has pieced it together, putting all the incidents consecutively and showing how the successive monopolists by their dog-in-the-manger policy, reckless and incompetent management, and spirit of commercialism made the stage a synonym for all that was contemptible and puerile, and finally involved themselves in bankruptcy. He has gone for his material to the original sources of information, contemporaneous newspapers, magazines and pamphlets, police records, memoirs, biographies, private correspondence, official documents of all sorts, parliamentary reports, court proceedings, petitions, etc., and has amassed an immense amount of information, well worthy of study, but far too bulky and complicated for brief analysis.

Although the monopoly conferred by the patents was absolute theoretically, it was from the first violated frequently. Neither threats nor prosecution could deter minor managers from producing prohibited plays in slightly modified forms, and there never seems to have been any pretence that Charles's decree was binding upon his successors. William III. and Queen Anne both recognized the injustice of it, and proclaimed their own independence of it, by granting special licenses to favored managers. But, apparently, in asserting their own prerogative they were unwilling to cancel the privilege given by a predecessor. It was not, however, until 1737 that the permanency of these grants of Charles received parliamentary recognition in the Licensing Act of George I., and it was during the next fifty years that the patentees used their powers most tyrannously. But it was also this act which, by practically investing the Lord Chamberlain with the royal prerogative and so bringing about the licensing of many opposition theatres, made the position of the monopolists impossible, and led directly to the Theatrical Regulation Bill and a comparatively free stage.

It is interesting to note the similarity between the theatrical conditions of a hundred years ago and those which prevail to-day. There are no patent houses now, but the existing system of self-constituted monopolies is having much the same effect. The higher drama is neglected, the race of qualified actors is dying out, the serious playwright is discouraged, and the stage is sinking deeper and deeper into the slough of indecency and silliness. The parallelism is immensely suggestive. Now, as then, the root of the evil is in the lack of that competition without which there can be no development. It is melancholy to find a man of the ability of Richard Brinsley Sheridan employing all the resources of his intellect to maintain the rotten system of which he was the bene-

ficiary, and using the same old argument, so familiar to modern ears, that the foolishness or corruption of the stage is the inevitable consequence of the depravity of the public taste. Edward Bulwer, the first Lord Lytton, on the other hand, seldom appeared to greater advantage than when he was leading the fight against theatrical privileges, pleading the cause of free trade in art, and insisting upon the true function of the stage, to inspire as well as to entertain.

Among the many interesting points noted in Dr. Nicholson's book is the manner in which the introduction of transatlantic steamships contributed to the overthrow of the patent houses by opening up a new field to the principal English actors and thereby rendering them independent. Many other curious facts in the history of theatrical London are to be found in these pages. For less conscientious readers, Dr. Nicholson furnishes a convenient summary of his work, as well as a complete bibliography and index.

"The Rose of the Rancho," by David Belasco and Richard Walton Tully, which was produced in the Belasco Theatre in this city on Tuesday evening, is a play on an American subject, having a semi-historical flavor, and dealing with contrasted national types, and is, on these counts, entitled to a word or two of record. It treats of the unscrupulous land-grabbing which occurred in Southern California, after the United States had taken possession, in cases where the original Spanish residents had failed to avail themselves of the law of registration. As drama it is unimportant, being a machine-made piece of an essentially theatrical and spectacular order. But the leading characters—an American adventurer, a young Government agent, Spaniards, male and female, an old priest, and so forth—have a certain vitality and picturesqueness. The dialogue is diffuse and poor. The chief value of the representation lies in the setting and stage management, both of which are uncommonly excellent. Such pictures as those of the Mission Garden, the courtyard of the Rancho, and the roof of the house, with the surrounding landscape, have seldom been surpassed on any stage. If Mr. Belasco's plays were always worthy of the frame in which he exhibits them, the artistic theatre would be an accomplished fact. The acting in "The Rose of the Rancho" is fairly good.

Music.

METROPOLITAN GRAND OPERA.

The first gun in the grand opera war was fired on Monday night by Heinrich Conried at the Metropolitan Opera House. It will be answered by Oscar Hammerstein next Monday at his new Manhattan Opera House. Mr. Conried's opera was Gounod's "Roméo et Juliette," which gave him an opportunity to introduce two of the leading singers he has this season added to his list—Miss Geraldine Farrar and Charles Rousselière, the Parisian tenor. A good French tenor has been a desideratum at our opera house for several seasons; for lack of one, the French repertory was gradually cut down till nothing

was left but "Carmen" and "Faust." Six other works of the French school have now been added, in the expectation that M. Rousselière will come to their rescue; and if we may judge by his *Roméo*, confidence in him has not been misplaced. He is fortunate, like Jean de Reszke, in being of the manly class of tenors, in voice as well as in bearing. His diction is clear, and he fully entered into the dramatic spirit of his part.

Miss Farrar has been for several years at the Imperial Opera House in Berlin, a local favorite. Last summer she participated in the Mozart Festival at Salzburg, where her Zerlina was marvelled at as an achievement unequalled since the days of Pauline Lucca. Then she sang at the Wagner Festival in Munich, with similar result; the critics, none too friendly to Americans as a rule, confessed themselves enchanted for once; an Elizabeth like hers, they declared, had not been heard there in years. A wide range of vocal style and dramatic talent is required to do justice to rôles so diverse as Zerlina in "Don Giovanni" and Elizabeth in "Tannhäuser." Widely different, again, from both those rôles, is the Juliette of Gounod. Miss Farrar sang and acted it as if it were her one specialty. The opinion was expressed by many that not only in the operatic, but on the local dramatic stage, too, no woman had ever presented so charming, so convincing, a Juliette as hers. With her dark hair and eyes, and her graceful contours, she was the ideal of a Veronese girl in her teens. Her acting was tragic realism of the highest type. Her facial expression is as fascinating, as subtle, as varied, as Calvé's; every note of the score is mirrored in her features. To all this she adds a voice distinguished by the same beauty and expressiveness; a voice of a most agreeable timbre, lending itself to every variety of coloring. She achieved a pronounced success.

The Standard Operas. By George P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.50.

"Nineteenth printing" is the eloquent mark on the new edition of Mr. Upton's useful handbook, issued by its publishers just in time for the opening opera season. It indicates the great and growing interest taken in grand opera in this country. The 1891 edition was a book of 371 pages; the latest edition has 495 pages, besides 92 portraits of singers in favorite rôles. One of these portraits is of Geraldine Farrar as Juliette. Equally up to date is the list of operas, except that, strange to say, the two reigning sensations, Puccini's "Madame Butterfly" and Richard Strauss's "Salome," are not included. Perhaps the author thought they had not yet earned their right to be classed among "standard" operas. There are some older operas in the list that might as well have been omitted, as they are never sung in this country; among them, Auber's "Crown Diamonds," Brüll's "The Golden Cross," Flotow's "Stradella," Goldmark's "Merlin," Halévy's "L'Éclair," Herold's "Zampa," Lortzing's (not Lörtzing's as the printer persists in making it) "Czar and Carpenter," Marschner's "Hans Heiling," and more than a dozen others; but it is better to have too many than too few. The principal operettas of Genée, Lecoq, Johann Strauss, Sullivan, Offenbach, and others

are also included, quite properly. The appendix contains a bibliography of American opera, and to the regular index the author has added an index of the principal vocal numbers in the various operas he describes and analyzes—a feature which will commend itself to many. Heretofore the excellent Champlin and Apthorp "Cyclopedia of Music and Musicians" (Scribners) has been the only reference book in which one could find out where a certain aria or title of which one happened to remember the name, but not the source, might be found. In the next edition of his admirable handbook Mr. Upton should refer to the arias in Gounod's, Meyerbeer's and Bizet's operas by their French instead of their Italian names; they are now always sung here in the original language or in English.

Of all the great composers none seems so un-Gallic as Bach, yet there is quite a Bach cult in France. Berlioz professed to see nothing in Bach's music that was worth while; but Saint-Saëns tested him and found that this indifference was based on ignorance; he had not studied the scores he condemned, and was greatly pleased with what Saint-Saëns played for him. That was a good many years ago, but Saint-Saëns is still doing missionary work for Bach. On Tuesday afternoon he gave a recital in Carnegie Hall at which, for the first time here, he was heard as an interpreter of other music than his own. He began with the Italian concerto and a prelude and fugue by the great cantor, playing them in a delightfully lucid, archaic style. After adding two Rameau pieces, the pianist played Beethoven's A flat major sonata; he made the variations of the first movement remarkably interesting, and played the funeral march with deep feeling. Like his friend Liszt, Saint-Saëns was not afraid to put a symphonic movement on his programme—the andante from Haydn's "Surprise" symphony, charmingly translated into the pianistic idiom. But what gave most pleasure to the audience was his playing of Chopin's "Barcarolle" and of adroitly made arrangements of excerpts from his two operas "Samson et Dalila" and "Henry VIII." M. Saint-Saëns has announced that his present tour will close his career as a pianist.

The Vienna Male Chorus will visit the United States in April, 1907. The itinerary at present is projected to include New York, Boston, Chicago, Buffalo, Baltimore, Washington, Philadelphia, and Indianapolis. The proceeds of the concerts will be given to local Austro-Hungarian and other charities. Two hundred singers will make up the chorus, which pays its own expenses.

Art.

Histoire de l'Art depuis les Premiers Temps Chrétiens jusqu'à Nos Jours. Edited by André Michel. New York: G. E. Stechert & Co. Tom. I. (Vols. I. and II.). Des Débuts de l'Art Chrétien à la fin de la période romane. About five hundred illustrations. 15 fr. a volume.

The essentially social nature of French scholarship appears to advantage in this composite history of Christian art. Ten

collaborators have worked on this first of eight volumes, yet there is no sense of disparity of point of view or of disquieting difference of style. Much of the credit for so remarkable a degree of coördination is due to the general editor; more to the sound tradition of higher education in France. The work is worthy of the race that produced the "Grande Encyclopédie" and the "Histoire Littéraire." No other nation seems to have the art of collective scholarship. Compared with the work before us, the various German *Grundrisse*, etc., are lacking in sense of proportion, and such admirable British enterprises as the "Cambridge Modern History" in consistency and attractiveness of style.

It is a work of specialists for the lettered public, by no means a manual for first studies. Latin quotations are not translated, illustration is reduced in number and scale to the minimum. The book can be used profitably only by those who carry in their heads the memory of the important monuments, or better, read beside a photograph cabinet. It is, in short, a book for those who are in some sense scholars, and for such will be peculiarly valuable, as a comprehensive appreciation of recent discussion and traditional theories. The motto of the writers has been "prove all things."

Early Christian art has been treated by André Peraté in a delightful essay, instinct with sympathy and good sense. Roman architecture before the Romanesque period has been entrusted to Camille Enlart, who also writes at length on Romanesque architecture. A chapter of extraordinary interest is that on Byzantine Art, by Gabriel Millet. His chief merit is to have defined that Oriental element in Byzantinism which usually has been vaguely asserted. The very obscure topic of Merovingian and Carolingian art—the examples of which are practically confined to illuminated manuscripts—has fallen to Paul Leprieux. Italian painting throughout the period has been allotted to Émile Bertaux, in two essays. He has also treated the Romanesque sculpture of Italy. Sculpture of that period in France has been selected by the general editor, André Michel. Émile Male has set forth the beginnings of mural painting and of glass painting in France. Northern miniature painting is assigned to Arthur Haseleff. The late Émile Molinier has contributed articles on barbaric goldsmithy (enamel work), and also on the minor arts—ivories, bronzes, jewelry, enamels—for the entire pre-Gothic period. Brief intercalated chapters by J.-J. Marquet de Vasselot on Oriental influences in European art yield in interest to none of the more extensive contributions, but bear a little the look of special pleading. One is hardly ready to concede that a convergence of Sassanid, Tartaric, Gothic, and Coptic influences with just a dash of Hellenic and Roman reminiscence really explains the complex we call the Romanesque.

This dry enumeration of contents and contributors is really necessary to show the thorough and comprehensive nature of this work. It is, within our knowledge, the only general history of Christian art that treats architecture adequately and from the architect's point of view. The writers are consistently alert in noting the real bonds

between the arbitrary classifications of the arts—the give and take, for example, between ivory carving, stone sculpture, mural painting, and illumination is illustrated in a hundred instances. Thus the book becomes a warning against narrow specialization and a lesson in humility. It shows that nothing is surer than that the art historian of a single specialty is a poor historian. To imagine that one knows, say, monumental painting, without some study of such humble matters as ivories and manuscripts, is to be grossly self-deceived. The superiority of much of this work over similar writing in German and English lies in the fact that these French scholars have not been ashamed to practise a wise discursiveness.

We must waive the impossible task of reviewing critically a volume that concentrates the scholarship of ten experts upon the art of twelve centuries. We may, however, add to our special commendation of the chapters of MM. Peraté and Millet a reference to the editorial summing up by M. Michel. He takes middle ground on the Rome-Byzantine controversy, holding that Byzantinism was a preceptorial influence never cordially adopted in the Occident, which most fully realized itself as it Romanized. Against the Orientalizing tendency of most of his contributors M. Michel also takes exception, not being convinced, for example, of the Asiatic origin of barbaric enamel ware. With this brief characterization, and a mere hint at its richness in suggestion, we must leave a work that every serious student of Christian art must read alike for critical orientation and simple delight.

Thirty-three pictures by William M. Chase are on exhibition at the New York School of Art, until December 3. It is a larger collection of Mr. Chase's work than has been put on public view for some time, and including as it does examples of his work through the last twenty years in portraiture, landscape, and still life, it represents excellently the variety of the artist's achievement, and the development of his art. Earliest of all the works is the large "Study in Still Life," which dates back to student days in Munich. From the point of view of anecdote, the most interesting picture is the portrait of Whistler, which Mr. Chase painted in 1885, at the time that Whistler painted the portrait of him. It was this portrait which Whistler, after having first approved, called an "outrageous lampoon." Throughout the portraits, mingling with the manner which is distinctively the artist's own, is apparent the influence of Whistler and Alfred Stevens. The influence of Whistler shows in the Japanese decorative motives, as in "The Open Japanese Book"; in the harmonious arrangements of low-keyed monochromes, as in the "Mrs. C— and Baby"; and in the attitudes of some of the figures. The influence of Stevens, appearing a little later, shows in such pictures as the "Portrait of Miss E—" and "The Music Lesson." The portrait of the late L. F. Roos is exceptional for forcible expression of character. Few of the portraits, indeed, at any period, might be called psychological, but the earlier work caught almost invariably with a distinguished manner the flowering charm of a personality. One gets the impression often that

the artist has felt no vital interest in his subject—that, in his later portraits, especially, he has nothing to say commensurate with his means for saying it. This may account in part for the fact that much of his best later work is in still life, and interiors, of which "The Study in Still Life," No. 1, and "The Green Shade" are excellent examples. In such work as this, where the artist can deal with technical difficulties for their own sake, untrammelled with the problems of portraiture, there is astonishing freshness and finish.

Albert L. Groll is exhibiting at the Schaus galleries, in this city, a number of paintings of Arizona, Mexico, and California. These canvases repeat the scenes and the manner with which he has already made us familiar. Mr. Groll's work shows individuality in its color scheme, which is derived from the yellows and blues of the Arizona deserts and skies, and in the spacious dignity of the composition. A fine and characteristic example of these qualities is "The Land of the Hopi Indian," which shows a depth of yellow plain bounded in the distance by blue mountains and dominated by a vast blue expanse of sky. But many of the canvases show the need of greater harmony of color and refinement of handling.

An interesting exhibition of eighteenth century French art is now open at Ehrich's galleries, in this city. Of the twenty-three canvases, two of the most important fall outside the limits of the eighteenth century—the "Baptism of Jesus," by Nicholas Poussin, and the "Portrait of a Man," by Jean A. D. Ingres. Both are fine examples.

The Boston Miniature Painters have invited the Pennsylvania Society of Miniature Painters, now exhibiting in the Academy in Philadelphia, to exhibit the collection in Boston. The exhibition will be given the first two weeks in December.

Evidence of the increasing importance attached to modern painting, in Great Britain, is furnished by the formation of the Scottish Modern Arts Association. In a preliminary prospectus, signed by Lord Balcarras, Sir Walter Armstrong, Sir Edward Tennant, and other public men, in addition to Sir James Guthrie, and the leading painters of Scotland, it is set forth that "there is not a gallery in Scotland to which the student of art . . . can be referred as containing a permanent collection of work adequately representative of modern Scottish art." The aim of this new body, therefore, will be first to secure year by year worthy works by Scottish artists; and second, as funds permit, to acquire contemporary works, other than Scottish, of outstanding interest.

The fading and peeling frescoes by Morris, Burne-Jones, Rossetti, and others on the walls of the Library of the Oxford Union have been photographed, and the photographs have been published by the Clarendon Press.

The library of the late Gen. Louis Palma di Cesnola, for more than twenty years director of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, will be sold on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, December 3, 4, and 5, by the Merwin-Clayton Sales Co. of this city. Books on art in its broadest sense predominate, including architecture, ceramics, artists and their work, Japan and Japanese

art, catalogues of collections of pictures and books, etc. Among the special works are: Ferratio's "Costume Antico e Moderno," 1829-1834, twenty volumes, folio; the "Florence Gallery," 1789-1807, four volumes, one of the special copies on "papier-velin superfine."

Science.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

BOSTON, November 23.

The autumn meeting of the National Academy of Sciences, held in Boston, November 20, 21, 22, in the new buildings of the Harvard Medical School, was notable in several respects. The presence of thirty-eight out of the one hundred members made an attendance decidedly larger than the average in out-of-Washington meetings, even larger than most of the meetings in Washington, where the business session for the election of new members ordinarily attracts a good attendance. The number of papers was exceptionally large, owing to the addition of eighteen by invited speakers to the twenty-six by members. An exhibit of apparatus and specimens by nearly fifty members and invited associates was held the first afternoon, filling two big laboratories and the adjoining hall; and this, as well as the scientific and public sessions, was attended by an unusual number of interested visitors. The chief reason for all this increase in activity appears to have been the appointment at the last Washington meeting of a committee, with Prof. H. F. Osborn of Columbia as chairman, to prepare a new plan for the autumn meeting; the local committee had only to carry out the plan.

Among the exhibits by guests of the Academy were hybrids of wild and tame guinea pigs, by W. E. Castle, of Harvard, illustrating his experiments in the process of fixing characters in animal breeding; photographs of rill work by T. A. Jaggard, jr., of the Institute of Technology, showing the results of experiments on erosion; zoetrope figures, showing the movement of the stomach and intestines, drawn by W. B. Cannon of the Medical School, from X-ray studies; a new geological map of North America, by Bailey Willis of the United States Geological Survey; a new geological map of Massachusetts, by B. K. Emerson of Amherst; the earliest stages of sexuality in plants, by A. F. Blakeslee of Harvard; examples of ultra-violet photomicrography, by H. C. Ernst of the Medical School. Exhibits by members included recent work of the Harvard College Observatory, by its director, E. C. Pickering; a platinum-lined bomb for experiments at high temperatures and pressures, by A. A. Noyes of the Institute of Technology; restorations of extinct horses, by H. F. Osborn of Columbia; instruments for quantitative research in acoustics, by A. G. Webster of Clark University; plates of fossils from Patagonia, by W. B. Scott of Princeton; a machine for cutting wax-plates, used in constructing models, by E. L. Mark of Harvard; charts of atmospheric nucleation, by C. Barus of Brown; pendulum apparatus for determining the force of gravity, by G. C. Com-

stock of Wisconsin; physical apparatus, by T. W. Richards of Harvard. This list should be more than doubled, to give full indication of the richness and novelty of the exhibit.

The papers presented by guests and members in the scientific sessions of the Academy included the following: "Experiments in Aerodynamics," by A. G. Bell of Washington; "Acoustic Measurements," by A. G. Webster of Clark University; "Continental Sedimentation," by J. Barrell of Yale; "Evidence of Desiccation in Chinese Turkestan," by Ellsworth Huntington of Harvard; "Planetary Inversion, by W. H. Pickering of Harvard College Observatory; "Extent and Structure of the Stellar Universe," by G. C. Comstock of Wisconsin; "Section of American Tertiaries," by H. F. Osborn of Columbia; "Nature and Cause of Old Age," by C. S. Minot of the Medical School; "Ores of the Cobalt-Silver District of Ontario," by C. S. Van Hise of Wisconsin; "Sun Spot Spectra," by G. S. Hale of the Carnegie Solar Observatory; "Reactions of Amphiprurus to Light," by G. H. Parker of Harvard; "Light of Extremely Short Wave Length," by T. Lyman of Harvard. The list of papers was so extended that many were read only by title, and even then there was insufficient time for discussion. The lunches, receptions, and dinners given during the meeting added much to the pleasure of a memorable occasion.

DENATURED ALCOHOL.

The newspapers have printed a great deal about the uses of denatured alcohol for light, and also for fuel, especially in automobiles and other engines. Much has also been said about the possibilities of cheap manufacture from all sorts of farm products, and even from waste, under the law which removes the internal revenue tax after January 1. The alcohol with which we are familiar is one of many. In fact, there is a class of compounds called alcohols, only two of which are commonly known—*ethyl* alcohol (C_2H_5OH), that referred to in ordinary parlance; and *methyl*, or wood alcohol (CH_3OH) which is a poison, with injurious fumes. This fact is illustrated in the dissolving of shellac. At present, on account of the high price of alcohol, wood alcohol is substituted, and its fumes are said to produce ill-effects in the workmen. Ethyl alcohol is the product of yeast cells living at the expense of a special form of sugar—a form which may be produced from different sources. It may be made by a process called "inverting" cane-sugar; by "hydrolyzing"—chemically adding water to starch; by malting grain; or it may grow naturally in fruit juices and saps. Yeast action on sugar from any of these sources produces alcohol and also about six per cent. of other ingredients. The alcohol, whatever the source of sugar, is of the same composition, but the six per cent. of other material gives individuality to the product, according to the origin of the sugar. Thus, rum is the product of yeast action on molasses, while whiskey is obtained from barley or corn. In addition to the above method of making alcohol, there is a possibility of obtaining it from such unpromising substances as coke and other forms of carbon. This process, however,

yet to be worked out industrially by the chemist, would require—under conditions yet to be discovered—something like the production of calcium carbide (CaC_2) from coke; then a conversion to acetylene (C_2H_2); then to ethylene (C_2H_4); and then by a double reaction to ethyl alcohol.

Denatured alcohol, on the other hand, is pure ethyl alcohol, adulterated in accordance with the law. When so adulterated, it is branded "denatured" and is tax free. For many purposes, a disagreeable or poisonous substance added to pure alcohol does no harm and at the same time renders the alcohol unfit for drinking or medicine. For instance, there is camphor in celluloid; therefore alcohol denatured with camphor would not be objectionable in the manufacture of celluloid. The Government has selected certain adulterants and has the alcohol denatured in bond under the supervision of its own agents. Denatured alcohol, unless otherwise specified, must by law contain for every one hundred parts of alcohol ten parts of wood, or methyl alcohol and one-half of one part of benzene. Since these ingredients are not suited to all industrial purposes, the Government when requested will use other substances such as shellac, resins, acetic acid, pyridin, acetone, methyl acetate, aniline dyes, naphthalene, castor oil, carbon bisulphide, and carbolic acid.

The whole subject was considered at the regular meeting of the New York Section of the Society of Chemical Industry last Friday night. Professor C. E. Lucke of Columbia, presented figures obtained from a series of tests which illustrate the comparative efficiency of gasoline and alcohol in internal combustion engines. He concludes that alcohol, although more efficient for motive power, will not compete strongly with gasoline so long as gasoline is as plentiful as it is now. The exception would hold only in regions where there is little gasoline and the conditions for making alcohol are most favorable.

Rambles on the Riviera. By Edouard Strasburger. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$5 net.

The Mediterranean coast of France and of western Italy owes much of its attractiveness to the beauty and variety of its plants. The sunny skies and the fertile soil of that country known as the Riviera, produce vegetation in full splendor. A well-informed botanist would, therefore, be an admirable guide through the region; and just such a person is the author of this book. Professor Strasburger is one of the leading plant-morphologists of Germany, whose contributions to the science have opened new fields of thought. He is a lover of nature, to whom all living things are replete with interest. Moreover, he is uncommonly well read in all such matters as the uses of plants, the myths in regard to them, and the vanishing folk-lore. He lets nothing escape his observation, and yet he does not tire his readers by wearisome display of his multifarious and exact knowledge. As a writer, he is a true impressionist, making sometimes a single line or a touch of color tell a long story. He has imparted to his volume something of the charm which has rendered one of his laboratory manuals so popular, a charm largely due to an offhand, chatty style,

which is at the same time direct. This record, then, is an attractive as well as sound guide-book. The illustrations are well selected, and finely executed in color. Every reader will carry away a considerable amount of trustworthy information, especially concerning the flora. The following passage will indicate the style of the author and show, likewise, the excellence of the translation:

Night is drawing on, and in Mentone lights are beginning to appear in the houses and the streets. The strand is soon picked out with points of light, fringing the sea like a necklace of fiery pearls. The lines of the Mignonied passed through my mind, and the rhythmic washing of the waves seemed to recall the music of Beethoven's beautiful accompaniment. It is significant that those plants, which in this song of Goethe's conjure up in our minds such vivid pictures of Italy, are not indigenous in that land, which has been cultivated for over two thousand years. They came from the East, like all the great ideas on which our culture is founded, and were developed and improved on this classic soil. Italy received the lemon and orange from the Semites, who in their turn had received them from India. The olive, the fig, the vine, and the palm were grown by the Semites long before their cultivation penetrated to the West. The laurel and myrtle indeed are indigenous in Italy, but their use for ceremonial purposes came across the Mediterranean from the East. The home of the cypress is not in Italy, but in the Greek Archipelago, northern Persia, Cilicia, and Lebanon. . . . As though the great impulse given to horticulture by the discovery of America were also destined to leave its imprint upon Italian soil, the agave and opuntias have been established here. Thus the spiny, glaucous agaves and the prickly, vivid-green opuntias, which are so well adapted to the rocky coast of Italy that they seem to have been here from time immemorial, were really not introduced from America until the sixteenth century

The range of subjects treated of is very wide. From prehistoric times down through the golden ages of Greek and Roman culture, to the industries and the thinking of the present, is a long journey, but our author makes it with a cheery step, and with innumerable diversions by the way. We hear the story of the Iron Mask, the legends of certain castles and convents, and the traditions clustering around the villas and villages, as we stroll along admiring or perhaps studying the plants which the author brings constantly to our attention. Before the rambles are over, one has learned much in regard to the great flower-market of the South, the perfume industry, the fruits of the favored land, the factors of landscape, the part which ceremonial plants have played in early and in later times, and so on.

The whole book is written in a kindly spirit, and there are generous words for many people, some of which it would be very pleasant to cite. But we must content ourselves with a single further reference, which brings the treatise very near home:

Besides the Smyrna fig, the best varieties of date palm have lately been introduced into the United States. The United States Department of Agriculture in Washington devotes special attention to work of this kind, and men appointed as "assistants" in the Division of Vegetable Physiology and Pathology, or as "agricultural explorers" in the Bureau of Plant Industry, are entrusted with the carrying out of these experiments. These are scientifically trained botanists, who have first mastered the theoretical part of the subject and still keep up these studies side by side with

their practical work. Two of these "assistants," now usefully employed by the United States Department of Agriculture, studied botany at Bonn, and I have the highest opinion of the indomitable industry and perseverance, the intelligence and patience, of these young scholars. One of these is Walter T. Swingle, who has since been successful in overcoming the obstacles which had hitherto prevented the satisfactory development of the Smyrna fig in the United States, and who has made it possible also to ensure permanent results with the date-palm.

"American Fossil Cycads" is the title of a large quarto by G. R. Wieland of Yale University, published through the Carnegie Institution. This noteworthy contribution to American paleobotany is richly illustrated with fifty plates and 138 text figures. It is an account of the American collections of fossil cycads—plants allied to the fern—so far as they have been studied, and the results of the author's investigations on the vegetative anatomy and reproductive organs, followed by a comparison of these with similar structures in living cycads, and a discussion of relationships. It is probably not generally known that some of the best fossil preservations of these interesting plants are in the United States, particularly in the Black Hills, Wyoming, and Maryland; and that the most important collection of fossil cycads in the world is at Yale University. The living representatives of the cycads are but the remnants of a flora which dominated certain geological periods, and there was at one time an age of cycads (Jurassic) when the earth was covered with forests of these plants as far north as the poles. The ancient types of cycads have then somewhat the same interest for the botanist as some of the contemporary reptilian groups have for the zoölogist. The monograph is creditable to American botany and the presswork of the Carnegie Institution.

The American Eclipse Expedition of 1905, the largest ever fitted out by any nation, is described in the *National Geographic Magazine* for November by its commander, Rear-Admiral C. M. Chester. He pays a cordial tribute to the courtesy of the Spanish authorities as well as to the extraordinarily good conduct of his sailors while on shore. The wonderful remains of Anuradhapura, the famous capital of Ceylon twenty-one centuries ago, are shown in some beautiful pictures with descriptive notes by John M. Abbot, and three old ports on the Spanish Main, Cumana, La Guayra, and Maracaibo, are pictured in a similar manner by George M. L. Brown. The other contents are an illustrated account of Peary's expedition, and President Roosevelt's letter to the Congress of Irrigation Engineers on the two great undertakings of the Reclamation and Forest Services.

On Monday and Tuesday the Anderson Auction Co. of this city will sell the library of the late Elliott Coues, the eminent ornithologist. The scientific portion of the library, mainly ornithological, comprises 369 lots, and includes some rare and valuable books on birds, many being presentation copies. The "Catalogue of Birds in the British Museum," twenty-seven volumes, is an unusual set, and has never before come up for sale at auction in this country. Baird, Brewer, and Ridgway's "North American Birds," three vol-

umes; Cassin's "Birds of California," and "Illustrations of the Nests and Eggs of the Birds of Ohio," by Genevieve E. Jones and Eliza J. Schulze; all with colored plates, are among the more notable works. The miscellaneous library contains some desirable items of Americana, such as the first edition of Patrick Gass's "Journal of Voyages and Travels of a Corps of Discovery Under Capts. Lewis and Clark," Pittsburgh, 1807; D. W. Harmon's "Journal of Voyages and Travels in the Interior of North America," 1820; and Alexander Henry's "Travels and Adventures in Canada," 1809. The hulk of Dr. Coues's scientific and personal correspondence, comprising some 23,000 autograph letters of men of greater or less prominence, will be sold in twenty-three lots, one thousand letters in each. In his later life, Dr. Coues became interested in theosophy and kindred subjects, and received a number of autograph letters from Madame Blavatsky.

Finance.

A RAILWAY REPORT IN "BOOM TIMES."

Annual reports of railways are likely to be regarded, by people not concerned with transportation or with the investment markets, as dry and dull. On occasions, however, they are eloquent as a reflection of material conditions in a particular region or in the country as a whole. The report of the Union Pacific Railway, published Tuesday, is a striking instance of this sort. In October, 1893, when the shock of financial panic was beginning to subside, the Union Pacific was unable to meet its obligations. It was placed in receivers' hands, and did not emerge from bankruptcy until July, 1897. Even then, it was restored to solvency only after the old stockholders had paid a cash assessment of \$9,000,000, and the old mortgages had been scaled down, in interest or principal, on condition of a "bonus" in new stock.

At the time of its collapse, Union Pacific relied for income on a community that was itself on the verge of insolvency. The railway traversed Kansas and Nebraska—States where the fall in wheat had impoverished the farmers, at a moment when forced calling of loans by Eastern markets had confronted the same farmers with disaster; it also crossed Colorado, where the silver-mining industry was shutting down. The political revolt of the section, instanced by the fact that both Kansas and Colorado voted for a Populist as President in 1892, only reflected the agricultural and industrial distress. In 1893, Union Pacific's net earnings from its traffic decreased 30 per cent. from 1892, and it fell \$2,500,000 short of earning its fixed charges. At that time there was a widespread belief that the communities in question were industrial wrecks, and that both grain-growing and silver-mining were destined to be unprofitable.

The recovery of that region from its depression and discouragement is one of the most dramatic stories in financial history. Before election day in 1896, India's wheat crop of that season failed, and American wheat, which the Bryan campaigners had declared could never, under the gold stan-

dard, rise in price again, once more sold at a dollar a bushel. Less than a twelvemonth after the 1896 election, shortage in all of Europe's crops, coinciding with an abundant American harvest, gave Kansas and Nebraska farmers the most profitable season since 1879. Debits were paid off; industry revived; bank balances accumulated. The revival did not stop with foreign crop shortages. As prosperity returned to American industry in general, one of its most striking results was a greatly increased demand for agricultural products. A series of almost unprecedentedly large harvests, sold at highly remunerative prices, so far enriched the crop-growing States that, in place of the story of "Eastern capital loaned in the West," we began to hear of "Western bank funds outstanding on Wall Street." Such "interior loans," these last few years, are believed to have run above the one-hundred-million figure.

The reorganized Union Pacific began to pay dividends on its new preferred stock in 1898, and resumed dividends on the common stock in 1900. Its net receipts from transportation, which were \$5,602,000 in the first year after its reorganization of 1897, had risen to \$17,767,000 in 1900, and in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1906, are now shown to have been \$30,317,000. In place of the bankrupt treasury of ten years ago, the current annual report makes the remarkable showing, along with other assets, of \$21,258,000 cash on hand or in bank, and of \$34,716,000 lent out on call in the money market.

The Union Pacific is not alone among railway companies in evidencing by such extraordinary figures the change in the country's position. Its case is peculiarly interesting, because its recovery from complete insolvency to possession of wealth not dreamed of by any railway a dozen years ago, is typical of the spectacular change in the community which it serves. This chapter of history, both of the railway and of the region from which it draws its prosperity, adds point to the comment frequently made by foreign observers, on the remarkable extremes reached in the upward and downward swings of American prosperity. Naturally, such an episode sometimes prompts the thoughtful to curious conjecture as to the next chapter.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baldwin, May. Peg's Adventures in Paris. Dutton. \$1.50.
 Baldwin, May. That Little Lamb. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
 Barrett, Alfred Wilson. Father Pink. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. \$1.50.
 Blanchard, Amy E. The Four Corners. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
 Bowen, Marjorie. The Viper of Milan. McClure, Phillips & Co. \$1.50.
 Buffum, George T. Smith of Bear City and Other Frontier Sketches. Grafton Press. \$1.50 net.
 Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress. Dutton. \$2.50.
 Butterfield, Virginia M. Parental Rights and Economic Wrongs. Chicago: Stockham Publishing Co.
 Candee, Helen Churchill. Decorative Styles and Periods in the Home. F. A. Stokes Co. \$2 net.
 Cartwright, Julia. The Early Work of Raphael. Dutton. 75 cents net.
 Cellini, Benvenuto. The Life of. Written by himself. 2 vols. Brentano's.
 Chapin, Anna Alice. The Heart of Music. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.60 net.
 Cipriani, Lisi, dc. The Cry of Defeat. Boston: Richard G. Badger. \$1.25.
 Clark, Andrew. A Bodleian Guide for Visitors. Henry Frowde.
 Corolla Numismatica. In Honour of Barclay V. Head. Henry Frowde. 30s. net.
 Cromarsh, H. Ripley. The Secret of the Moor Cottage. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. \$1.25.
 Curtis, Isabel Gordon. The Making of a Housewife. F. A. Stokes Co. \$1.50 net.
 Davidson, Thomas. The Philosophy of Goethe's Faust. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents net.
 Dixon, James Main. Matthew Arnold. Eaton & Mains. \$1.

Downey, David G. Richard Watson Gilder and Others. Eaton & Mains. \$1.
 Ellis, Edward S. River and Jungle. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. \$1.
 Essays on Shakespeare. By Leo Tolstoy, Ernest Crosby and G. Bernard Shaw. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
 Fairy-Gold Fairy Tales. Chosen by Ernest Rhys. Dutton. \$2.50.
 Fairy Ring. Edited by Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora A. Smith. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Fitzgerald, Hugh. Sam Steel's Adventures. Chicago: Reilly & Britton Co. \$1.
 Fletcher, Robert Huntington. Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature. Vol. X. Boston: Ginn & Co.
 Friends' General Conference, Proceedings of. Philadelphia.
 Games Book for Boys and Girls. Dutton. \$2.50.
 Garrod, H. W. The Religion of All Good Men. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Gate of Death: A Diary. Putnams. \$1.25 net.
 Guerville, A. B. de. New Egypt. Dutton. \$3 net.
 Gwynn, Stephen. The Fair Hills of Ireland. Macmillan Co. \$2.
 Hawkes, Clarence. Shaggycoat. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
 Hildreth's Japan as It Was and Is. Edited by Ernest W. Clement. Chicago: A. C. McClure & Co.
 Hilgard, E. W. Soils. Macmillan Co. \$4 net.
 Hulbert, Archer Butler. Pilots of the Republic. Chicago: A. C. McClure & Co.
 Hurton, Edward. Sigismondo Malatesta. Dutton. \$4 net.
 Iorio, Adrian J. My Lady's Point of View. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co.
 Jenks, Jeremiah W. Great Fortunes. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Johnson, Willis Fletcher. Four Centuries of the Panama Canal. Henry Holt & Co. \$3 net.
 Keys, Alice Maplesden. Cadwallader Colden. Macmillan Co. \$2.25 net.
 La Chanson de Roland. A Modern Translation by J. Gaddes. H. Macmillan Co. 90 cents net.
 Leighton, William. A Scrap-Book of Pictures and Fancies.—Whisperings of the Sphinx. Chicago: K. R. Donnelly & Sons Co.
 Lindsay, Anna Robertson Brown. The Warrior Spirit in the Republic of God. Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.
 Lockwood, Frank C. Robert Browning. Eaton & Mains. \$1.
 London, Jack. Scorn of Women. Macmillan Co. \$1.25.
 Lushington, Mrs. Manners. The School for Donkeys and Other Stories. Dutton. \$1.25.
 Maitland, F. W. Life of Sir Leslie Stephen. Putnams. \$4.50 net.
 Malloch, Douglas. In Forest Land. Chicago: American Lumberman.
 Mann, Arthur Sitgreaves. Prince Ivo of Bohemia. Grafton Press. \$1 net.
 Marabell, William. The Rise of Man. Published by the Author. \$1.50.
 Maclair, Camille. Antoine Watteau. Dutton. 75 cents net.
 Metcalf, Suzanne. Annabel. Chicago: Reilly & Britton Co. \$1.25.
 Mills, Wesley. Voice Production. Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$2 net.
 Minor Poets of the Caroline Period. Edited by George Saintsbury. Vol. II. Henry Frowde. 10s. 6d. net.
 Montmorency, J. E. G. de. Thomas à Kempis: His Age and Book. Putnams. \$2.25 net.
 Morrow, Albert S. The Immediate Care of the Injured. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co. \$2.50 net.
 Muckerstrum, Louis. Louis' Mixed Drinks. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co.
 Orezy, Baroness. I Will Reply. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
 Paris, Gaston. Littérature Française au Moyen Age. Paris: Armand Colin.
 Periam, Annina. Heibel's Nibelungen. Macmillan Co.
 Phillips, Le Roy. A Bibliography of the Writings of Henry James. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3 net.
 Pilgrims' Way. Chosen by A. T. Quiller-Couch. Dutton. \$1.25 net.
 Prichard, K. & H. Don Q. in the Sierra. Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$1.50.
 Rattermann, H. A. Oden, Lieder, und Gedichte. Cincinnati: Privately printed.
 Ravenel, Mrs. St. Julien. Charleston: The Place and the People. Macmillan Co. \$2.50 net.
 Records of the Virginia Company of London. Edited by Susan Myra Kingsbury. 2 vols. Washington, D. C.
 Remington's Newspaper Directory, 1906. Edward P. Remington. \$5.
 Rickett, Arthur. The Vagabond in Literature. Dutton. \$1.50 net.
 Rutherford, E. Radioactive Transformations. Scribners. \$3.50 net.
 Sacred Seasons. Readings from the Writings of Handley C. G. Moule. Dutton. \$2 net.
 Sharp, William. Fair Women. Dutton. 75 cents net.
 Shoemaker, Michael Myers. Winged Wheels in France. Putnams. \$2.50 net.
 Smith, E. Boyd. The Story of Pocahontas and Captain John Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2.50 net.
 Squires, Grace. Merle and May. Dutton. \$1.50.
 Stockham, Alice B. Baby-Craft. Chicago: Stockham Publishing Co.
 Symons, Arthur. Cities. Dutton. \$2.50 net.
 Trine, Ralph Waldo. In the Fire of the Heart. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Van Dyne, Edith. Aunt Jane's Nieces. Chicago: Reilly & Britton Co. \$1.
 Wharton, Anne Hollingsworth. Italian Days and Ways. Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$1.50 net.
 Williams, J. E. Hodder. The Life of Sir George Williams. A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$1.25 net.
 Williams, Neil Wynn. The Electric Theft. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. \$1.50.
 Wilson, Floyd B. Through Silence in Realization. R. F. Fenno & Co. \$1.
 Young, George. Corps de Drott Ottoman. Vols. IV. to VII. Henry Frowde.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 6, 1906.

The Week.

No one calls this an era of good feeling, politically speaking, yet it has proved nearly or quite the best year in this country's history for those who appeal for votes on the ground that there is nothing to choose between Democrats and Republicans. The minor parties, which do not learn their standing and successes until the curiosity of every one else is satisfied, are only now celebrating their triumphs in the recent election. We have heard but little from the Populists, to be sure, but the publications of Socialists and Prohibitionists are full of cheering news. Such phrases as "100 per cent. gain," "200 per cent. gain," "300 per cent. gain," are scattered liberally through their organs. Instead of a dispersed vote, of no importance anywhere, the minor parties now seem able, by vigorous campaigning with good candidates, to cut pretty deep into the solid party votes. The same growth of independent sentiment which made the voters discriminate between Hughes and his colleagues in this State, or between Johnson and his in Minnesota, has weakened greatly the force of blind partisan loyalty against which the independent or third-party candidate always had to contend. The immediate result is that our legislatures are ceasing to represent only two parties. Out of all the legislatures chosen in 1904, the Populists had 2 members in Alabama, the Prohibitionists 2 in Illinois, and the Socialists 5 in Wisconsin. The Socialists have increased their legislative membership in Wisconsin, and elected for the first time members in Illinois, Florida, and virtually in Pennsylvania, where two candidates of the Federation of Miners have been sent to Harrisburg. The Prohibitionists have gained three members in Minnesota, one in West Virginia, and at least one additional in Illinois (where the cumulative system of voting improves the chances of third candidates). A Prohibition nominee with Republican endorsement was elected in New York, and one with Democratic endorsement in Massachusetts. Thus, however slight the influence such scattered fighters may be able to wield, the reforms for which they stand will at least cease to be voiceless.

The postal service has always been in this country the standard example of Government ownership and operation. On the one side, its low rates are contrasted with the high rates of the express companies; on the other, its re-

curring annual deficit is pointed to as conclusive evidence that a private corporation could do the work better. Last week, a group of Chicago capitalists actually made the formal offer before the Congressional commission to take over the Post Office bodily. The private firm professes itself willing to cut first and second-class rates in half, giving penny letter-postage, yet at these figures to wipe out the deficit, make 7 per cent. profit for the company itself, and turn all receipts above that rate into the Treasury. What has the Department itself to offer by way of alternative? Well, the most concrete proposal at present seems to be that of Third Assistant Postmaster-General Madden, to the effect that the rate on periodicals be raised from one to four cents a pound. Beyond the quadrupling of this single rate, against which convincing arguments can certainly be urged, there are no innovations in sight. Probably a well-managed corporation could bring about an equilibrium between receipts and expenses, with the present extent of the service. But the publicly managed Post Office attained this equilibrium in the eighties, before rural free delivery was invented. If it had not been for that innovation, there would have been no deficit, as careful computations show, for three years past. Neither rural delivery nor the low second-class rate was originally adopted as a pure business proposition. Congress regarded both as measures of general public good. We do not suppose for an instant that Congress will give such a stupendous contract to any private interest. But the incident ought to have a wholesome effect notwithstanding. This year's deficit is four million dollars less than last year's. There are ten millions more to be saved. What would happen if the railway contracts were scrutinized as microscopically as the second-class list?

Rear-Admiral G. A. Converse's proposal to remove the marines from our men-of-war will renew an old and bitter controversy. For years before the war with Spain the navy was divided into two camps—those who favored the retention of the marines on ships, and those who wished them removed. The leaders of the latter faction were the then younger officers, headed by Lieutenant (now Commander) Bradley A. Fiske. The war in Cuba and the Philippines, resulting as it did in the enlargement of the Marine Corps, and in the increased activity of the navy, ended the controversy temporarily. The marines are an exceptionally fine and an ably-officered body of men. Their presence on warships is, however, a survival of the days when the sailors were

the scum of the earth, impressed men, ex-convicts, and gutter-snipes generally. A strong and well-disciplined guard was then necessary to prevent mutiny and disorder. The modern sailor resents having a guard over him, and this part of the marine's work is now of so little importance that he is used to man a gun, just like the bluejacket. For landing parties and quick service like that in Cuba recently, the marines are still of great value, as they are a very mobile body.

The Standard Oil Company's appeal *ad misericordiam* is comic, bathetic, or exasperating—according as one takes it. That this overgrown corporation should fall a-whimpering when it is spanked, speaks more for the power of public opinion than for the power of reason in its managers. What they say about the extent and importance of their export trade, and of the competition they have to meet abroad, is perfectly true; but if they imagine that considerations of that kind will make people overlook what they have done at home, they evidently have not the faintest notion of the popular odium under which they rest, or of the public with which they have to deal. To beg for support as a great patriotic institution, is not only impudent, even for the Standard Oil, but wholly aside from the real point at issue. That is merely whether these supplicating gentlemen are or are not law-breakers. Detailed charges that they have repeatedly and knowingly violated the statutes have been officially made against them, and suits are now pending in the courts to determine whether they are criminals. Until that question is decided, we think their confidences had better be confined to their lawyers, and that their begging for mercy should be reserved for the judge, and not wasted upon a distinctly cold public.

"It is a murder trial solely and simply," says Gov. Gooding of Idaho regarding the approaching trial of certain officers of the Western Federation of Miners, for complicity in the murder of ex-Gov. Steunenberg. Now that the Supreme Court has disposed of the allegation that the extradition of the men was illegal, there is no excuse for making it appear anything but a trial of individuals for a definite crime. A few months ago in this city some thousands of Socialists were marching under red flags and transparencies to protest against the "railroading" and attempted "murder" of Moyer, Haywood, and Pettibone. The highest court of the land has now held that the method by which the accused men were brought from

Colorado to Idaho was legitimate. It remains for the authorities of the latter State to carry out their admirable determination, "that the men accused of the murder of ex-Gov. Steunenberg should have a fair and impartial trial before the best and squarest jury that Idaho could produce; that they should be completely cleared if innocent, and hanged by the neck until dead if guilty." There undoubtedly exists in the mining States a hostile sentiment quite as unreasoning and as little entitled to respect as that of the agitators who cried "judicial murder" half a year before the trial was set. But Idaho has such a chance as seldom comes to any commonwealth for impressing the lesson that the law is above any special interest, whether of capital or labor.

The trial of Cornelius P. Shea, the head of the Chicago Teamsters' Union, who was able to paralyze the business of that city last winter and fill its streets with rioters, should be overlooked by no student of labor unions. The Garment Workers' Union, having a little strike of its own on hand, wanted aid. According to the testimony of Albert Young, who has turned State's evidence, the agent of the Garment Workers distributed \$1,500 among six leaders of the teamsters, for the purpose of "buying a strike" of their men. Young was not very enthusiastic over this, because the teamsters were getting on well with their employers, had no complaints, and "ought not to get into trouble." But the \$1,500 did its work. Out of "sympathy" for the down-trodden garment workers, the teamsters struck—with what consequences for the city our readers may remember. Hundreds of thousands of dollars were lost to employers who could not move their goods, and to employees thrown out of work—merely in order that Shea and his followers might each put less than \$300 into his pocket. This sordid story could be duplicated in many sections of the country. Such crookedness damages the cause of labor unions more than all the machinations of capital.

Richard Olney has an article in the *Inter-Nation* welcoming the advent of organized labor in politics. What is plainly in the mind of this old-fashioned Democrat, is an acute realization of the peril lest our system of government, and the American ideals underlying it, be harmfully modified. He dreads the gradual disappearance of equality before the law. The mounting arrogance of special privilege is as alarming to him as it is hateful; and he looks about for some political force which may be powerful enough to stay these evil tendencies. Mr. Olney enumerates the ends for which organized labor ought to strive in politics. They are worthy ends

—equal opportunity for all men; no taxes laid to enrich particular classes; opposition to graft and extravagance, however disguised; the abolition of paternalism in government. It is undeniably true that labor unions, like all other associations of citizens, ought to contend mightily for these political principles. But can Mr. Olney open his eyes and look full at organized labor as we know it and still say that he perceives any such motives operative? He has only to read the official programme of the Federation of Labor to discover that what we have in trades unions in politics is only another class seeking special privileges. Nothing that the beneficiaries of protection ever asked, or that a moneyed oligarchy, thinking itself in control of government, ever greedily sought, is more grossly selfish, or discriminates more sharply against outsiders, than the avowed aims of trades unions. Labor leaders are not so much concerned to do away with the oppression by the tariff, as to win the legal power to do some oppressing on their own account. This is not strange. The protective system is bound to bring forth its perfect work in thus drugging the public conscience. When men are long accustomed to seeing a certain class empowered to tax their fellows, under the guise of protection, it is not surprising that they prick up their ears and set about getting their share of the plunder. Instead of correcting the abuses of special legislation, labor unions, taking to vote solidly, would only extend and heighten them. "They do not know men," said Burke of certain political philosophers of his day. We fear that it must be said of Mr. Olney that his idealistic article shows that he does not know labor leaders.

We note with pleasure the formation in Atlanta of a "Christian League" for preventing further mob outbreaks and aiding in the solution of the race problem. It is being organized by the Atlanta Business Men's Gospel Union, of which ex-Gov. W. J. Northen is president, in cooperation with the ministers of the city; and it is noteworthy that members of both races are asked to join. Its members are expected to "constitute themselves a sort of Southern legion of honor, hoping to be more powerful in preserving patriotism and high morality than all laws or law officers." If this sounds somewhat extravagant, the fundamental idea is one that cannot be too highly commended. Why there should not be a "steering committee" in each town and city, composed of the best and broadest of both races, has long puzzled the outside observer. Such committees could accomplish much in preserving the peace and in uplifting the negroes. The white members would find the colored ones ever ready to re-

spond to wise leadership and anxious to control and punish the criminal blacks.

Gross receipts of \$127,559.40 in 1905—these indicate what a business Harvard athletics have become. Football is, of course, the great money-maker, the receipts from that sport being \$85,353.66, "breaking all records" by \$17,000. Significantly, the expenses of training the team also increased from \$10,000 to nearly \$30,000—the latter sum being required to train forty or fifty men for a period of eight weeks, and pay salaries to trainers during the rest of the year. It must not be forgotten, however, that both this season and last the graduates were called upon to contribute to the salary and expenses of the head coach, whose dismal failure at New Haven is now a matter of record. Plainly, the itemizing of the \$30,000 expenses is something to be studied with care. The net football earnings last year were \$55,000, and of this sum \$27,000 was utilized to make good the deficits in other branches of athletics. Obviously, the English and the West Point custom of taking no gate-money for amateur matches, if introduced at Harvard, would necessitate a complete overhauling of our athletic methods. Yet we believe that the more publicity is given to the annual financial statements of our colleges, the more people will favor the adoption of the English system. The anomaly of a football team earning \$55,000, when the public and graduates are being urged to give money to meet legitimate university expenses, affords ground for thought—and action.

The new director of the German Colonial Department has found a novel use for African dependencies. The following is from the report of Herr Dernburg's maiden speech in the Reichstag: "Rebellious natives, though he regretted to have to make the assertion, had one advantage; namely, that of developing firmness of character in the colonists." In other words, if German Southwest Africa is a bit too arid to produce anything worth exporting, and a bit too hot to support a European farming population worth speaking of, it is nevertheless inhabited by a number of sturdy, fighting tribes, whose activities serve to make the colony an admirable field for nurturing in the German immigrants those military virtues which prolonged peace in Europe may have tended to weaken. It is a pity that this pedagogical theory of colonization was not explained to the Herero insurgents about a year ago. If they had been made aware that continued resistance on their part only served to emphasize the qualities of courage, initiative, and swiftness of action in one of the *Kultur* nations of Europe, they would not have interrupt-

ed the good work by surrendering inconsiderately after losing only 55,000 out of 60,000 souls.

News of the strife in Prussian Poland over the enforced use of German in the public schools, points to a growing restlessness among the minor Slav peoples of central and southern Europe, who have apparently succumbed to the violent epidemic of political megalomania now sweeping the globe. Pan-Americanism, Pan-Germanism, Pan-Islamism, Pan-Ethiopianism—we seem to be on the verge of Pan-everythingism. Greater Britain, Greater Scandinavia, and Italia Irredenta, face almost their burlesque in the demand for a Greater Serbia or a Greater Croatia. It is true that the weak peoples are herein acting in no spirit of mimicry, but rather under compulsion through the advance of the giant races that threaten to engulf them. The movement for a Greater Moravia is essentially a reply to Pan-Germanism, as the movement for a Greater Illyria is the reply to wide schemes of Magyar ambition. To compass these programmes would only result in a patchwork map as crazy as that of the ancient Germanic empire. The influences that have encouraged the present striving among the minor races of Austria-Hungary and elsewhere have come primarily from Russia. The great lesson of the Russian revolution for the inferior races of Europe is that constant struggle for the preservation of national identity, no matter how seemingly hopeless, is justified because of the possibility of a political cataclysm that may make the dominant sovereign of to-day helpless to-morrow. Who would have ventured to predict, three years ago, the chance of dissolution threatening the huge mass of the Russian Empire, or greater liberties for the Armenians or the Jews, or a self-governing Poland? Yet a Russia reorganized as a federation of autonomous states is not beyond the possibilities of the near future. Indeed, federalism as the solution of the racial problem in Europe may prove to be the great contribution of the Russian revolution to the West as democracy was of the French revolution.

France and Germany, jealous and opposed in so many respects, are in unison at least in the matter of due protection of literary property. The agreement of 1883 between them has now been amended, extending the period during which an author may control the right of translation. Formerly, it was only ten years; hereafter, it is to run as long as the copyright. The new rule is to go into force with the meeting of the Berne Convention, two years from now. To that Convention nearly all civilized countries now subscribe, except

the United States. Our Government would like to do so, but a higher power—namely, the Typographical Union—prevents it. Rumania is also a nation that has not yet adhered to the Berne Convention for the international protection of literary and artistic property. But she appears to be preparing to align herself with England, France, and Germany, thus making the American isolation in literary barbarism the more pronounced. The Congress of Literary Property recently met at Bucharest, and the signs are reported to be flattering that the Rumanian Government will soon be found among the Berne signatories.

Norway is soon to rank with Belgium and Switzerland as a neutralized state, with its independence and integrity guaranteed by the Powers. While the tendency, nowadays, is to regard the neutrality of such states, in case of a great European war, with a good deal of skepticism, they nevertheless have a certain demonstrable value in times of peace as virtual little museums or laboratories of statecraft, where new political ideas may be tried out and exhibited under special circumstances, on the chance that they may prove acceptable to the more powerful governments. Switzerland, of course, is the classic home of the referendum, and Belgium has demonstrated the fairness and practicability of proportional representation so successfully as to make the adoption of the system in the new Transvaal Constitution a possibility. So, too, the cause of international peace may draw appreciable profit from these small buffer states, as examples of prosperity and content without the drawback of militarism.

Faced by the possibility of a madman on the throne in the person of the present Crown Prince, Servian politicians and military leaders are reported to be planning the overthrow of the Karagevitch dynasty and the substitution of a member of some sovereign German house. Palace murders, pretorian elections, and a royal blood tainted with madness, yield a startling parallel between Imperial Rome and the little Slav Kingdom. The situation also emphasizes the swift pace of modern life even in so remote a corner of Europe. It took the Bavarian house of Wittelsbach a thousand years to spend itself in a succession of insane kings; and the misfortunes of the Hapsburgs are accounted for by an equally long period of sovereign power and interbreeding. But from the outlawed Black George who made an independent Serbia, to the son of Peter I., is just three generations; while only two generations intervened between the founder of the rival line, Milosh Obrenovitch, and his impossible

grand-nephew, Milan I. In the meanwhile, it would appear that the poor younger sons of German princely houses are truly blessed, for in the course of time they are bound to inherit the Balkans.

News of the discovery of manuscripts in Central Asia, at least one in an unknown tongue, raises some hope of solving the great historical riddle of the Tartar Empire. We have reason to suppose that in high antiquity Central Asia was dominated by a Tartar race of considerable civilization. Sven Hedin and other travellers have found great cities half-buried in the sands of Turkestan, relics, apparently, of the race that overran Russia and actually conquered China; but so far we are quite without literary documents of these people, being dependent for their history on the testimony of their enemies. We seem to trace their influence in the designs on textiles and ceramics in Central and Western Asia; but such evidence is naturally of a slight and dubious kind. It has been hoped that the Pumpelly expedition would throw some light on these matters, but so far preliminary surveys have revealed chiefly the remains of very primitive peoples. If a German scholar is indeed to bring us information on the early history of the Tartars, it will be a sort of compensation for the havoc that German aniline factories are working in the splendid rugs of the Turcoman region.

Lovers of the picturesque should welcome the news of the abandonment of St. Helena by its British garrison. The greater part of the inhabitants, numbering some 3,500, will probably emigrate, since there are practically no industries on the island. This is as it should be. It was always an anomaly to think of St. Helena as an island like any other island in the gazetteer, with a population, and exports and imports, and savings banks, and possibly even a race-suicide problem. Deserted, it becomes a monument and assumes its proper sublimity as the rock on which Great Britain chained the Promethews of European democracy. It is no doubt a pity that some thousands of peaceful natives should suddenly be deprived of all means of livelihood and be compelled to seek their fortune elsewhere; but a thousand lives or so are not a large item in the total bill of Napoleonic glory. As a matter of fact, the poorest among the inhabitants, who are a mixture of white, negro, and Chinese blood, will probably remain on the island scratching some sort of living out of the volcanic soil. Clambering over the site of Longwood, they will only add to the picture by enacting the part of the Bedouin tethering his horse in the ruins of Baalbec.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

The President's Message is so long that few people will read it through. We cannot but regard a less lengthy document, which deals with a few important subjects, as far more effective. Such a Message—like Cleveland's famous deliverance on tariff revision—concentrates public attention and thus, indirectly at least, spurs Congress to move along the desired lines.

On two matters of actually pending legislation, the President speaks briefly. A bill to prohibit corporations from making political contributions has already passed one house of Congress. Mr. Roosevelt urges its final enactment. He might have referred with regret to the scandalous diversion of the money of policyholders in aid of his own election; but he has, at any rate, recommended a wholesome and needed law. Congress should give heed. Another bill, that for shipping subsidies, has gone through the Senate and is now before the House, and the President was expected to bestow upon it his blessing. But it is only half-hearted support which he accords this measure. He thinks that something ought to be done for our merchant marine; admits that preceding subsidy bills have been "objectionable"; declares that the pending bill is "as nearly unobjectionable as any can be"; but goes on to say that "if it prove impracticable" to pass it, he hopes that, at least, provision will be made for better communication with South America. This is too plain a preparation of a line of retreat to promise hard fighting. It goes with Mr. Roosevelt's description of himself some time back as "not much of a subsidy man." His failure now to make a "ringing" appeal for the bill will put heart into its opponents, and we hope foreshadows its defeat.

Two aspects of race prejudice the President discusses at much length. With most of what he says on lynching (almost wholly a race question) we thoroughly agree, and his appeal for equal opportunities for blacks and whites, in the schools and in the trades, is manly and truly democratic. Turning to our treatment of the Japanese, the President uses great plainness of speech in denouncing anything like discrimination against them. His recommendation that the Japanese who desire it be allowed to become naturalized American citizens will not be popular on the Pacific Slope; but international decency will remain international decency, and President Roosevelt deserves high praise for exalting it as he has done.

The chief interest of his message lies, however, in his discussion of the courts and injunctions; his new plans for control of corporations by license, or otherwise; and, above all, his coming out for a graduated inheritance tax and a graduated income tax. These tax laws he does

not urge Congress to enact; they are for the "future"; and the reasons for presenting these projects to Congress at the beginning of a short and crowded session are not apparent. Nor does the President urge his proposals for taxation as a means of raising revenue. Had he spoken out for the abolition of inequitable and oppressive tariff taxes, and then proposed these other taxes in order to provide the needed revenue, the scheme would have worn a different air. Whatever may be the Constitutional and other difficulties in the way of a graduated income tax, there is much to be said in favor of a graduated inheritance tax. Economists whose orthodoxy is unquestioned have approved this device. But they have approved it as a means for securing the money to carry on government. President Roosevelt emphatically bases his argument on another principle—his desire to reduce "swollen fortunes" and to promote a greater equality between the classes. We are not advocates either of swollen fortunes or inequality, but we do not believe that under our democratic polity the Government may safely attempt the regulation of this matter. We would have the laws against oppression by combinations of capital severe and severely enforced. We think imprisonment rather than mere fines the proper penalty for officers of corporations which defy the law. But, with full realization of the perils of capitalism, we cannot look with anything but dread upon attempts to limit the size of fortunes honestly acquired. That way danger lies.

The President is firmly convinced that he is a moderate man. He professes great abhorrence for "sinister demagogues." They are almost as hateful to him as "ultra-conservatives." He is the safe man of the middle course. His radicalism is of the sort necessary to preserve the Government. The benevolence of his intentions is, we grant, beyond question. Yet the good will of a President and the amiability of a Legislature are no warrant for an innovation that smacks not of the freedom and individualism of our political system, but of meddling paternalism.

THE NEXT WAR.

Japan has suddenly taken the place of Germany as the country that "we must fight next." Of course, we have got to fight somebody. That is one of the fixed points. To let our navy rust unused would be sinful—a manifest impairment of the vested rights of our shipbuilders. Besides, some nation or other is always getting too insolent, and needs to have its comb cut. Seven years ago, the swaggerer that it was our bounden duty to trim was Germany. Admiral Dewey himself had said it; and every grocery-store oracle could explain to you just why it was necessary for the Unit-

ed States to teach the Germans better manners. But that watched war has not boiled; and now we discover all at once that the great fight is to occur in another quarter. Japan, *voilà l'ennemi!* Such is to-day the watchword of the bellicose Washington correspondents. And every American official returning from the Orient is gloomily convinced that they are right.

To their godlike reason, looking before and after, the skies are filled with portents. The clash with the Japanese in California is only a minor incident. A race-struggle and a world-conflict are before us, if we may believe the prophetic imaginations of these young diviners of the newspapers. Is not the President visibly troubled? Then there is Secretary Root busily looking up precedents; while the Army and Navy Club is already deciding where the Japanese army of invasion will attempt to make a landing, and where the tremendous battle will be fought between the two fleets. And as for the bearing of the Panama Canal upon all this, any tyro can show that it is absolutely necessary to finish the canal before the Japanese move against us, and that at the same time it is absolutely certain that they will strike before we have got it finished. At present, says the *Paris Matin*, the Pacific Coast is "at the mercy of a Japanese surprise," so how can we expect the Japanese General Staff to be so stupid as to wait till we get them on the hip with our canal?

We have scarcely exaggerated, in the foregoing, the kind of talk which one sees more and more frequently in the press, and hears with increasing frequency in private conversation. Much of it, no doubt, is idle gossip—the sort of stuff that is all the while being invented to fill an empty column or a vacant mind. But it has a serious aspect. It betrays a misdirected and even dangerous mental habit. If a people is continually to echo Hamlet's estimate of bloody thoughts as the only ones of worth, from this time forth, the likelihood of bloody deeds following is inevitably strengthened. For a great industrial democracy to make war its preoccupation is not only absurd, but well-nigh criminal. Where the heart is, there will the treasure be also. Why should we think it necessary to fight anybody "next"? The steady ongoing of peace ought to be as much the basis of our hopes and calculations as is, to the farmer, the march of the seasons. War talk, even when there is actual danger of conflict, is usually a needless inflammation; in time of assured peace, it is nothing less than incendiary.

It would certainly be a portentous thing if the *ultima ratio* of kings should become the first resort of democracies. Yet to such a result does all this rash and premature muttering about going to war surely tend. Patient investigation

and honorable adjustment will come to be regarded as too slow and irksome. In the present friction with Japan, for example, there is not a particle of reason for supposing that the matter cannot and will not be peacefully and satisfactorily arranged. It is no occasion to complain that the Japanese are "cocky." If they are, we do not know what would be the proper adjective to describe the Californians in their dealings with the emigrants from Japan. What is certain is that the Government of Japan is asking only what she is entitled to as a nation with an assured rank now among the great Powers, and what she at least may assert as a *prima-facie* right under her treaty with us. It is clear, too, that Secretary Root is bent on doing all that he can to settle the difficulty in a way to redound to the honor and sense of justice of both countries. Under these circumstances, the duty of real patriots is to uphold the efforts of the Administration to arrive at a peaceful solution, and not to go about predicting war and bragging of the way in which we are going to whip the Japanese.

No one has advanced a single credible reason why the Japanese should want a war with the United States. Japan has all she can do to stagger under the burdens of her war with Russia. In the way of expansion and chances for her commerce, she has all that she can at present desire in Korea and Manchuria. On our side, we are under heavy bonds to keep the peace. Our presence in the Philippines makes it imperative, as Congressman McCall has again pointed out in the *Atlantic*, for us to avoid a conflict with Japan, since we should lose those islands at the outbreak of hostilities. But all military and Imperialistic questions aside, our responsibilities and opportunities as the leading republic of the world put their veto upon such a war. We could wish that they also stopped silly talk about it.

THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman scarcely exaggerated when he declared recently that the Lords had made of the Education Bill a "travesty" of the measure which was passed by the Commons. That the Peers would alter the bill in some particulars was fully expected; that they have made havoc with it, in the face of numerous warnings, has enraged the National Liberal Federation. The Archbishop of Canterbury admits that the Lords have gone "too far," and intimates that the time for haggling is at hand. Meanwhile, the situation has revived the old discussion whether the House of Lords should not be abolished. It is a great opportunity for the Radicals; indeed, Mr. Lloyd-George has been stumping the country for months, declaring that the upper house should be

thrown on the political scrap heap as soon as possible.

That any radical action will result from the opposition of the Lords is not at all likely. The Premier is determined that there shall be no tampering with the main principles of the bill, and insists that a way can be found to make the wishes of the country prevail. But that does not mean that the House of Lords will be done away with overnight. Lord Rosebery once said that "it must mend or end," and there are plenty of ways of mending it or of forcing it to yield to the will of the people, before abolition need be considered seriously. Moreover, this talk of abolishing an upper house is not always confined to England. There have been times in this country, notably when the Senate was so slow in repealing the Sherman Silver-Purchase Act in 1893, when there were loud calls for its extinction. Undeniably, however, there has been a steady growth of feeling in England against the Lords. This is largely based upon its general ineffectiveness. Yet thousands upon thousands of middle-class Englishmen fairly blessed the Peers when they put an end to Gladstone's Home Rule bill. Then faults were speedily forgotten, and the House of Lords appeared the saviour of the nation which the traitor Gladstone wished to dismember. A similar change of sentiment has been observed in the United States when the Senate rejects hasty and ill-considered legislation sent to it by the representatives.

Had Mr. Gladstone desired to abolish the House of Lords, 1893, when the second Home Rule bill was defeated, was the right time. Yet the Liberal Government not only declined to lead a crusade against the upper chamber, but even failed to avail itself of the opportunity to force measures through by the same means which carried the Reform bill of 1832—the creation of a large number of Liberal Peers pledged to vote for the desired legislation. This recourse was easier in 1832, when there were less than 400 lay and spiritual Lords, than to-day, when there are over 600. Indeed, if the present Prime Minister were desirous of packing the House, he would have to induce the King to create more than one hundred Liberal Peers. The threat of such action would undeniably influence the Peers not a little; for the older nobility is by no means desirous of having the aristocracy further enlarged. The use of such a threat has, moreover, always been held legitimate in bludgeoning the Lords.

Aside from those who, like John Burns and Mr. Lloyd-George, insist upon abolition as the only remedy, many persons offer plans for improving the procedure and membership, before destroying a body which, they maintain, can be made a valuable check upon the Com-

mons. Take the Trades Disputes bill, awaiting action by the Lords. Thousands of Liberals, otherwise in sympathy with the Government, earnestly hope that the Lords will defeat a measure which makes of the trades unions a privileged class in the eyes of the law. These remonstrants recall Oliver Cromwell's words: "I would not undertake such a Government as this unless there might be some other persons that might interpose between me and the House of Commons, who had the power to prevent tumultuary and popular spirits." They remember, too, that no Constitutional writer of any standing has asserted that Great Britain or its colonies can safely be governed by a single Chamber.

As a writer in the *Nineteenth Century* has pointed out, the Conservatives themselves have several times moved in the direction of reforming the Lords. In 1887, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach urged a "wise and careful change," which should give the Peers "greater popular authority and weight" than they possess. He wished the Lords to purge themselves of their black sheep, and suggested the awarding of life peerages, similar to those now held by lawyers and bishops, to able laymen. W. H. Smith, long the Conservative leader of the House, was then certain that a reform must speedily come from the Conservative party and the Lords themselves. In accordance with this view, Lord Salisbury in 1888 introduced a bill for the creation of life peerages and the elimination of disreputables. He had twenty years previously declared that it was the duty of the Lords to yield whenever "the opinion of your fellow-countrymen has declared itself, and you see that their convictions—their firm, deliberate, sustained convictions—are in favor of any course." Otherwise, he added, "the machinery of government could not be carried on." If public opinion is outspoken enough now, the House of Lords will yield. If not, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman may seize this occasion to insist upon changes which shall make the Lords a really responsible and hard-working legislative body.

THE KÖPENICK CAPTAIN.

Wilhelm Voigt, the renowned "Captain von Köpenick," has done much more than give all Germany the heartiest laugh of a generation. It was not because of his impudence and daring that the press persistently refused to regard him as an ordinary malefactor, and that his mild sentence of four years has pleased the public. Gifts of money and clothes, the promise of an annuity, and offers of aid of one kind or another, have poured in on him from all over Europe; his achievements have already been dramatized, and, until the police interfered, Germany was deluged with

picture post-cards celebrating his feats. Yet none of these things can be accredited to love of the startling, or to the German sense of the humorous. There is a deeper reason. It is as an unwitting protest against police tyranny and militarism run mad that Voigt's spectacular impersonation has struck home with the masses.

Badgered as they are by iron-handed authority, the people openly rejoiced that the laugh was on those whom they too often regard as their natural enemies. And when the criminal was, by the merest accident, captured, the story of his life made him friends wherever it was told. He had gone wrong when very young and forged a postal order; for this act he served no less than ten years. Coming out of prison helpless and friendless, always under police surveillance, he was next caught in an attempt to rob the strong-box of a court. He and his accomplices were armed when taken, but made no use of their weapons; they had hardly begun the breaking and entering when arrested; yet his sentence was fifteen years. That this was barbarous injustice Voigt has insisted since his arrest, with the newspapers agreeing. Moreover, when he complained of this wrong at his trial, the court went out of its way to confirm his assertion that the sentence was indefensible, and that he had been illegally deprived of the right of appeal.

But the folly of the state did not end there. Serving his full fifteen years, Voigt left jail determined to lead an honest life. He settled first in one town, then in another. In one he plied his shoemaker's trade diligently, and established an excellent business. And then the police ordered him to move on. Wherever he stopped, the result was the same: the police demanded his papers, found him to be a jail-bird, and compelled him to go elsewhere. With the authorities apparently bent on making it impossible for him to be decent, he hid himself in Berlin and thought out, by himself, a plot which shows that under more favorable circumstances he might have been a man of force, with an honorable career. It is this phase of Voigt's story which has stirred all Germany, this revelation that the police would make a man once a criminal always a criminal. The passport system—advocated by Senator Tillman and others for Southern negro criminals since the Atlanta riots—stands revealed as a method of placing a man's destinies absolutely in the hands of the police. They decide where he shall live and whether he shall have a chance to rehabilitate himself.

Naturally, Voigt's biography has brought out other stories of injustice. A man caught in the act of stealing a pair of slippers was thrashed by the owner and allowed to go. But a policeman who witnessed the affair saw to it that the

culprit received eight years at hard labor. Plainly, the German criminal code—indeed, the whole attitude of the Government toward the criminal—calls for a complete overhauling. The newspapers and individuals who are urging reform are naturally grateful to the Captain von Köpenick; his feat has called public attention to abuses which might otherwise have lacked publicity for years to come. Capt. Dreyfus's martyrdom accomplished much for the reform of French military procedure; the Captain von Köpenick may achieve in the history of German penology a similarly honorable position. Wherever his story is read, it should prompt people to ask whether modern humanitarian methods determine their country's treatment of all offenders.

As for the military side of the incident—the German uniform has been of late years a modern form of Gessler's hat, before which all must bow down. Army officers have ever been a privileged class; but their privileges have never ranked more than to-day, thanks largely to the propaganda of the Socialists. So much toadying to the war-lords has made possible the spectacle of a physically broken ex-convict who had never shouldered a rifle, assuming the rights of a captain, issuing orders to common soldiers, and seizing a whole town. Such an absurdity brought many persons back to earth. The spread of civilization is steadily subordinating the profession of arms; any attempt to make of its members a supreme social class, aristocratic and overbearing, is bound to fail. For, sooner or later, there will always come a shoemaker from his last to show how easily a uniform may be donned, a swagger assumed, and the hero of braid and brass reduced to terms of flesh and blood.

LAFKADIO HEARN ON STYLE.

Among the hundred and one points of interest in the correspondence of Lafkadio Hearn are certain observations on the writer's art. Whatever Hearn was or was not, he was one of the finest artists in words of our time, and fully conscious of the processes that made his own style. One should recall also that few writers have shown his capacity for self-improvement. Beginning as an avowed adorer of the French Romantics, he fairly outbid them in the tropical exuberance of his early works. After forty, and as a result of his increasing interest in psychology, he forged himself an English of extraordinary delicacy, reserve, and precision. He did this in the face of what would seem insuperable obstacles. Beginning with the scantiest education, he was for a score of years an active journalist—the worst training, one would imagine, for the attainment of anything like severity or preciousness in style.

He succeeded, perhaps, through the clearness with which he distinguished between his journalism and his literature. Writing to his friend, the musical critic, H. E. Krehbiel, he says:

Let me dwell upon an art principle. Both you and I have a *trade*: journalism. We have also an *art*: authorship. The same system of labor cannot be applied to the one as to the other without unfortunate results. Let the trade be performed as mechanically as is consistent with preservation of one's reputation as a good *workman*. . . . But when it comes to writing a durable thing—a book or a *brochure*—every line ought to be written at least twice, if possible *three* times. . . . In the very act of copying, new ideas of grace, force, and harmony will make themselves manifest. Without this, I will venture to say, fine literary execution is *impossible*.

Clearly, this is pretty much Flaubert's creed of the "single word" that is worth vigils and fasting; and Hearn continues to preach the true doctrine to his friend, by counselling the perusal of etymological dictionaries. "Such books give one that subtle sense of words to which much that *startles* in poetry and prose is due."

A query and an exception to this view must be dealt with. Is Hearn's attitude to journalism quite fairly expressed in the above words? and, is style so purely a verbal matter as this passage implies? As for the first question, Hearn's associate on the New Orleans *Times-Democrat* can witness that he was reckoned as very much more than a good workman. He readily gave the surplus of effort that he recommended another to withhold. Indeed, his work for this newspaper was, on the whole, the rarest bit of luck that befell him. Nowhere but in New Orleans could he have written for a public to which translations of Gautier and Loti were an attractive journalistic feature. We doubt, also, if there was another office in the land where Hearn's luscious, yes, over-luscious, fantasies would have possessed permanent "news value." In short, this young genius was enabled to make a living from the unlikeliest source—in a sense, to ply his experiments in literature at the expense of the enemy journalism. The transaction naturally does honor both to himself and to his employers, but the passionate quest of the rare word and perfect phrase in those New Orleans days hardly explains the writer he afterwards became.

As everybody knows, he pretty well gave over his especial ambition for a poetical prose—"like chants wrought in a huge measure, wider than the widest line of Sanskrit composition, and just a little irregular, like ocean-rhythm"—and sought the more compact forms. He imperilled the considerable popularity his ornate style had won him for the sake of a larger intellectual satisfaction. In the same letter of 1886 in which he advises Krehbiel to scamp his

journalism for his literature, Hearn writes:

A friend disciplined me to read Herbert Spencer. . . . I found unspeakable comfort in the sudden and, for me, eternal reopening of the Great Doubt, which renders pessimism ridiculous, and teaches a new reverence for all forms of faith.

This experience pretty well marked the end of his Romantic absolutism on the score of style. But it is interesting to note that the conception of style as the inevitable expression of a richly stored personality had come to him even earlier. Writing in 1883 to the Rev. Wayland Ball, Hearn describes the four things that "enrich fancy"—to wit, mythology, history, romance, poetry. He urges that the "monstrous and the terrible" should be cultivated especially—true Romantic doctrine this—then, as if capturing a new idea in flight, he adds:

But there is one more absolutely essential study in the formation of a strong style—science. No romance equals it. If one can store up in his brain the most extraordinary facts of astronomy, geology, ethnology, etc., they furnish him with a wonderful and startling variety of images, symbols, and illustrations. With these studies I should think one could not help forging a good style at least—an impressive one certainly.

It must be said that this novel theory is held in somewhat crude fashion. Cumulation is still the ideal, and rhetorical perfection the goal, but there is in the passage, all the same, an inkling of that strange mixture of impressionistic vision with scientific analysis which gave Hearn his unique position in English letters. It might, indeed, be argued that those last fruitful years of his life were consumed in subduing the romanticist to the scientist. How difficult the readjustment was, many of the letters from Japan attest.

Hearn's problem, taken broadly, is very much that of modern literature. We need a reconciliation of some sort between the freedom, nay, the caprice, of the instinctive artist, and the scrupulous method of the man of science. There surely will never be a time when the matter of verbal ingenuity will be unimportant to a true man of letters; but it will be increasingly important to perceive that the pen writes merely out of the fulness of the whole experience behind it. In this sense, Lafcadio Hearn's admonition that, with all a literary man's getting, he should get science, is likely to remain a guidepost. Perfection certainly lies nearer that road than it does to the short-cut of the etymological dictionary.

NEW HEAD OF THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

The trustees of the Smithsonian Institution, at their meeting on Tuesday, elected as secretary and executive head, in suc-

cession to the late Samuel Pierpont Langley, Henry Fairfield Osborn of this city. He has not yet announced his decision in regard to accepting the place.

Professor Osborn, one of the best-known American scientists, was born in Connecticut in 1857. At the age of twenty he obtained his bachelor's degree at Princeton. He has since received several honorary degrees from universities here and abroad. Three years after graduation he was appointed assistant in comparative anatomy at Princeton. His rise in his profession was rapid. He is now Da Costa professor of zoölogy at Columbia, and curator of vertebrate palæontology in the American Museum of Natural History; he is also vice-president and trustee of the latter institution. He has held many positions of distinction: Vertebrate Palæontologist of the Canadian Geological Survey, 1901-1903; since 1900, Palæontologist of the United States Geological Survey; president of the American Society of Naturalists, 1891; vice-president (section of zoölogy) of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1892; second vice-president of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1897; president of the American Morphological Society, 1897; president of the Marine Biological Association, 1898-1900; and vice-president of the New York Zoölogical Society. He is a member of numerous learned bodies, American and foreign. He has also been a prolific writer, both of popular articles and papers intended for specialists. Notable among his recent contributions to science is his work on the fossils of the horse family. This bare enumeration of his activities, and the recognition which he has received from scholars in all parts of the world, are evidence that he is a scientist of unusual equipment.

The choice of a new head for the Smithsonian brings up the question as to the scope and possibilities of the Institution. The secretary as well as the trustees should always bear in memory the motto on the Smithsonian seal. "For the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." Situated as it is at the Capital, the National Museum, which is an integral part of the Institution, has a peculiar duty. For one thing, the Museum should be made to tell the whole story of America, in an orderly manner, under the direction of men who know what to place on exhibition for the instruction of the crowd and what to put away in storage vaults and laboratories for the use of trained investigators. At present, the failure to observe this distinction with care lessens the usefulness both of the public exhibits and the material reserved for research. First, there should be exhibits throwing all the light possible on the archæology and ethnology of the continent up to the time of discovery; second, historical material showing the effects of occupation by Europeans; and, third, complete illustration of natural resources.

Often the facts could best be presented by geographical sections. Industries of New England, let us say, made possible in the beginning by abundance of water power, might form a chapter in themselves. Agriculture and mining, forestry and fisheries, with all their allied activities, also call for logical treatment with reference to localities. There might be, for instance,

a room or alcove for Montana, with a relief map of the State, books and photographs pertaining to its history, its industries, its progress in arts and sciences, its libraries, schools, and government, as well as specimens of its minerals and plant and animal life; everything, in fact, worth knowing about Montana. The work of the army, the navy, and weather bureau might be set forth by themselves as in the exhibits in the Government buildings at the fairs in Chicago, St. Louis, and Portland. The plans for safeguarding public health should have their special place, and so on through the long list of Federal activities. This plan would also provide for adequate exhibits of American contribution to all the industrial arts and all the fine arts. There should be a comprehensive system of cross references to documentary and other material available in the library of Congress and the several departments of the Government. And the whole should be in charge of experts, whose duty it should be to aid visitors and students. The educational value of a great National Museum so arranged would be incalculable.

Men capable under competent direction of recasting the present Museum on these lines are already on the ground. The experts of the Smithsonian Institution and National Museum are admirably trained. But they need sufficient funds and an able chief to block out the work. For the Museum even to approach such a standard, the man chosen to administer its affairs must be more than a very great scientist. He must be a teacher as well as an investigator, and full of enthusiasm for his work of popularizing the institution. He must also have the success-winning qualities of the college president, not excepting the ability to state the needs of his plan so convincingly, to Senators and Representatives especially, that funds for maintenance and development will be readily forthcoming; for while the Smithsonian Institution is well endowed, the Museum, by means of which the more effective teaching is done, depends almost wholly upon appropriations by Congress.

The late Secretary Langley was not such a man as we have in mind. He was an accomplished scientist, and his ability was generally acknowledged; but his brother scientists called him a narrow physicist, and to the public, unfortunately, he was a sort of exalted Darius Green, who devoted his energies to his own hobby. Langley invented the bolometer, which measures the heat of a candle flame a quarter of a mile away, but he could not make a Congressman see beyond his own nose when the need of an appropriation for the National Museum was under consideration. People in general and statesmen in particular were bores to Dr. Langley; they were not even interesting specimens worthy of classification and study. Langley's predecessor, and the second Smithsonian secretary, Spencer Fullerton Baird, who served from 1873 until 1887, was of a different type altogether. He was a naturalist of the comprehensive school. He made the National Museum popular, and without setting apart a number of exhibits labelled "Children's Museum," he always bore in mind the fact that childish comprehension in matters scientific is not at all

a matter of years. When the Museum needed money, Baird would tuck a case of butterflies under his arm and go up to the Capitol, where he would gather a group of Congressmen about him and talk to them so entertainingly about his specimens that for the time being they would believe that there was nothing so worth while as natural history and the National Museum. Baird, never a slave of pure science, made no distinction between practical and theoretical biology. He founded the Fish Commission, and, as a specific illustration of his success in practical undertakings, fostered the shad fisheries along the Atlantic coast so that they became of great commercial importance. It is by the display of such qualities of scientist, teacher, diplomatist, skilled administrator, and practical man of affairs that the new incumbent must hope for success.

THE PARIS BOOK SEASON.

PARIS, November 20.

French novels, perhaps, most interest the world, but they are neither in quantity nor quality foremost in the exuberant output of Paris books. The most notable, and the highest in point of sale, is Marcel Prévost's "Monsieur et Madame Moloch," which in ten days reached its forty-second edition. As it appeared first in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, it should be a bid for the next election to the French Academy, for which the author is ripe. It is an international romance, making known to French and Latins generally the German as he is to-day, and not as he was yesterday, that is, "before the war" when the Rhine was romantic. "Germany of revric and poetry and analysis is the true, the holy Germany; that of the swashbucklers is a spurious and passing Germany!" There is less of the psychology of women and more mature thought than in any other of this writer's books—and this is a great deal.

A voice from the past is Henry Céard's "Terrains à vendre au bord de la Mer" (Seaside Lots for Sale). The author is one of Zola's five disciples, who in the full flush of Naturalism wrote the "Soirées de Médan," from which Maupassant leaped into fame. Of the others, Paul Alexis is dead—a light that failed—Hennique has dropped behind, while J. K. Huysmans, a convert to Catholicism, has just poured his Naturalist soul into a book of etchings, cruel and sweet, of the crowds of Lourdes. Céard, who was an acrid theatrical critic, long since withdrew from the Paris world, and this first book of his for many years, in its already antiquated methods and standards, is like the story-telling of some long since *blasé* Rip van Winkle. Like those of his school, it is a long, concentrated, photographic, relentlessly uncharitable and unideal history of natives and summer visitors of a corner of Brittany.

The yearly volumes of Jules Verne are still appearing in course; and there may be others still to come from the dead author, who wrote industriously so as to be ahead of his contract. Ernest Daudet, elder brother of Alphonse, and more voluminous as a writer, gives another of the historical romances with which he intermits his regular line of Revolutionary history; the "Comte de Chamarande" is the tale of an

émigré who takes refuge from the Terror in London and returns to France for Bonaparte. The reading of his love episode does not prevent us realizing an epoch of history by the way. Historically, the work of Ernest Daudet is of high excellence and deserves to be better known abroad; he is the chief authority on the Emigration, and has had the papers of Louis the XVIII. to aid him.

In strict history, greatly cultivated from both the documentary and literary sides in France, we have the anecdotic "Paris sous Napoléon" of Lanzac de Laborie, a third volume, "Court and Town—Life and Death"; and Maurice Dumoulin's entertaining "Figures du Temps passé." Roger Boutet de Monvel has a more exhaustive volume than exists in English on "George Brummel et George IV." The Vicomte de Reiset, whose family has been mixed up with royal Legitimacy, has a book on the eccentric, half-heroic "Duchesse de Berry (1816-1830)"; and F. Nicolay brings out unpublished documents on "Napoléon Ier au Camp de Boulogne." The youth of "Louis XI. (1423-1445)" is studied by Marcel Thibault.

In Church history there is a new volume of Professor Brébier's "L'Église et l'Orient au Moyen Age," on the Crusades; a substantial thesis from the University of Helsingfors on the Holy See and Sweden (1570-1576), by Henry Biaudet; and an independent summary of results of recent research, "Manuel d'Histoire ancienne du Christianisme," by Prof. Charles Guignebert, whom a university thesis on Tertullian accredited some years ago. His present volume, "Les Origines," takes the sources of the history, Palestinian Judaism, the facts of the life of Jesus, the Judeo-Christian churches, Paul's life, missions, and churches, the Church of Rome—all down to the end of the first century.

In books for the man and woman of letters, picturesquely portraying the results of travel in the open air and in libraries, we have the veteran Michel Bréal's "Pour mieux connaître Homère," situating the poetry in Time and Space; and that amiable and advancing writer, Henry Bordeaux's "Paysages Romanesques," taking us to Germany, from Henry Heine's house to that of Beethoven, with Goethe and Victor Hugo by the way. The "Souvenirs d'un Peintre," by André Beaunier, has glimpses of the Commune and all that agony of an age which is gone within the memories of men. The indefatigable and always entertaining Academician, theatrical critic, university professor, and review writer, Émile Faguet, has "Amours d'Hommes de Lettres" (Pascal, Corneille, Voltaire, Mirabeau, Chateaubriand, Lamartine, Guizot, Prosper Mérimée, Sainte-Beuve, George Sand, and Alfred de Musset). Léon Séché has two volumes of the gossip dear to the modern heart, "Alfred de Musset"—family, comrades, women. To "Gérard de Nerval," who, mad as he was, shines not the least in the Romantic movement, Gauthier-Ferrières devotes a documentary and final volume; and Professor Lanson publishes the volume on "Voltaire" in the scholarly and readable series of "Grands Écrivains Français."

There are a few books of travel, or their equivalent, worth reading for pleasure as well as profit: "Un Crépuscule d'Islam," by André Chévrillon, the nephew of Taine, who has applied his philosophy, learning,

and descriptive ability to the city of Fez. With this may be taken the important book of a member of Neo-Islam, Israel Hamet, "Les Musulmans Français du Nord de l'Afrique." Charles Pettit, who has already shown that he knows from the inside the life of China, has another novel deep in its frivolities—"Le Chinois de Mademoiselle Bambou." "Trois Ans à la Cour de Perse" is by Dr. Feuvrier, who was the Shah's physician. A book stuffed with facts and compendious for American reference is "l'Émigration Européenne au 19^e siècle" (Great Britain and Ireland, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Russia), by Professor Gonnard of Lyons.

For those who have not yet learned that Décadents are things of the past, quite spluttered out, a little book "La Nouvelle Littérature" (1895-1905), by MM. Casella and Gaubert, will be an eye-opener.

Of books about books and writers, we have a posthumous "Esquisse Historique" of French literature in the Middle Ages, by the lamented Gaston Paris; it adds the fifteenth century to his work published in 1888; also, Marius Michel's "La Chanson de Roland," on the epic influences of chivalric poetry in Europe "persisting until this present"; a small book situating "Montaigne, Amyot, Saliat," by J. de Zangroniz; a "Port Royal" edition of Pascal's "Pensées," after original MSS., with notes, facsimile, index, and concordance, by that zealous surviving Jansenist, Professor Gazier of Paris. In Alcan's series of Philosophers by writers conversant with medieval commentators on Aristotle, is a volume on Plato, by Professor Piat of the Catholic Faculty. Prof. Paul Stapfer has "Études sur Goethe," in connection with Lessing and Schiller, and concerning "Werther," "Iphigenia," "Hermann and Dorothea," and "Faust." Madame Goyau (Lucie Félix-Faure) publishes another of her studies in various literatures, "Ames Païennes, Ames Chrétiennes," noteworthy for a refined and religious French appreciation of Christina Rossetti. There are three volumes of Henri Brémond's books on Newman—Development Theory, Psychology, Christian Life—all three crowned this year by the French Academy. A. Feugère, also from a Catholic point of view, studies Lamennais before his really epoch-making book "Essai sur l'Indifférence." And then we have the "Cahiers de Jeunesse (1845-6)," from Ernest Renan himself; the second volume is to appear at Easter; both are edited by his daughter, the wife of Professor Psichari of Paris.

Of high thinking on subjects of pressing interest, we have a volume of M. Brunetière's papers, "Questions Actuelles," dealing, among other things, with Evolutionary Morals doctrinally, with the Pacifist Lie, and Classic Humanities. M. Mermeix, an industrious and trained compiler, has a book on Socialism, which is fairly complete as an exposition of the theory.

Among classics—that is, books for classes in and out of school—two might well interest American students of French: the first of the three volumes devoted to an "Anthologie des Poètes (1866-1906)," and Maurice Bouchor's "Théâtre pour les Jeunes Filles," including such subjects as Nausicaa, the First Vision of Joan of Arc, Sleeping Beauty, and Cinderella—all good literature and versification. S. D.

Correspondence.

EDWARD IRVING AND THE "PROPHETESSES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Andrew Lang, in his reference in your issue of November 22 to the forthcoming biography of Edward Irving, speaks of some of the outward manifestations attendant upon the public ministry of this Scottish preacher and divine. Mr. Lang adds: "As far as I am aware, the Rev. Mr. Irving himself disliked all these . . . gabblings in unknowable tongues." Permit me to bring to the attention of your readers some evidence on this point; and in doing so I trust Mr. Lang will not consider it an unwarranted intrusion.

The intimate relation between Edward Irving and Thomas Carlyle is well known. Carlyle says of Irving after the death of the latter in 1834: "My poor first friend, my first and best!" The following account may then be accepted as correct. In a letter to his mother of date October 20, 1831, Carlyle says:

I dare say you have not seen in the newspapers, but will soon see something extraordinary about poor Edward Irving. His friends here [London] are all much grieved about him. For many months he has been puddling and muddling in the midst of certain insane jargonings of hysterical women and crackbrained enthusiasts. . . . This, greatly to my sorrow and that of many, has gone on privately for a good while with increasing vigor; but last Sabbath it burst out publicly in the open church; for one of the "Prophetesses," a woman on the verge of derangement, started up in the time of worship, and began to speak with tongues, and, as the thing was encouraged by Irving, there were some three or four fresh hands who started up in the evening sermon, and began their ragings. . . . Happily, neither Jane nor I were there, though we had been the previous day. We had not even heard of it. When going next evening to call on Irving, we found the house all decked out for "a meeting" (that is, about this same "speaking with tongues"), and as we talked a moment with Irving, who had come down to us, there arose a shriek in the upper story of the house, and presently he exclaimed, "There is one prophesying; come and hear her!" We hesitated to go.

All this, much as it grieved, did not take away the faith that Carlyle had in his friend and his life work. Tenderly and beautifully he conveyed to Irving's mother his conviction:

Tell her that her son did not live for Time only; but for Eternity too; and that he has fought the good fight, as we humbly trust, and is not dead, but sleepeth. ["Thomas Carlyle, a History of the First Forty Years of His Life," Volume II., Froude.]

HENRY T. ROSS.

Ottawa, Ontario, November 27.

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have ready for publication a new and revised edition of "An Introduction to the Study of Browning," by Arthur Symons; "A Crystal Age," by W. H. Hudson; "Local and Central Government, a Comparative Study of England, France, Prussia, and the United States," by Percy Ashley; "Act of State in English

Law," by W. Harrison Moore; "Footsteps of Proserpine"; "Constantine the Great," a tragedy; "Savonarola, a City Tragedy," and "Kiartan, the Icelander, a Tragedy," each by Newman Howard.

We are to have this month, from Putnams, the new "Life of Walter Pater," by Thomas Wright. This is said to contain a large amount of valuable material that was not touched by previous biographers; and in particular to bring out the relationship between Pater and Richard C. Jackson, his closest friend, who was the original of Marius, the Epicurean.

Putnams have just issued the fourth series of "The Shelburne Essays," by Paul E. More. A number of these essays appeared originally in the *Evening Post*, but they have been considerably revised and enlarged for republication. The present volume deals with R. S. Hawker, Fanny Burney, Keats, Herbert, Franklin, Lamb, Walt Whitman, Blake, Milton, and Walpole.

Brentano issues the "Tales from Shakspeare" by Charles and Mary Lamb, in two volumes of handsome print. Canon Ainger's Introduction is retained, and the engravings by Anker Smith, Schiavonetti, and others. The style of the volumes, like Lamb's text, is fitted for adult readers rather than for children.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have made a holiday book of the chapter in Maeterlinck's "Life of the Bee," which tells the story of "The Swarm." Trees and bee-hives and fences, all a pale green, are blotched over the pages.

Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. have an attractive series of slender books printed at the Merrymount Press, each containing an essay or address on some question of the day. A few of these we may name without further comment: "Putting the Most into Life," by Booker T. Washington; "American Character," by Brander Matthews; "The Happy Family," by George Hodges; "Great Riches," by Charles W. Elliot; "Friendship," by Thoreau; "Saint Francis of Assisi," by Oscar Kuhns.

The Century Company adds three more volumes to its Thumb-Nail Series: Emerson's "Friendship and Character," Edward Everett Hale's "Man Without a Country," and "The Book of Proverbs." These books, of genuine pocket size and with their stamped leather covers and typography by the De Vinne Press, have something of the charm of the season about them.

The H. M. Caldwell Co. issues Ruskin's "King of the Golden River" and Dickens's "Sketches of Young Couples" in pocket-size volumes bound in limp red leather.

Those who care for humor of a rather obvious and very American type will find it in the pictures and rhymes that go to make up "Why They Married," by James Montgomery Flagg. The book bears the imprint of the Life Publishing Company.

Shorn of its glamour of slang, Mr. Ade's humor turns out to be of thinner substance than we supposed. The same thing might happen to Mr. Dooley stripped of his brogue, but we do not think it would. We have all heard of "American humor," but America or no America, a difference subsists between a clown and a comedian, a jester and a humorist. Mr. Ade's "Pas-

tures New" (McClure, Phillips & Co.) somewhat feebly recalls "Innocents Abroad." This escaped American comments with casual facetiousness upon various superficial aspects of European travel; assisted by one Peasley, an American of the drummer type, who amuses Mr. Ade immensely. The only really humorous chapter in the book is the one on "French justice as dealt out in the Dreyfus case." Mr. Ade uses the figure of dog-stealing that was suggested by Mr. Dooley at the time of the Dreyfus trials; and develops it successfully. Of "Dissertations by Mr. Dooley" (Harper & Bros.) it need only be said that F. P. Dunne holds his own. His present series of dissertations deserves a place with its forerunners. The present reviewer can hardly express his opinion of Mr. Dooley's quality as a humorist more forcibly than by confessing that on his own shelf the philosopher of Archey Road is flanked on the one side by the Autocrat, and on the other by Hosea Biglow.

In his impressionistic descriptions of "Cities," which appeared originally in the magazines and are now published in book form by E. P. Dutton & Co., Arthur Symons is quite at his best. "As you know, and, I sometimes think, regret, I am one of those for whom the visible word exists, very actively," he writes in the Dedication; "and, for me, cities are like people, with souls and temperaments of their own." My Symons is rather fond of the word soul, and uses it when others would think of some combination of colors and scents belonging rather to the body than to any spiritual substance. And so, in these chapters, it is witchery of fine sensations that characterizes Rome or Seville or Prague or whatever city Mr. Symons visits. Eight excellent photogravures make this one of the most acceptable of the holiday books.

An attractively printed volume of "Addresses of John Hay" (The Century Co.) brings together twenty-four miscellaneous pieces, presumably all that it has been thought proper to reproduce in permanent form. The papers vary greatly in length and character, from such extended addresses as those on Franklin and McKinley, the New York Chamber of Commerce address on "American Diplomacy," and the speech at Jackson, Mich., on "Fifty Years of the Republican Party," to short responses at dinners, dedications, and other public functions. Most of them have already seen the light in newspapers or magazines, but two or three, prepared but not delivered, are apparently now published for the first time. Some of the short addresses are models of appropriateness and form, and the volume as a whole illustrates very well Mr. Hay's graceful style, his refined and pervasive humor, his happy faculty of saying the right thing at the right time, and his ability to handle serious matters with a light touch. With these qualities, which gave him distinction as a man of letters, went also an almost religious regard for the principles of the Republican party, a genial contempt for political independents, and a leaning towards hero-worship; but while the addresses here collected show these traits also, they show still more the generous cosmopolitan culture which, next to his sense of humor, made John Hay one of the best poised statesmen of his time.

Senator Henry Cabot Lodge's latest volume of historical miscellanies bears the title "A Frontier Town, and Other Essays" (Charles Scribner's Sons). The "frontier town" is Greenfield, Mass., at whose one hundred and fiftieth anniversary Mr. Lodge was the orator. Of the other papers and addresses which the volume brings together, the eulogy on Senator George F. Hoar, pronounced before the Massachusetts Legislature in January, 1905, is the most notable, though the portrait of Samuel Adams, reprinted here from the W. A. Wilde Co.'s "Stepping Stones of American History," is a sound piece of popular historical writing. Such titles as "Good Citizenship," "The Senate of the United States," and "Certain Principles of Town Government" represent topics on which Mr. Lodge, whatever the vagaries and errancies of his political career, has usually written informally and interestingly. As a whole, the contents of the volume have less distinction than the same author's "Fighting Frigate and Other Essays," but that any man in public life should be able to write so much and so well is itself gratifying.

The late Bishop B. F. Westcott left in manuscript a fairly complete commentary on Paul's Epistle to the Ephesians, together with some scanty notes on topics pertinent to the subject. The task of editing this material was committed to the Rev. J. M. Schulhof of Clare College, Cambridge, who in this edition (Macmillan Co.) has given the commentary proper practically as it is in the manuscript, and has added, partly from the writings of Dr. Westcott, and partly from other sources, an Introduction, a series of additional notes, the text of Codex Amiatinus, and the English versions of Wiclif and Tyndale. Probably most posthumous editions of this character are unsatisfactory. The book is a fragment, and as such is to be estimated.

The fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, first known as the *Frankfurter Handelszeitung*, was recently celebrated by elaborate ceremonies in which the city authorities took prominent part. Those of the State and nation might even have shown their good will; for there are few newspapers of the *Frankfurter Zeitung's* independence, ability, and worldwide fame. But, as is recorded in the ponderous tome of one thousand pages which lies before us as a more permanent memorial of the semi-centennial, the Prussians have never been friendly towards the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, which, in 1866, they drove to Stuttgart for a brief exile of three months. For the Imperial authorities, this liberal journal has too often been a thorn in the flesh. They cannot ignore it; for it is the ablest financial newspaper in Germany, and is to be found in every café in Vienna and every club in London, beside having subscribers in every German hamlet. Not even Bismarck could purchase it or shape its policy. Its courageous and able writing is marked by a vigor and a style all its own. The modern tourist in Frankfurt is shown the Goethe birthplace and the *Römersaal*; he should also have the home of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* pointed out, if he would see a chief factor in the city's amazing rise and prosperity. This semi-centennial volume, "Geschichte der Frankfurter Zeit-

ung," is really a detailed history of Germany from the Liberal point of view, since the founding of the newspaper. Its course in matters social, political, and financial is set forth with accuracy and detail. The list of reforms for which it has contended is endless; it has fought the good fight for a democratic State founded on the broadest kind of suffrage. Opposition to a dangerous militarism and to an overgrown navy has been as much a part of its propaganda as its demand for modernization of the penal laws, for freedom of thought, of speech, and of trade, for a free press, for amelioration of social conditions, and its resolute criticism of Germany's colonial folly. Its reviews of American financial happenings and of our railway development have contributed greatly to the movement of German capital to this country and the marketing of American railway securities on the Continent. Again and again, notably in the vicissitudes of the Northern Pacific Railway, it has shown a noteworthy insight into affairs on this side of the water, and a correctness of judgment which has been amply demonstrated in the lapse of time. That so independent a newspaper has flourished in the face of official dislike and the hatred of the aristocratic ruling classes is in itself a testimonial to the soundness of the *Frankfurter Zeitung's* views. Whoever studies this record of its activities must feel that it contains inspiration for independent journalists the world over.

"Hahshurger Anekdoten" is the title of a volume of anecdotes and personal incidents relating to members of the Hapshurg dynasty from its founder, Rudolf I., to the present Emperor, Franz Joseph I., covering a period of more than seven centuries. The material is collected by the head of the Imperial Family Library, Dr. Franz Schnürer, and published by Robert Lutz in Stuttgart. Many of the stories go to show that the present sovereign of Austria has not only shown remarkable insight and energy in promoting the educational, commercial, and industrial development of the country, in opposition to strong reactionary influences, but is also known for his kind heart and sympathy. The Emperor is very fond of children, and a charming story is told of the manner in which he was led to distribute the plume of green feathers on his hat as souvenirs among the pupils of a school which he visited. Another act evincing fine feeling was the gift of a life seat in the opera house to an officer, who had been made blind by a wound received in battle, and who had a strong passion for music.

In the *Revue de Paris* for November 1 and 15, Professor Brunot presents the report of the commission entrusted with the task of preparing a simplified French orthography. The commission numbered among its other members M. Croiset, Dean of the Faculty of Letters of the University of Paris; Paul Meyer of the *École des Chartes*, and M. Faguet of the Academy and the Faculty of Letters. The principles by which the commission was guided were the following: no innovation to be made that in any way clashed with the received pronunciation, as given in the Hatzfeld-Darmesteter "Dictionnaire Général"; compounds and derivative words to conform in

spelling to their originals; words otherwise related (as *baril* and *barrigue*) to be similarly spelled; no "etymological spellings" recording derivation from languages other than Latin to be preserved. The principal changes recommended are these: the circumflex accent to disappear, except over *a*, *e*, and *o*; the acute accent to be placed over all *e*'s not mute that are followed by a single consonant and a vowel other than mute *e*; the grave accent to be placed over all *e*'s followed by a single consonant and mute *e*; *oeu* to become *eu*; Greek *oe* and *y* to become *e* and *i*; *-ien-*, pronounced *-ian-*, to be written *-ian-*; *homme* and *femme* to be left undisturbed, as also the termination *-tion*; Greek *ph*, *th*, and *rh* to be written *f*, *t*, *r*; final *x* representing *s* to become *s*; *bb*, *pp*, *ff*, *gg* to be simplified everywhere; *mm*, *nn*, *tt*, *rr*, *ll* before final *e*, and *tt* before final *re*, to be simplified; in the interior of words to be retained if an actual double consonant is pronounced (as in *illogique*), otherwise their retention to be optional; *ee* to be retained only when actually double in pronunciation and when pronounced *es*; *equ* to become *qu*; *ek* to become *k*; *j* to be written wherever its sound occurs—perhaps the most radical change of all.

"Littérature Italienne," by Prof. Henri Hanvette of the University of Grenoble, is a new volume in the series of *Histoires des Littératures* (Paris: Armand Colin), a French collection which has much in common with Edmund Gosse's *Literatures of the World*. Professor Hanvette replaces Dr. Garnett's pleasantly garrulous compendium by a work of much surer learning, more rounded form, and wider generalizing power. The "Littérature Italienne" is an admirable example of the French art of the subordination of erudite details to order and lucidity. M. Hanvette is *du métier* in all things Italian (his recent *thèse* on Luigi Alamanni's *ristles* with learning through some 700 octavo pages); but in this charming sketch neither foot-notes nor bibliographical details disturb the continuity and effectiveness of the text. It is the best brief account of Italian letters that has been written by any scholar of trans-Alpine birth.

William Lee, the Boston publisher, died last Friday at Hampton, N. H. He was born in Boston in 1826, and when only eleven entered the book business, serving apprenticeships in several Boston houses. In 1860, with Charles A. Shepard, he started the publishing firm of Lee & Shepard. Mr. Shepard died, and in 1897 Mr. Lee disposed of his interest to the Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company.

A committee has been formed for the purpose of buying Coleridge's cottage at Nether Stowey, and preserving it as a memorial. While living there he wrote much of his best poetry.

The annual report on public libraries just issued by the Education Department of this State, is the most complete in its statistical tables that has yet appeared. It gives not only a comprehensive survey of conditions in this State, but reports many items of national interest, such as the year's library legislation in various States, gifts in the United States and Canada, the composition, resources, and work of various State commissions, and the proceed-

ings of national organizations. According to the report, the total number of libraries in the State, of a public or semi-public character, is 1,243, an increase of 103 during the year; the addition of new books amounted to 488,996 volumes, making a present total of 8,164,686. The year's increase in volumes circulated for home use was 1,035,167, making a present annual circulation of 13,266,779. These figures show a growth, during the twelve years that the present library law has been in force, of 100 per cent. in the number of libraries, of more than 200 per cent. in the number of volumes, and of more than 400 per cent. in the annual circulation.

MCMASTER'S HISTORY.

A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War. By John Bach McMaster. Vol. VI. 1830-1842. New York, D. Appleton & Co. \$2.50 net.

This volume covers only twelve years, but they were of great social importance. They marked the success of the democracy of the West in obtaining the Presidency, and the failure of that democracy to meet the requirements of the day. Much the same experience of political success and failure that characterized the rise and fall of the Virginia dynasty of Presidents was repeated in Jackson and Van Buren. The issue was the same—a recognition of a wider democracy. It would be absurd to compare Jefferson and Jackson; it would be equally misleading to draw a parallel between John Quincy Adams and Martin Van Buren; yet the darkness of defeat that temporarily obscured the development of Jeffersonian principles was not unlike that which overwhelmed Van Buren, and brought the South into a situation which politically paralleled the experience of Virginia upon a larger scale. As the development of Virginia was limited by the Virginia resolutions of 1798, so that of the South was restricted by the concentration of political thought and action upon States' rights, with special reference to slavery. To counteract this activity, an anti-slavery agitation and party rose in the free States, and in the resulting contest Jackson, and what he stood for, came to be as much out of date as Clay and his divided ambitions. The history of the Jackson-Polk régime is distinctly a history of the South and West.

The volume opens with the beginnings of Jackson's war upon the Bank of the United States, an application of Western ideas of finance, based upon a constitutional principle. A debate on a public land policy passed into a discussion of States' rights; and the same question appeared in an acute form in the nullification movement in South Carolina, where the inequalities of the customs tariff aroused such opposition that a separation from the Union seemed preferable to loss of liberty. This step was an interpretation of the Virginia resolutions of 1798, which even their framers would have repudiated. The growing agitation of the abolitionists aroused bitter feeling in the South, and gave occasion to a movement for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia; this movement in turn accentuated the unreasonable demand of the advocates of States' rights, consolidated the South, made the annexation of Texas cer-

tain, and provoked scenes in the House over the "gag rules" for rejecting petitions on slavery that, though not creditable to the dominant party, furnished a splendid occasion to the abilities and high patriotism of John Quincy Adams. The removal of the deposits and the following era of speculation brought financial disaster, and in the ruins Van Buren stood discredited as a party leader, to be succeeded by the amiable but ineffective Harrison. The volume closes with Tyler's second veto of the "fiscal corporation." In all this time States' rights, slavery, and fiscal monopoly were the issues; and these issues were raised by the South and the West.

It is because the questions of domestic policy were so largely economic that the course of the Jackson Administration is so interesting. To such matters Jackson himself had never given attention before his election to the Presidency. He was in favor of a "judicious tariff," whatever that might mean, but South Carolina looked upon him as a high protectionist; he was opposed to bank paper, but judged and condemned the Bank of the United States more because of alleged political interference than for actual banking reasons; the policy of internal improvements by the national Government he disapproved on constitutional, not fiscal, grounds, and the foolish distribution of the surplus was a substitute policy that immediately proved dangerous; his ideas on the payment of the national debt were sound, but in his rage against "bank monopoly" he destroyed what supplied a good foundation for the commercial interests of the country, as well as a convenient instrument for performing the fiscal operations of the Government. His successor paid the penalty politically. As a financier Jackson was ignorant, and the men around him were quite as ignorant. Ingham, Secretary of the Treasury, when asked for an opinion on the Bank, said he had not given the subject attention and had no suggestion to offer. Taney, who removed the deposits, was controlled by political, not financial, motives, and Woodbury could not forget his local prejudice against the great Bank. Moreover, the friends of the institution committed errors which played into Jackson's hands. Mr. McMaster does not give a summary of Adams's able report on the charges against the Bank, nor does he mention the tactical blunder of allowing Dallas, instead of Webster, to offer the memorial for a recharter. As a Pennsylvanian, Dallas claimed this as a right, but he made a very unsatisfactory exhibition. It was Van Buren who supplied Jackson with arguments against internal improvements, and it was from outside his Cabinet that the President conducted his campaign against the Bank, a campaign largely fostered by State banks which expected to be benefited by the destruction of their big rival. The sub-treasury system, that came in Van Buren's time as a substitute for the Bank, has proved unfortunate, and to this day exercises an influence upon the money market capable of being much abused.

It is not in describing financial and commercial questions that Mr. McMaster is strongest. To give the arguments on both sides, drawn from the debates in Congress, from newspapers and from controversial pamphlets is an excellent method, provided it is not carried so far as to confuse. The

reader is continually asking for some definite opinion upon matters so fully discussed, a summary of results that will throw some light upon the conclusions of so capable a student of history and so diligent an assembler of facts. Were those problems merely for the day, to be closed with the end of a session of Congress or with the end of the year? Was the attack upon the Bank justified? Was the tariff of 1828 really burdensome to the South, and did the compromise remove the cause of complaint? Were the people as a body interested in the overthrow of the Bank, or was it merely a question of Jackson's popularity, so strongly supported that he could undertake and carry through any measure he saw fit to make his own? Such questions multiply as the reader progresses, and in the mass of incident and multiplicity of detail, he seeks for something more than an orderly arrangement of material. The skill of the writer is undeniable, and his method lends itself to a vivid development of a single incident. Nothing could be better than the account of the Harrison campaign, where shouting and spectacular effects took the place of appeals to the reason of the voters. The withdrawal of small notes, by States and nation, the Buckshot and Aroostook wars, abolition troubles, reckless inception of internal improvements, and the progress of railroads may be cited as other examples of good work. But the stringing together of a number of such episodes, with little or no connecting thread, does not constitute history, and exposes a weakness in the writer's methods.

No definite idea is conveyed of the leading characters of those twelve years. The one glimpse of Jackson's dominating manner is given in the amusing account of his reception of the friends of the Bank; but this does not atone for neglect of many fitting opportunities for drawing his character. Jackson's growth in personal power and arrogance was the keynote of the time, and the issue in 1832 and 1836 was only Jackson and what he was supposed to represent. He could destroy Calhoun politically and impose Van Buren upon a somewhat reluctant party. He could force White into retirement, and effect the outlawry of Duane. His personality controlled the public measures, and he rode roughshod over men and opposition, making his will the law, and opposition to himself treachery worthy of severe punishment. He gloated over his victories, however gained, and exulted as eagerly over the defeat or downfall of his friends who questioned or opposed his course, as over the political death of his enemies. All this it would be difficult to gather from Mr. McMaster's pages. The Swartwout appointment, made against the most solemn advice of Van Buren and many New York politicians, is not mentioned; nor is so much as a paragraph given to the separation between Jackson and Calhoun, which resulted so disastrously to the latter, and threw so little credit upon the former. The account of the dissolution of Jackson's first Cabinet is neither full nor clear, and the absurd yet politically potent intensity with which the President espoused the cause of Eaton and his wife deserved a closer treatment. No single incident in his eight years, complete opera bouffe as it was, threw so

clear a reflection of his personality. The influence of the Kitchen Cabinet is hardly suggested, and no attention is given to the men he called around him or promoted into high office for reasons personal to himself. The one exception is the reward of Taney, where the author quotes from the sycophantic letter written by the new chief justice upon receiving his appointment.

Nor do we gain any clearer idea of Van Buren. What made him the power in politics he became, and entitled him to the Presidency? His personal correspondence would show how closely he kept in touch with the influential leaders of his party in the different States; how much he favored the prominent journalists, and how ready he was to reward a faithful follower, and to quarrel with him when his usefulness was exhausted or his power became too great to make him an obedient or a comfortable colleague. His statesmanship appears large when measured against that of his party contemporaries; but his courage was developed in the years of his adversity. Until the close of his Presidency he remained a politician rather than a statesman. Clay, too, was a fit subject for study, as well as the successful Harrison, who robbed him, as it were, of the object of his ambitions. These men, and many more, were not mere lay figures, on whom can be hung the events of their time. They were living and popular forces, voicing the views of their following and seeking to direct the movement of political action. In the hands of Mr. McMaster they are little more than names.

In this at times severely impersonal record the narrative loses in force and interest. Why state that "a member" said something in debate, when the name of the speaker, of his State or section, would give point to his remarks? The editor of a newspaper possessed a personal force in that day. While Duff Green was editing the Administration organ he spoke with authority, and it was the same with Blair when the Jackson favors were turned towards him. Jackson rewarded so many editors with office, that even the faithful Ritchie protested. Noah and Dawson, Kendall, Hill, and Daniel were influences not to be overlooked. Ritchie held close relations with Van Buren, and his editorials were often inspired by this New York leader. The significance of a quotation from the *Enquirer* and the *Telegraph* is lessened when no reference is made to the fact that Ritchie was editor of the one and Green of the other. The author says the *Globe*, an Administration newspaper just set up, etc., but nowhere states that Blair was the editor, a man who exerted a great personal influence upon Jackson, and more than any other one man suggested and kept alive his prejudices and hatreds. How much the element of personality adds to the narrative is seen in the account of the nullification episode, where the Jackson and Poinsett papers have been freely drawn upon. In contrast, note the account of the proceedings of State political conventions where no names of leaders are given, and none of the vivid contemporary pictures of the principal actors. Anthony Butler's mission to Texas and its subsequent complication should have been mentioned, as well as the fact that Taney prepared the paper on the Bank which Jackson read to his Cabinet in Sep-

tember, 1833. No reference is made to Livingston's having written the nullification proclamation, or to the widespread comment upon some of its sentences which were interpreted as "dangerously squinting" at Federalism. Even John Randolph, who had received favors from Jackson, directed his last effort against its doctrines.

With all its faults this history is undoubtedly the best that has been written of the twelve years. It is a storehouse of fact, and brings to light a mass of material which will be as useful to the historian as interesting to the general reader.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.—I.

Our shelves reserved for juveniles are running over; adventure tumbles upon adventure; fairy tale upon fairy tale. We may complain that no volume looms up, save, perhaps, J. M. Barrie's "Peter Pan" (Charles Scribner's Sons), which is sumptuous in its colored drawings by Rackman, but which is rather the "Little White Bird" incident amplified, than the fantasy as played so charmingly by Miss Adams. For the majority of the books are as they were last year; the plots are conventional, are moral; and if they are of the "retold" class, they are faithful. There is little that is distinctive.

Allan French, in "Pelham and His Friend Tim" (Little, Brown & Co.), has struck a melodramatic vein which is industrially up to date. Pelham and Tim represent capital and labor, and the struggles at the mill, which is owned by Pelham's father, whirl around these two. There are seeds of discord sown among the peaceful village men, by a foreign workman who talks socialism; there is a mean persecutor of Tim, who has a mystery about his life; there is the gradual bringing of the villain to his just deserts at the end of the story. Pelham and Tim each try to outvie the other in valor. They save the mill's machinery, they turn workmen themselves, and through their efforts, contracts are filled, despite the strike. Mr. French has infused vigor and action into his pages.

"The Crimson Sweater" (The Century Co.), by Ralph Henry Barbour, is more conventional. Try as they may, authors of the present, when they write of school, are always forced into describing football, rowing, and the treacherous big boy. And Roy Porter, the hero, is only one of a large class of martyrs; he does many a noble deed for his school flag, and wins in everything. When his crimson sweater is placed, by the sneak of the story, so as to heap suspicion and punishment upon him, he takes his sentence as Spartan boys should. There is a heroine, named "Harry," who is all she should be, with her variable moods and her good fellowship.

A rare style marks the book by Norman Duncan, which he calls "The Adventures of Billy Topsail" (Revell). The scenes are laid in and about Newfoundland and Labrador; the adventures are among men of the class who hunt for seals, and who fight with the elements that bring down ice floes and bergs. The adventures are consecutive, and the heroes, for there are two, do things, not in order to show off, or to illustrate a moral point, but because their blood must be kept warm in the Far North, and because among men they must be men

also. One will feel, after reading Billy's episodic career, that some definite impression remains of that far country. Mr. Duncan, like Stevenson, has shown that heroines are not always needed. A woman figures but slightly in these pages, and she is accustomed to the ruggedness of sea and land.

In its execution, Amos R. Wells's "Donald Barton and the Doings of the Ajax Club" (Little, Brown & Co.) is disappointing. It commits the dire mistake of having its hero spend too much thought on right doing. The good boys of a community are opposed by a very rough set of bad boys. There are doubts, misgivings, and suspicions, centring around a park owned by a crusty old man who tries to keep the public off his land. Donald Barton is unjustly thrown into prison, and is saved by a minister, who, with the aid of the usual heroic girl, brings retribution upon the chief figures of the "gang," who have done everything from lying to setting barns afire. Then, since all is seemingly quiet, the rest of the story tells how the private park, with its disreputable crowds, is gradually turned into a healthy, public pleasure ground. Though there is the highest intent in this, the author has somehow missed his mark. Alas for the tale written with an eye looking down upon boyhood!

E. Nesbit has just barely escaped such criticism. "The Railway Children" (The Macmillan Co.) are two girls and a boy, forced to live away from London, with their mother, in reduced circumstances. It turns out in the end that the father of these children, accused of selling state secrets, and imprisoned therefor, was unjustly suspected. An Old Gentleman, who passes morning and night on a suburban train, and who never fails to wave to the children, brings the dénouement to a happy close. In the meanwhile the children become noted figures down by the railroad. Chief among them is "Bobbie," a girl, of course, and in the midst of saving trains, rescuing boys from tunnels, capturing a Russian, and the like, she is the only one who realizes the loneliness of her mother. Many things they did were better left unrecorded, but the sum total is harmless and goodnatured. The interest—of which there is a fair amount—is fortunately independent of the weak pen-and-ink drawings. As an English tale, and as a story of wide appeal, this book is far surpassed by Mrs. Harker's "Concerning Paul and Fiametta" (Charles Scribner's Sons), which is a delightful example of an author's intimate knowledge of juvenile ways.

It is difficult to indicate that borderland which separates childhood from youth. For readers in the latter division Roy Rolfe Gilson contributes a poetic account of "Katrina" (Baker & Taylor Company), a girl who grows up in constant association with a Mr. Larry, a newspaper gentleman worthy of Dickens, in his humor and quiet sadness. In this child before him, he sees bud forth the image of her mother, whom he loved in days gone by. But where, on Katrina's part, the intercourse ripens into a deep friendship, the man realizes a deeper love for her at the moment he finds her taken from him by another. Mr. Gilson has produced a satisfactory bit of writing. What girl does not like to cry just a little

over books, and, as for that matter, how many grown-ups would miss the chance!

These grown-ups are, after all, not so far removed from the realm of juvenile fiction. There is a lurking sense of ignorance, a smiting sarcasm in those books we give to girls and boys under the titles "Legends Every Child Should Know" (edited by Hamilton Wright Mabie; Doubleday, Page & Co.), and "Songs Every Child Should Know" (edited by Dolores Bacon; Doubleday, Page & Co.). Many an older person would profit by conning the legends, for in no other way, probably, would they become familiar with "Beowulf" or countless other tales that stimulate household imagination. Mr. Mabie's introduction is interesting, even though not illuminating. The music included by Mrs. Bacon in her compilation, is, to say the least, inclusive in its scope. The words, the arias, and the concise histories of the songs themselves, are entertaining. But such a book should be graded rather than arranged artificially into groups of Sentiment, War, Chants, Hymns, and the like. Take, for instance, the Shakspeare section. We might teach our seventeen-year-old daughter "It Was a Lover and His Lass" or "O, Mistress Mine." But simpler melodies, such as we find in the "St. Nicholas Song Book," would better suit the palate, as well as the vocal range, of those under fourteen. Mrs. Bacon is too generous, though her idea is excellent.

There are two classes of the heroic that children like: the legendary, of which Homer's "Odyssey" is a type; the historical, of which Ethel Wedgewood's English version of "The Memoirs of the Lord of Joinville" is another. The Rev. A. J. Church ("The Odyssey for Boys and Girls"; The Macmillan Co.) is familiar to young readers; he has done much to bring the classic world within modern range, and in his "Odyssey" the wanderings of Ulysses are adequately represented both in text and pictures. It is doubtful whether many boys of average patience will go far in the Joinville memoirs, though there be much of the adventurous in them (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The translator, if such a word can be applied to the author, has done a worthy piece of work, which will be more useful than popular; more lasting to the old than absorbing to the young.

Coming to modern days, the rise of Abraham Lincoln from cabin to White House has its wide appeal and never loses in reiteration. In the face of what her father did before her, Miss Helen Nicolay's "Boy's Life of Abraham Lincoln" (The Century Co.) is not only creditable but comprehensive. "The heritage of his example" are the last words in the book, and they epitomize the vast secret of the value of all historical reading for children.

CURRENT FICTION.

Beached Keels. By Henry M. Rideout. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The present commentator read two of the three stories in this volume as they first appeared in magazines. They impressed him strongly—an impression confirmed and deepened by rereading. "Wild Justice" stands out with almost startling distinctness against the pale mediocrity of current

magazine fiction. In certain quarters, this story might conceivably give offence by its realism, in others by its sentimentalism. This combination of qualities suggests certain tales by F. J. Stimson ("J. S. of Dale"), in which a similar attempt is made to portray the mingled sordidness and romance of our New England coast villages. A filial love of singular steadfastness and delicacy is here offset against the gross intriguing of a foul though physically alluring woman. The instinctive vengeance, or wild justice, of a pure, loyal, and longsuffering spirit against the crowning desecration of a mother's memory is the consummation toward which the events relentlessly carry us. The avenger gives himself up to legal justice; in this, too, we acquiesce. There is no glorification of lynch law, or belittling of statute law.

Georgie. By Dorothea Deakin. New York: The Century Co.

The male inconstant has at least one fixed quality—his value in print. Steadfast in fickleness, he may be an Abraham Cowley, a Don Juan, a Lothario, or perhaps the Trenholm whom Mrs. Wright pictured in "The Aliens," the man who was, as said one of his relicts, "part of our education." Or he may be a "Georgie," differing from all these. This modern young athlete, with his beguiling smile, is not a knight who flirts and runs away. Rather is he, or is meant to be, a hopelessly, helplessly engaging boy whose small heart-affairs flutter about him, and perch upon him, charming him, annoying him, involving him by turns. It is they that are butterflies rather than he. Among them he stands occupying a boyish, scampish, serio-comic central position till at last Fate drives him away to South America.

The book is frankly comic with the unmistakable touch of Great Britain in its quality of fun, particularly in those passages which reproduce the American girl's dialect as conceived by the English humorist. They must be seen to be not believed. But though belonging to the bubbles of bookmaking, the story is of an ingratiating kind, and serves to wreath an hour in half-protesting smiles.

The Treasure of Peyre Gaillard. By John Bennett. New York: The Century Co.

A remarkably ingenious and vigorous yarn of mystery, involving hidden staircases, spooks, negro legends, a double cipher, and more particularly a vast treasure hidden in the depths of a South Carolina swamp. The author would probably add love to our list, but we found gratefully little of this over-marketed commodity, and that easily negligible. It is pathetic to see how difficult it is for the most well-meaning tale-spinners to stand out altogether against the public's, or publisher's, demand for what is known to the trade as "heart-interest." Mr. Bennett has based his style upon Stevenson, now fairly to be considered the classical model for this sort of work:

"Dod, man, you look merry," said Geake, with a croak of mocking laughter. . . .

At the man's gross impudence my gorge rose; my hands itched; I detested him, not because I could not prevail to move him, but for his callousness of feeling, and that he had no mercy. If the profanity one

thinks but does not utter stands against one's long account, I must throw myself upon the mercy of Heaven, for my thoughts were piebald with it.

Is there anything in "David Balfour" more like "David Balfour" than this? The total effect of the story, however, is not Stevensonian. It contains no blood-warming series of adventures. The hero seeks and finds his treasure, not by means of his good sword and good luck, but by his natural wit, his professional skill, and the intuition of his sweetheart. When they really set out to find the treasure, it is simply as in youth one looks in a "key" to verify the answer to a problem. But for such as delight in cryptograms, and love to see a detective intelligence finding its way unerringly among a puzzling maze of facts, as somewhat frequently happens in fiction, the book will contain action enough. Great pains are taken to give the ancient documents quoted an air of verisimilitude; and the maps are clever and quaint. Unfortunately, we should say, there are a number of other illustrations, apparently after photographs, which represent the supposed hero and heroine as far less attractive than the text suggests. They look as if they deserved to marry each other, as we gather that they actually did.

NOTES FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

A Bibliography of James Russell Lowell. By George Willis Cooke. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

This is the second in the series of bibliographies of American authors issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.; and, like the Hawthorne bibliography, it is printed on one side of the leaf of a good quality of rag paper, which permits annotations and additions in ink. The edition is limited to 530 copies. Collectors of first editions of Lowell will probably be the persons by whom the book is most consulted; and from the collector's point of view this bibliography has serious shortcomings. The collector wants a list, in one consecutive chronological series, of the first editions of books which his author wrote, of those to which he contributed, and of those which he edited or translated. The collations, at least of the rarer items, should be given, with the points which distinguish the earliest issue of the first edition if there should be any variation in copies. The greater part of this information is to be found between the covers of this bibliography, but it is so scattered as to be hardly usable. Mr. Cooke in his Preface says that "as a literary worker he has had in mind the requirements of students rather than collectors in the arrangement of his materials." Many collectors of Lowell's books are among his most ardent students, and every student will, if his means permit, be more or less of a collector.

The book begins with an almost one-line-title list of Lowell's published books. Here is found the rare specially issued "Mason and Slidell" of 1862, but neither the London nor the Birmingham editions of the lecture "On Democracy," 1884. *Harvardiana* and *The Pioneer* are included, but not the Boston *Miscellany*, for which Lowell was also a leading writer. Then follows a list of bibliographies of Lowell in which George V. W. Duryea, the well-known col-

lector, who contributed an article to the *Book Buyer* on first editions of Lowell, becomes "George W. W. Dudgee." Next comes the "Alphabetical List of Single Titles" of Lowell's writings in prose and verse, including reviews and editorial comments in the various periodicals with which Lowell was connected. This list gives the date (of a periodical) or the volume in which each piece first appeared, as well as titles of volumes in which each was first collected. The preparation of this list, if as accurate and complete as on first glance it seems to be, must have taken an immense amount of research. It is information not readily accessible elsewhere. There are altogether about 780 titles of poems, essays, reviews, addresses, etc., many of which have never been reprinted in any edition of the collected works. Nor does this list, with two or three exceptions, include the numerous letters of Lowell, which have been printed in periodicals, catalogues, transactions of societies, etc., either before or since his death.

The next section, the "Chronological List of Separate Works and Editions," is the most important to the collector. This begins with Vol. iv. of *Harvardiana*, of which Lowell was one of the editors, and to which he was an important contributor. Except *Harvardiana* and *The Pioneer*, this list does not include periodicals or books edited by Lowell; nor does it include any hooks to which Lowell was a contributor only, such, for example, as the long series of that famous annual, "The Liberty Bell," the "Victoria Regia," etc. The edited hooks are in a special list; the books contributed to cannot be found at all except by title of the poem or article in the alphabetical list already referred to. Within these limitations, barring some omissions which we shall note, this section is very full. Besides first editions, later reprints are given as well. Collations of important books are generally complete, and in the case of first editions the original binding is generally described. The contents of books made up or separate pieces are printed in detail. In the case of important hooks, records of sales at auction are appended. Contemporary criticisms and notices are also in many cases referred to.

Within the limits set by the compiler—and considering the first editions only—we note the following corrigenda, which purchasers of the book may wish to enter on the blank pages:

Lowell's first separately printed piece, that excessively rare broadside poem, "To the Class of '38, by Their Ostracized Poet (so-called), J. R. L.," is not included; nor is it found in the alphabetical list of single titles. We have never seen a copy, but a half-tone reproduction is shown in Edward Everett Hale's "James Russell Lowell and his Friends."

"A Year's Life" is described as having a slip of errata. The errors were not discovered until some copies had been bound and sent out. The earliest issue, therefore, did not contain the errata slip.

No mention is made of the fact that some copies of the "Poems" of 1844 were on large paper, though the sale of one copy (a duplicate from Brown University, 1901, \$150), is incorporated in the list of auction records, without comment. This large-paper issue is rare, but there are at least five copies in private collections in New York.

The binding of the first edition of the "Conversations on Some of the Old Poets"

is put down as cloth. The book was, however, issued in a lithographed cover, the cover of some copies being dated 1845, of others 1846. The copy which brought \$100 in the Bartlett sale in 1903 was in stiff illuminated boards. The second edition, 1846, was in cloth.

The Second Series of "Poems," 1848, was issued in boards, paper label, as well as in cloth, as noted. This was also true of the "Fables for Critics."

There are two varieties of title-page of the first series of "The Biglow Papers." Some copies have the Cambridge reprint only; others, probably those made for the New York and Southern and Western market, have also George P. Putnam's New York imprint. The latter is the one transcribed by Mr. Cooke. Collectors prefer the former. Of this book also some copies were published in boards, with paper label. Mr. Cooke notes only the cloth binding.

"The Vision of Sir Launfal," 1848, is described as issued in cloth. It was issued in yellow glazed paper boards.

The "Poems" of 1849 described as published in boards, was also issued in cloth.

The exceedingly rare "Mason and Shidell," 1862, a "separate" printed from the types of the *Atlantic Monthly*, is not found in this chronological list. A copy brought \$175 in the Arnold sale of 1901. Only some three or four copies are known.

Portions of the Second Series of the "Biglow Papers," which in large part appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* in 1862 and 1863, and which were not collected in this country until 1867, were reprinted earlier in hook form in England. Parts 1 to 3 were issued separately in 1862 by Trühner & Co. at one shilling each. These little pamphlets, which are very rare, are noted by Mr. Cooke. He does not, however, note the slightly less rare London collection of 1865 issued by the same publisher. This included Nos. 1 to 7 only; four additional chapters, besides an Introduction and the revised form of the poem "The Courtin'," were added to the American edition in 1867. This first issue of Trühner's collected edition consists of title and 133 pages of text. There is another edition of the same date, with title slightly different but apparently printed from the same types. The sixth line of the title of the first issue reads "Authorized Edition," of the second "Authorized People's Edition." The first issue, with seven chapters only, has 133 pages of text. An eighth chapter was added to the second issue, the paging extending to page 141. The position of the signature marks differs in the two editions. The first is A to H, each eight leaves, with one preliminary leaf for the title, the signature marks being on pages 1, 17, 33, etc. The second issue is A to I, each eight leaves, the title leaf being included in the first signature, which is without mark. The signature marks in this issue are on pages 15, 31, etc.

Hotten's edition of 1865 of "The Biglow Papers," with illustrations by George Cruikshank, noted by Mr. Cooke in his list of editions of the Second Series, is an error. This was actually the First Series.

The earliest issue of "Under the Willows" should contain an erratum slip, as noted. In later copies the error was corrected, and no slip is necessary.

A few copies of "Among my Books," Second Series, evidently the first sent out, have the date 1875 in the copyright notice. This was afterwards corrected to 1876. This "point" seems to have been unknown to Mr. Cooke.

The lecture "On Democracy," delivered by Mr. Lowell in Birmingham on October 6, 1884, had been put in type in London and a few copies run off before it was delivered. It was afterwards printed as a pamphlet by Cond (not Coud) Bros. in Birmingham. This latter edition is the only one mentioned by Mr. Cooke in this chronological list. But in the list of "Addresses and Speeches" he distinctly states that the Birmingham edition is the first and the London edition the second. This is an error, as a comparison of the two editions clearly shows.

The later sections of the Bibliography are "Collected Works," "Works Edited by Lowell," "Addresses and Speeches," "Bibliog-

raphies, Letters, Reminiscences," "Notices and Criticisms," and a note about Lowell's manuscript correspondence now in the library of Harvard University. Collectors will be surprised to find that interesting skit "Il Pesceballo" under the head of "Works Edited."

The Merwin-Clayton Sales Co. of this city offers at auction on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday next week a collection of hook-plates and engravings. The book-plates, many of them early, are almost entirely American. Among the engravings, practically all American, are specimens of the work of J. Norman, Amos Doolittle, William Rollinson, Alexander Anderson, and Peter and Samuel Maverick. On Thursday the same firm sells a collection of autographs and manuscripts, including a manuscript poem (three stanzas) by Francis Scott Key, and a transcript, in the author's autograph, of "America."

At the Merwin-Clayton Sales Co.'s auction of November 26 and 27 Pierce Egan's "Life in London," 1821, illustrated by George Cruikshank and finely bound in levant by Rivière, brought \$51; a first edition of Goldsmith's "Life of Beau Nash," 1762, bound in calf by Rivière, \$18; the Kelm-scott Press "Poems" of Shakspeare, 1893, printed in vellum, \$33; other Kelm-scott Press issues ranged from \$5.50 to \$21.

The copy of the rare second edition of Spenser's "Shepherd's Calendar," 1581, which sold at Hodgson's, in London, on November 29 for £180, was bought by a firm of New York booksellers, and is now on its way to America. At the same sale Spenser's "Complaints, Containing sundrie small Poemes of the Worlds Vanitie," 1591, first edition, brought £81. Compared with the "Shepherd's Calendar" the "Complaints" is a common hook. Previous high records on the "Complaints" are £49 10s. at Sotheby's, in London, 1901; £45 in the same rooms, 1903; and \$230 in the McKee sale at Anderson's in this city, 1901. The latter, a fine copy, had been Gaisford's, bringing £20 10s. at his sale in 1890. A copy of Lamb's "Tale of Rosamund Gray and Old Blind Margaret," 1798, was sold for £93 at Hodgson's on November 29, though it had not been included in the printed catalogue. It was in the original boards, uncut, but had the reprinted title-page, "London, printed for Lee & Hurst." It was, of course, not to be compared with the copy with the original title-page, "Birmingham, printed by Thomas Pearson," which brought £122 at Sotheby's last July. With either title-page the hook is exceedingly rare.

The House in St. Martin's Street: Being Chronicles of the Burney Family. By Constance Hill. With illustrations by Ellen G. Hill. New York: John Lane Company, \$7 net.

Of the tribe of gentlewomen who are exploiting the eighteenth century at their ease, Miss Hill is the least amateurish and most entertaining. Her "Juniper Hall," published three years ago, filled out our knowledge of a charming episode in the life of Fanny Burney. Her volume on the homes and friends of Jane Austen was another happily written volume, though not so novel in subject as the "Juniper Hall." The pres-

ent work is at once a pleasure and a disappointment. It is named from the old house of Sir Isaac Newton, which was occupied by the Burneys from 1774 to 1783, but in reality the book follows the family, especially Fanny, about during those years to Streatham, Chessington, Bath, Brighton, and elsewhere, in such a way that the title is a complete misnomer. There is no harm in this, and even a writer of much less ability than Miss Hill could scarcely make a dull book on this subject from the material accessible to all the world. But besides this Miss Hill has had access to the unprinted Burney MSS. still preserved in the family, including the diaries of Charlotte and Susan, letters written to and from Mr. Crisp, letters from Mrs. Thrale, Fanny's comedy of "The Wiltings," and a mass of other stuff. She has drawn on this material freely; she would have made a far more acceptable book if she had used it exclusively and omitted commonplace reflection and all the hackneyed stories from printed sources.

The most notable of the chapters is that which contains a scene from Fanny's comedy "The Wiltings," which she suppressed by the advice of her two daddies. Miss Hill, from a perusal of the whole play, confirms the judgment of Fanny's censors, but the specimen given is maliciously amusing and only strengthens one's regret that these new sources were not drawn on more heavily. At least one can now read with better appreciation the pages in Fanny's Memoirs which deal with the episode of the play. Of one of these censors, "Daddy" Crisp, we get in Miss Hill's book only tantalizing glimpses. Why did not Miss Hill print his letters to the Burneys in full? From the fragments given one guesses that they are far more characteristic than the correspondence with his sister recently published in the "Burford Papers."

Scribbling was a trait of the Burney family, and the diaries of Charlotte and Susan were only less voluminous than Fanny's. From both these sources Miss Hill gets a number of good anecdotes. Charlotte, the youngest of the sisters, was evidently a most intense and slangy young lady. In her record Garrick becomes if anything more boisterously gay than ever, and we see him caning a servant maid "up a whole flight of stairs, desiring at the same time to know what she laughed for"—all, of course, in good fun. And then, having reached Dr. Burney's study—the chaos, as it was called—he continued his antics in a milder vein:

He took off Dr. Johnson most admirably. Indeed, I enjoy'd it doubly from having been in his company: his *see-saw*, his *padding* [just the words Fanny uses of him in her Diary], his very *look*, and his voice! . . . He took him off in a speech (that has stuck in his gizzard ever since some friendly person was so obliging as to repeat it to him). . . . "Yes, yes; Davy has some convivial pleasantries in him; but 'tis a futile fellow."

In Susan's Diary we become better acquainted with Pacchierotti, "Sweet Pacc," as they dubbed him in St. Martin's Street, the singer who endeared himself to all the family and who appeared under his real name—to his own delight and surprise—as one of the characters of Fanny's "Cecilia." To Fanny he was devoted particularly, and we learn now from a letter written by her to Susan that on his last evening before leaving England he expressed

his devotion to her in unmistakable language. "Poor, sweet Pacchierotti!" exclaims Fanny in her letter. "What a strange world is this!" He lived to a happy old age, nevertheless, and his last words were a prayer to God "to be admitted to one of the humblest choirs in heaven."

Of another Italian singer who plays a sentimental part in the drama—tragedy in this case—of that circle we get several views. Everybody knows the sensation caused by the marriage of Mrs. Thrale to Piozzi, and how it broke up her friendship with Dr. Johnson and Fanny Burney. His first meeting with Mrs. Thrale—long before Mr. Thrale's death—is not so well known. It is related in Fanny's Memoir of her father and also in Charlotte's unpublished Diary:

Mrs. Thrale of the whole ooterie was alone at her ease. She feared not Dr. Johnson, for fear made no part of her composition. . . . She suddenly but softly arose, and, stealing on tiptoe behind Signor Piozzi, who was accompanying himself on the pianoforte in an animated *aria parlante*, with his back to the company, she began imitating him by squaring her elbows, elevating them with ecstatic shrugs of the shoulders, and casting up her eyes, while languishingly reclining her head, as if she were not less enthusiastically struck with the transports of harmony than himself.

It is pleasant to read that Dr. Johnson, himself a great sinner against conventions, stopped the pantomime by whispering to her: "Because, madam, you have no ear yourself for music, will you destroy the attention of all who, in that one point, are otherwise gifted?"

Of such anecdotes Miss Hill's volume is composed—a thoroughly enjoyable excursion into the eighteenth century. The illustrations, in part line drawings of the houses and rooms where these scenes occurred, are capital.

Spinoza and Religion. By Elmer Ellsworth Powell. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company. \$1.50.

Sympathetic exposition, such as is contained in Pollock's and Joachim's studies of Spinoza, either clarifies or makes more generally available, a point of view with which it may be important for every investigator to be acquainted. Or free interpretation, like that of Herder, may contribute directly to the advancement of philosophical knowledge. But refutation or disparagement, while it may be a valuable exercise for the writer, is otherwise important only in so far as it bears upon current tendencies, or lends itself to a purpose that is on the whole constructive. Judged in the light of these considerations, the importance of Professor Powell's "Spinoza and Religion" is questionable. Although the author defines his book as "a polemic against a mistaken interpretation of Spinoza's philosophy and personality," it shortly appears that this means an attack upon that philosopher's prestige, on the ground that he has been overrated. The present book is therefore an essay in belittlement. Professor Powell proves himself to be thoroughly conversant with Spinoza's writings, and with the meagre biographical data that may be drawn from other sources; but he employs these resources to urge against Spinoza the personal charge of

disingenuousness and timidity, the philosophical charge of obscurity and inconsistency, and the religious charge of atheism.

The unremitting disparagement of Spinoza's personal qualities appears most strikingly in the author's treatment of those episodes in his life which have hitherto been supposed to prove his moral courage and endurance of adversity. Thus after describing Spinoza's excommunication with all possible qualifications, he concludes with evident reluctance that "it must still be recognized that the experience through which he passed at this time could not have been a pleasant one, especially for a person of Spinoza's disposition." Of Spinoza's declination of the appointment to the University of Heidelberg, he remarks: "This act has been represented as an evidence of his divine indifference to honors, position, and riches. We pay more respect to his sanity when we attribute his refusal to the plain dictates of common sense." Now it ought to be clear that if Spinoza did not make any sacrifice in either of these cases, this fact in itself testifies to the completeness of his renunciation of worldly advantage for the sake of intellectual liberty. With any historical imagination it is impossible not to regard Spinoza as in this respect greatly superior in nobility to any of the philosophers of his period. He achieved his independence through the cultivation of his own intellectual and spiritual powers. Professor Powell either fails to appreciate this, or deliberately slights it. In either case he leaves the reader with the false impression that Spinoza followed the line of least resistance, and allowed circumstances to dictate his fortune.

Professor Powell is less impressed with the boldness of the thought in the "Theologico-Political Treatise," and of Spinoza's determination to publish it, than he is with its use of religious language in "an accommodated sense." And it is suggested that because the last part of the "Ethics" was composed "when his ears were ringing with the charges of atheism," Spinoza there "carries further than ever his policy of clothing non-religious conceptions in the phraseology of religion." But such depreciatory judgments can be made plausible only through subordinating the central events of Spinoza's life to a doubtful interpretation of minor circumstances. If timidity had been fundamentally characteristic of Spinoza, he would have lived and died an orthodox Jew. If accommodation had been his characteristic method he would have used his philosophical ability to gain the favor of political and ecclesiastical authorities, as did Descartes and Leibniz. It is the main fact in his life that he did neither, but preferred his intellectual self-respect to anything that society could give him. The charge that his manner of writing was conciliatory is then either untrue, if taken to be significant, or insignificant, if taken to be true. Regarding the fact, the best proof of Spinoza's sincerity is to be found in the character of his influence, and in the tone of his writings. Among contemporaries, and among students of philosophy from the time of Herder and Jacobi, he has won the respect and devotion of those best qualified to understand him. His manner is not effusive and apologetic, but simple and direct.

When, as in the case of final causes, he is opposed to the common view, he does not evade the issue, but speaks flatly and unambiguously. It is true that his forms of statement are constructive rather than destructive; but, saving Professor Powell, we may readily understand this from the fact that he never lost his positive religious grasp of God, and sought only to formulate his belief in terms consistent with the first principles of philosophy.

The most solid part of Professor Powell's book is his analysis of Spinoza's metaphysical system. Through default of criticism, the "Ethics" has enjoyed "the quite unwarrantable reputation of being a masterpiece of iron logic." Pursuing on the whole a method of negative criticism, the author demonstrates Spinoza's various ambiguities and inconsistencies; and the majority of his criticisms are sound and instructive. But we must pass on to Professor Powell's main contention, to the effect that there is an irreconcilable opposition between Spinozism and religion. Religion is "the emotions and activities determined by belief in a higher personal power, or in higher personal powers, with whom man is assumed to sustain relations." It is because Spinoza fails to provide these higher personal powers that he fails to afford a ground for religion. Now, strange as it may seem, the author deals with the element of divine personality in religion with no reference whatsoever to the function of the religious imagination, a consideration which in this connection is of the greatest importance. The attitude of worship undoubtedly attributes personality to its object. But the really serious problem for the philosophy of religion is to determine the degree to which the attitude of worship itself supplies that element. Anthropomorphisms are commonly the consequence, and not the cause, of the worshipper's hope, fear, reverence, or adoration; and therefore are not implied beliefs, but rather the *imaginative treatment of beliefs*. To worship anything is to personify it; but this does not mean that only persons are worshipful. To insist that whatever is essential to the attitude of worship must be theoretically attributed to the object, is to ignore the fact that religion, like poetry and conversation, is a mode of construing objects of theoretical belief; and is largely constituted of elements which it freely creates, or gradually acquires in the historical development of its own peculiar symbolism. Religion unquestionably includes an element of belief; but that belief has reference primarily to the individual's dependence on ultimate powers, to his hope of safety or favor at their hands, and not to their metaphysical constitution. In the case of Spinoza, the author urges that God is not defined as a person, with "cognitive and volitional consciousness"; while he neglects the really significant fact that the universe according to Spinoza is the supreme object of the will and affections. Whether truly or falsely, Spinoza teaches that through the cultivation of the understanding the individual may come to look upon the universe in all its necessity and impersonality as the highest fulfilment of his own life. The immutable truth is an object to be revered and loved, not as a fellow human being, but as the goal of aspiration, as an object transcending all moral and æsthetic values. That Spinoza and others as well have

found an object so defined to be a possible object for the religious sentiments, testifies to their imaginative temperament and capacity, and does not fall within the scope of logical criticism. Professor Powell is forced to deny the religious quality not only of mysticism, but of all the more philosophical and enlightened forms of reverence and consecration that tend to multiply as the race becomes sophisticated. He is brought to the false position of regarding religion, not as a necessary human interest grounded in the general circumstances of human life, but as a special doctrine subject to refutation at the hands of science or philosophy.

Nevertheless, the reader will find this issue, which is very general in its bearings, discussed by Professor Powell with great acuteness. Here, as throughout, the author demonstrates his familiarity with the field and his liveliness of interest. The style, furthermore, is excellent, and does much to redeem a book which is otherwise too doggedly iconoclastic to be either stimulating or pleasing.

Fire and Sword in the Caucasus. By Luigi Villari. Illustrated. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: James Pott & Co. \$3.50 net.

"Russian Colonial Policy" would be an appropriate sub-title for this work, as it is a graphic picture of the way in which the Tsar rules subject races. The author was in the Caucasus during the summer and autumn of 1905, and visited every important centre of political unrest, and interviewed "people of all classes, races, and religions, from the viceroy down to simple peasants, from the chief of the secret police to the Georgian revolutionary leaders." His narrative is introduced by a brief sketch of the country, its people and history, from which some appreciation of the difficulties of the governmental problem can be obtained. Chief among these is the fact that in a district not so large as Spain there are some fifty or sixty races with different languages or dialects. Since this tract is the pathway connecting two continents, numberless migrations of peoples have passed over it, each leaving some of its members behind in secluded valleys and rocky fastnesses. At the present day, there are on the slopes of a mountain in Daghestan seven villages, each speaking a different language. Though the Russians have ruled these peoples for a century and have aroused no such hatred as in Poland, yet Transcaucasia at least has not become Russian, and there is no union between the different peoples. The Georgians, Armenians, Turks, and other nationalities have preserved their languages and their racial characteristics intact, and in many cases, especially the most civilized, they are imbued with strong nationalist feelings.

The author's route was from Batum on the Black Sea east to Baku on the Caspian, and from thence to Mt. Ararat, the meeting-point of the three empires, Turkey, Persia, and Russia. Then he turned northward to Tiflis, and crossed the central mountain chain by the famous Darial Pass. He describes not only the incidents of the journey, giving his impressions of the country, the people, and their mode

of life, but he also tells the story of the disturbances in each place visited, and their causes. This is derived mostly from the testimony of eye-witnesses, for he himself apparently saw no great outbreak except at Vladikavkaz. Here during a demonstration on November 1, on the occasion of the Tsar's manifesto promising reforms, a student was beaten to death and two schoolboys carrying red flags were "literally torn to pieces" by a mob, while the Cossacks fired upon all indiscriminately, and looted Armenian shops and houses. Fighting had ceased for the time at Baku, but a general sense of expectation and anxiety hung over the town—a fear which was justified by a third pogrom a few weeks after he left. On the oil-fields an appalling scene of destruction met his eyes. "It was more like some frightful nightmare than a reality."

Here he found the acutest phase of that hostility between the Tartars and Armenians which is the chief disturbing element in the Caucasus. The cause was very evident. The great bulk of the native population of the province of Baku is Tartar. But with the development of the oil industry the Armenians came, and with their superior education, their greater intelligence and energy, acquired a controlling influence in the town. Though numerically inferior they form a majority on the town council, and they are represented by five members out of seven on the *Soviet Siedz* (council of naphtha producers). "The Armenian workmen are much less tractable than the Tartars. They demand better food and higher wages, more comfortable lodgings, baths, reading-rooms, etc., whereas the Tartars are content with anything that is given them. The Armenians belong to workmen's societies, and if they do not get what they want they organize strikes, and even take part in revolutionary movements." All over the Caucasus they are to be found as bankers, merchants, shopkeepers, manufacturers, lawyers, doctors, teachers, engineers, and officials, and we are not surprised at his conviction that they are the most capable race in the Caucasus and will become the predominating element in the country.

Still more interesting in some respects are the Georgians, who though lacking the practical spirit of the Armenians are a more intelligent people, with strong literary tastes. "Every village has its own library, and even those furthest from the Government post stations provide their own mail service so as to receive the daily papers from Tiflis, Batum, and Russia." Their political aspirations have been till recently for the autonomy promised them by treaty, but never granted. This aim is now abandoned since the Social Democrats have come among them, and a republic based on socialist theories was established two years ago at Ozurgety. Mr. Villari visited the town, which lies some distance from the railway and contains about 5,000 inhabitants:

The administration was carried on by the inhabitants themselves in the most communistic manner, each man contributing his share of money or labor for the common good. They worked in shifts to maintain the roads and bridges, and one sometimes saw nobles, priests, peasants, and shopkeepers all manfully doing their turn of work. Native schools have taken the place of Russian ones; and the children

are taught the three R's, combined with socialist principles in the Georgian tongue. Civil and criminal actions are brought before the *Narodny Sud* (popular tribunal), but the old forms of punishment have been abolished; no one can be legally put to death, nor even imprisoned. The usual penalty is boycotting for a longer or shorter period, and as the community is practically unanimous, the process can be carried out very effectively. He describes a trial which he witnessed of a man who had been convicted of adultery and condemned to perpetual boycott. The accused appealed to an assembly of some two hundred people, mostly peasants, of all ages and both sexes, for a remission of the sentence, promising to reform. An animated discussion on the merits of the case followed, and finally a resolution in the culprit's favor was moved. Each member of the assembly then went into the church, where a peasant recorded the votes, "while a priest stood by to give a religious sanction to the proceedings." The movement is characterized by such a remarkable unanimity that the Russian vicerey told Mr. Villari that he meant to regularize and legalize the *Narodny Sud*, "which administers justice far more honestly and efficiently than do the State tribunals." The situation changed soon after Mr. Villari left. Desperate fighting has taken place in and around Ozurgety, and the whole province has been drenched in blood.

The causes of the present condition are not far to seek. The Viceroy himself admitted to the author that the chief evil of the Caucasus was its bad administration, and ill-paid and dishonest officials. The reader will close Mr. Villari's book with the conviction that there is absolutely no distinction between the Russian rule in the Caucasus and that of Turkey in Macedonia. In each the aim is not the welfare of the governed, but simply the retention of supreme power. And in each case this is accomplished by directly fomenting the racial hostilities of the subject peoples.

The numerous reproductions of the author's photographs are interesting, and add substantially to his narrative.

The Flock. By Mary Austin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In the *Georgics*, Virgil blended husbandry, beauty, and observation from a poetic angle, with knowledge of his own craft. To make a long skip, Richard Jefferies recorded both what he saw and the connection between things seen and things remembered—tradition, history, and an undercurrent of well-subordinated science. In "The Life of the Bee," and in his wonderful sketch of the dog, Maeterlinck adds to all of these qualities his own poetic philosophy of life. With the same sentiment for nature, Thomas Hardy uses his knowledge as a setting for his groups of rustic human beings. While showing points of likeness to all of these, Mary Austin, in "The Flock," at once establishes herself as their worthy kinswoman, never their imitator. That strain runs in her blood which makes her see and feel as they do. It is not the abstract and detached observation of Thoreau, it is at once more purposeful and more romantic, in fact, more warm-blooded.

Whether this be a question of personality, or of her inspiring surroundings, the product stands quite apart. Baldly stated, it is no more than a study of the sheep industry in California, with a slender thread of historic narrative, a picture of sheep herding, a word for irrigation. This summary of "The Flock," however, bears about as much relation to the actual achievement as a statement that the first book of the *Georgics* is a treatise on agriculture, or that the "Pêcheurs d'Islande" has to do with salt fish. In the opening chapter you learn how domestic sheep first came to Monterey. You have no sense of being instructed, you merely feel that the author is talking agreeably and discursively on a subject of deep interest to herself, and in a manner that makes you a willing listener.

Mary Austin's method is to give you the picture, sky, flowers, animals, and men. You see it all as if you had just come from your Pullman car to a shearing. Gradually she explains a little, the breed of sheep, of dogs, of shepherds; how they have come over long and weary trails, following feed and water; how forest preservation has brought about struggles between herders and rangers; how a beneficent law may, in its first working, make for injustice, as when, at the end of a long journey, the expected pasture is a preserve, and the ranger does his duty while sheep starve and die, in order that the region may be saved from perpetual drought. All this she tells, with anecdotes of the ways of sheep, with bits of legend and of tradition, tales of finessing on the part of herders and of sagacious dogs. She likewise stops for queer speculations on the development of the animal mind; and pauses to let you infer what analogy you please between the "flock-mind" (of which she says "I cannot very well say what it is, except that it is less than the sum of all their intelligences") and the crowd-mind of humanity. With the closest observation and sympathy where animals are concerned, she does not sentimentalize about them: she makes the limits of instinct quite as clear as its scope. Of some five hundred sheep charging over a precipice to escape a bear, she says: "The brute instinct had warned them asleep, but could not save them awake." Her chapter on the dog is particularly delightful, his business with the flock is described as "a trick man has played on the dog to constitute him the guardian of his natural prey"; and the whole analysis of what the collie means to the herd, and what the herd means to the collie, is entirely free from false observation or obstructive theorizing.

And so the book rambles on through a shepherd's year, leaving you with a sense of refreshment, with a desire to join the hairy little Basques and Frenchmen on their long journeys, to eat savory messes out of their black camp pots, to lie under the sky with dogs and flocks, lulled to sleep by the "blether" of ewes and the bark of distant coyotes. The charm of the whole lies in three qualities: the novelty and interest of the subject, the picturesque texture of the author's mind, and in a style which is both cultivated and racy, and adapted to conveying her unusual sense of beauty.

Reminiscences from My Childhood and Youth. By Georg Brandes. New York: Duffield & Co. \$2.50 net.

When Georg Brandes, in 1871, began that first series of lectures on "Main Currents in European Literature," from which a new epoch may be counted, not only in Danish, but in Scandinavian literature, he was already well known as the foremost student of literature among the younger Danes, as a brilliant essayist and critic, and as a thoroughgoing radical. He had been abroad several times, had studied in Paris under Taine, whose personal acquaintance he had made, as well as that of Renan and John Stuart Mill, had translated the latter's "Subjection of Women," had written his doctor's dissertation on Taine as the exponent of French aesthetics, and had attacked Rasmus Nielsen's attempt to reconcile dogma and science. His "Reminiscences from my Childhood and Youth" tells the story of his life up to 1871, and throws an extremely interesting light on his preparation for his career. One could have wished for more light on his intellectual and scientific development and for less attention to trivial details. For instance, the whole of the digression, called "Filomena," might very well have been omitted. There is, particularly in the latter half of the book, a certain lack of proportion and coherence. But it is in many ways an interesting book, especially in its first chapters, which deal with his childhood and early boyhood. Brandes was evidently a very precocious youth. When at fifteen or sixteen he read Lermontof's "A Hero of Our Times," he imagined that in Petrsjövín he could recognize himself. Already at school he was filled with ideas of a great goal, which, however, "was very indefinite, and was to the general effect that I intended to make myself strongly felt, and bring about great changes in the intellectual world; of what kind was uncertain." Later, his ideas developed more distinctly, and he felt himself as one who would contribute to the great literary revival which he believed was imminent. When, therefore, a couple of years later, Ibsen wrote him that he ought to be one of the leaders in the coming "revolt of the human mind," Brandes was neither unprepared nor unwilling.

The translation of the book is, unfortunately, not very good. Not only is Brandes's nervous, individual style entirely lost, but the translator shows lamentable ignorance of idiomatic English. Too often we meet words and sentences that evince a diligent, though unintelligent use of the dictionary; for instance: "The best free research men," "Association with a multiplicity of people," "There was a sacristy odor about all that he said," "An instance of paradoxicalness." The index is indifferent.

Drama.

"SAINTE THÉRÈSE," BY MENDES.

PARIS, November 23.

The "Sainte Thérèse" of Catulle Mendès, with Sarah Bernhardt swathed as a nun in the title rôle, has had a *succès de curiosité* after a year's public wrangle between au-

thor and actress, and a *succès d'estime*, for both are personages of age and importance in their world. It is only fair to cite the opinion of Émile Faguet of the French Academy: "This is by far the finest dramatic poem which M. Catulle Mendès has written; it is one of the finest in French literature!" The discordant note is sounded from the Saint's wall-enclosed, mediæval city of Avila, where bishop, priest, and people have gone in procession to a solemn ceremony of expiation for the dishonor done to their unique glory.

All those who have acquaintance at first hand with the writings of that most brilliant constellation of ascetics and mystics whom the world has yet seen—the Master of Avila, Francisco de Borja, Pedro de Alcantara, Juan de la Cruz, to name only those in personal contact with St. Theresa—and who have been curious enough to trace their influence, not only in Spain, but over the whole contemplative life of Europe—in Bossuet and Fénelon and all Port Royal, in Jeremy Taylor and the Wesleys, and perhaps even in Jonathan Edwards—are sure to resent the poet's rough-handling of the Saint. She has her revenge by being a constant puzzle to the understanding of the play and the chief obstacle to its interest.

Neither on the part of poet or of critic is there any excuse for this lack of insight into the intellectual side of religious experience, since two historic works of the higher French literature—Bossuet's "Instruction sur les États d'Oraison" and Fénelon's "Maximes des Saints"—are at hand to show the "reasonable service" of St. Theresa's mind. Now the heroine of M. Mendès's poem is an evident victim of pure emotionalism, with details seemingly copied from the erotic hysteria described in the school of Charcot. The well-known verses of the Saint, with which Crashaw has glorified our English poetry, are brought into the play in a manner which makes one shudder to think what the poet would have done with Charles Wesley's "Jesus, lover of my soul."

M. Mendès, with a tone of surprise, says he has taken all from the Saint's story of her own life. Yet his presentation scarcely accorded with her unphysical vision of hell—the spirit of man confined apart from the Being who is his only End—and her conception of that higher union with God, wherein the soul may pass beyond the revealing Humanity of Christ to rest in Divinity alone.

The facts in the play are quite as arbitrary historically. Sarah Bernhardt's popping in and out of Inquisition councils and cells is not like that method of trial which, at least, was never wanting in legal ceremonies and even has its lineal descendant in the French *juge d'instruction*.

Dramatic Opinions and Essays. By G. Bernard Shaw. 2 vols. New York: Brentano. \$2.50 net.

These volumes are made up of the papers contributed by George Bernard Shaw, in his capacity of dramatic critic, to the London *Saturday Review*, between January, 1895, and May, 1898, and contain a large amount of entertaining matter. It is doubtful, however, whether the collection will prove beneficial to his reputation. Brilliant as his writing often is, with its apt-

ness of allusion and comparison, its sparkling wit and reckless audacity, it can only be thoroughly enjoyed when taken in small doses. Its affectations of a monstrous egotism, of omniscience, of hostility to all established order and enthusiasm for everything that is revolutionary or strange, its flippancy, shallowness, and not infrequent insincerity, soon pall upon the reader.

Mr. Shaw is most effective in indiscriminate attack. It is impossible not to relish the skill with which he uses the sharp weapons of mockery and ridicule, even when exasperated by the patent fallacy of his premises or the bumptiousness of his conclusions. But when he condescends, as he does sometimes in his saner moments, to dispense with his usual embroidery of whim and paradox, he can be capable of acute and searching criticism. For instance, his castigation of Pinero's plays, "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray" and "The Notorious Mrs. Ebbsmith," is thoroughly sound and efficacious, although, naturally, he is not at all concerned about the moral side of the question. He has some shrewd comment, too, on Sarah Bernhardt's later performances, but exhibits his instinctive perversity in comparing her elocution to that of Miss Ada Rehan, which he professes to deem superior. Elsewhere, in order presumably to show the independence of his judgment, he bitterly assails the acting of Sir Henry Irving in "Waterloo," which, as a bit of pure and highly finished histrionism, was one of the most notable achievements of the modern stage. The little play in itself, of course, was a trifling affair, but certainly does not deserve the contempt he pours upon it. One of the most characteristic examples of his work, strangely compounded of keen observation, just comment, and rattle-pated nonsense, is his review of "Henry IV." at the London Haymarket. But it is not necessary to go further for examples. Most persons who know Mr. Shaw at all know him pretty thoroughly by this time, and read him for amusement only, not for profit or instruction. But it is a thousand pities that his agile intellect is not ballasted with conscience and common sense.

The latest play on the subject of political corruption is "The Man of the Hour," by George Broadhurst, which was produced in the Savoy Theatre, in this city, on Tuesday evening, with good prospect of success. It deals entirely with municipal politics, and illustrates the grosser forms of graft, with a considerable measure of theatrical effect, but not much dramatic art. Mr. Broadhurst, chiefly known hitherto as a writer of farcical pieces, has committed the common error of inexperienced dramatists, in overloading his story with all sorts of startling incidents, complications, and coincidences, and his hero with phenomenal trials and virtues. But the play contains several exceedingly effective situations and some clever character drawing. The two rival "bosses" are sketched with admirable vigor and vitality, and are uncommonly well played by Frank MacVickers and George Fawcett. A capital performance of the young mayor, whom no temptation can beguile from the path of duty, was given by Frederick Perry. What the play needs most is revision by a competent playwright. It might easily be made

a work of superior quality. As it stands, it is only a creditable effort in the right direction.

The Macmillan Company publishes "Scorn of Women," a three-act comedy by Jack London, who has laid his scene in Dawson, Northwest Territory, and filled it in with the appropriate atmosphere and color. Whether it would be as effective in stage representation as it is in the reading is doubtful, as more of the story is unfolded in dialogue than in action, and the dramatic motive is chiefly conspicuous by absence. The heroine is a dazzlingly beautiful and very rich dancer, who is worshipped by all the men and suspected by all the women. But she proves her integrity, as well as her powers of allurements and intrigue, by frustrating the elopement of a faithless lover and restoring him to the arms of his betrothed, who has undertaken an Arctic journey to rejoin him. The incidents of Arctic life are portrayed with unmistakable veracity, and the humors and mystifications of a masked ball, under frontier conditions, are set forth with freshness and vivacity. In the last act there is a touch of the wild which is, perhaps, a trifle too realistic, but the piece, as a whole, is decidedly entertaining, and contains some well drawn sketches of character. A skilled dramatist probably could put it into proper shape for the theatre without much difficulty, and the novelty of it might make the experiment worth trying.

Eugène Linthilhac publishes in Paris the second volume of his giant "Histoire générale du Théâtre en France." The first reached from the Middle Ages to Corneille; The author now follows out one single evolutionary type—comedy—without reference to the other types, which upsets chronology for philosophical history. Émile Faguet has issued a third volume of his "Propos de Théâtre," all the way from Sophocles and Shakspeare to Gorky.

Music.

THE OPERA IN NEW YORK.

Oscar Hammerstein's new Manhattan Opera House was opened on Monday night with a performance of Bellini's "I Puritani," which was heard by an extremely enthusiastic audience of over 3,000 persons. The enthusiasm was not over the opera itself, which is antiquated and has nearly everywhere disappeared from the repertory (its last performance in New York was twenty-three years ago), but over the singers. This was not a new phenomenon, for from the very beginning (1835) Bellini's opera depended largely for its success on the art of the great quartet who sang it—Grisi, Rubini, Tamburini, and Lablache. Mr. Hammerstein was not able to duplicate that cast, but he did the best he could by presenting Mme. Pinkert, and Bonci, Ancona, and Arimondi in the four leading parts. Mme. Pinkert evinced great skill as a coloratura singer in "Son vergin vezzosa" and other numbers that are adorned with *fiorture*; in the simple songs her voice was unsteady, and not always true to pitch. Bonci was probably not at his best; his voice lacks the body and the

luscious quality of Caruso's, and it is not free from an unpleasant vibrato; but the use he makes of it stamps him as an artist of the highest type. Ancona has improved since he was last here, and Arimondi also sang well, barring an occasional deviation from the pitch. The acoustic qualities of the new theatre proved to be excellent for the singers as well as the orchestra. The appearance of the house is attractive. The nearness of the stage to most of the spectators is the best feature of the auditorium—*one sadly missed in most opera houses.*

The second evening of the season at the Metropolitan (last week Wednesday) was devoted to an opera which depends for its success more on its interpreters than on its inherent charms—Puccini's "La Bohème." It was sung by a cast including Mme. Sembrich, whose voice seems to have the secret of eternal youth, and Caruso, who sang beautifully. For "Hänsel and Gretel" there was a new Hänsel, Miss Mattfeld, who proved even better than her predecessor. "Tannhäuser," on Friday night, brought forward two new singers from Germany: Frau Fleischer-Edel essayed the part of Elizabeth; she proved to be one of many Teutonic artists who sing in tune and effectively as long as they can indulge in forte and fortissimo; but the soft, pathetic prayer of the third act was marred by her persistent wandering from the key, her flickering tone, her dragging, her utter lack of a legato style. A much better singer is Burrian, the pride of Dresden. Tannhäuser is perhaps the most difficult of all tenor rôles, but he sang it with a wealth of voice, an ease of phrasing, an endurance, that were little short of wonderful. His voice lacks the *Schmelz*—the sensuous beauty—of Knoté's, and what he will have to learn here particularly is the art of singing softly. As a vocal spendthrift he reminds one of the prodigal Tamagno. Concerning Monday's performance of "Marta" the most noteworthy thing is that the house was crowded, notwithstanding the counter-attraction of the Hammerstein first-night.

Fifty Shakspeare Songs. Edited by Charles Vincent. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. \$1.50.
Early Italian Piano Music. Edited by M. Esposito. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. \$1.50.

Amateurs are becoming more and more eager to read something about the music they hear. A century ago there were few musical periodicals, and the daily newspaper rarely paid any attention to happenings in the musical world. To-day there are few general periodicals that do not discuss the subject; and what is more, it is becoming customary to print collections of songs or instrumental pieces with literary introductions and notes, biographic, elucidatory, and critical. Of this custom a noteworthy illustration is the Musicians' Library of the Oliver Ditson Co., which was started a few years ago with a view of presenting the world's best music in beautifully printed volumes, edited by specialists, and containing ample information about the composers and their works. Twenty-two volumes have so far been issued, comprising the best works of Handel, Schubert, Schumann, Franz, Mendelssohn, Liszt, Brahms, Wagner, and others. In most of these volumes the highest standard has been maintained; the selections have been made judiciously, and in the im-

portant matter of translations of songs the Musicians' Library excels any other collection with which we are acquainted.

The latest additions are "Fifty Shakspeare Songs," edited by Charles Vincent, and "Early Italian Piano Music," edited by M. Esposito. The latter volume will prove a pleasant surprise to those who labor under the impression that all Italian music is operatic. It is true that modern Italy has produced no great pianoforte composer or player; but in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was a group of writers for the piano, headed by the two Scarlattis, whose pieces come to our ears almost as novelties; some of them are as far from being antiquated as Bach's, which they resemble. In Mr. Vincent's volume there is also an antique division, comprising songs mentioned by Shakspeare in his plays and songs possibly sung in the original performances. A third section comprises songs to Shaksperian texts composed since Shakspeare's time; and the final section brings us up to date, with songs by Sullivan, Parry, William Arms Fisher, Harvey Worthington Loomis, Coleridge-Taylor, and others. As the earlier songs mostly exist as melodies only, the editor has supplied them with appropriate accompaniments, in the spirit of their time. In the second period we find such names as Haydn, who wrote a setting of "She never told her love"; Rossini, who wrote for his "Otello" a setting of "The Willow Song"; and Schubert, whose "Hark, hark, the Lark" and "Sylvia," as a matter of course, crown the whole.

A new choral work from France—"The Children's Crusade"—was produced on Tuesday evening at the first concert of the New York Oratorio Society's thirty-fourth season. It is based on a poem by Marcel Schwob, and the music is by Gabriel Pierné, to whom the city of Paris awarded a special prize for this work in 1904. The cantata—or "musical legend," as the composer calls it—is divided into four parts. In the first we are told how the children escape from the arms of their distracted mothers to set forth for Jerusalem, under the leadership of the blind Alain; in the second, we see them on a highway marching like pilgrims; in the third they have arrived at the shore of the Mediterranean at Genoa, knowing that Jerusalem lies at the end of this sea, and believing that the sea will divide itself to let them march thither; in the fourth, they are on board ship in a terrific storm and perish. This is certainly a good subject for musical illustration. The composer has succeeded in reproducing in his score the atmosphere of the several scenes; he has introduced plenty of fine effects of euphony in both the orchestral and choral parts, which are also admirably constructed. The fatal defect is a lack of original melody. The maundering arioso which takes its place soon becomes wearisome. The performance under Frank Damrosch was marked by precision and animation.

Mme. Nordica will give her only New York concert this season on January 8 at Carnegie Hall, assisted by the entire Philharmonic Orchestra, under the direction of Mr. Safonoff. She will sing Beethoven's "Ah Perfido," the "Love-Death" from "Tristan and Isolde," and an aria from

the "Götterdämmerung" with orchestra, and a group of songs with piano accompaniment. The orchestral numbers for this concert are Bizet's Overture "Patrie," and the fantasia "Romeo" by Tchaikovsky. Mme. Schumann-Heink will sing the songs of Schubert, Schumann, Franz, and Brahms at her last song recital here this winter, which she will give in Carnegie Hall on Sunday afternoon, December 9. In the Brahms group she will include his Six Hungarian Gypsy Songs, which have not been heard here in recent years; Schubert will be represented by four songs, including "Die Allmacht." Other well-known songs on her programme are: "Ich grolle nicht" and "Frühlingsfahrt," by Schumann, and "Im Herbst" and "Gute Nacht," by Franz.

A new and fairly interesting collection of letters by Richard Wagner, entitled "Familienbriefe," is published by A. Duncker, in Berlin. As the title indicates, they were written to members of his family, especially to his mother, sisters, and first wife, and furnish valuable contributions to his biography as well as faithful and mostly favorable revelations of his character. Particularly praiseworthy is his ardent devotion to his aged mother and his fine appreciation of his indebtedness to her. A vivid picture is also given of his persistent efforts to attain his ideals, and his struggles against opposition and actual destitution, as in Paris. In 1852 he writes from Zurich, where he found refuge as an exile after having been forced to flee from Saxony for taking part in the revolution of 1848: "I shall never return to Germany even if I should be pardoned a hundred times." Notwithstanding this resolution, we find him a few years later in Carlsruhe. About thirty years ago a Viennese feuilletonist, Daniel Spitzer, acquired at an auction sale a package of letters written by Richard Wagner to a dressmaker. He printed some of them in the *Neue Freie Presse*, with caustic comments. These letters have now been issued complete in a brochure by the Viennese publisher, Ernest Stülpnagel. They illustrate what was certainly the greatest of Wagner's eccentricities—his fantastic love of silk, velvet, and laces for garments and furniture.

Art.

EXCAVATIONS AT PERGAMON AND ELSEWHERE.

The excavations which the German Archaeological Institute undertakes every autumn at Pergamon, are being carried on as usual under the direction of A. Couze and W. Dörpfeld. Some of the finds will help to fill gaps in our present knowledge of the history of Pergamon. The work is going on at four different points. The greater part of the laborers are clearing the largest gymnasium of the city. This will be the third building of the kind discovered at Pergamon. The two already known, situated on the south slope of the hill, were used by boys and youths for physical exercise. The newly found building, by far the most magnificent of the three, was devoted to the exclusive use of grown men. Of its many spacious halls, the most inter-

esting is in the form of a Greek theatre, employed probably as an auditorium. Many pieces of sculpture which once adorned this gymnasium have come to light, but, unfortunately, in a rather mutilated condition. Herakles, the presiding deity of athletes, is honored with a number of statues.

Another task is the opening of several artificial mounds in the plain of Pergamon. The largest and most important is the Jigma Tepé, probably the burial place of the Kings of Pergamon. This, as far as can be determined at present, has never before been opened, so that presumably it still contains its original treasure. Whether the excavators will be able this season to penetrate to the inner part of the mound, which is 50 metres high, seems doubtful. But a number of smaller mounds in this neighborhood have already been opened. In one was found a large stone sarcophagus. The man buried in it must have been a distinguished personage, as is shown by the two swords found at his side, and the beautiful gold wreath that once adorned his head. The wreath, made of gold ivy-leaves with a dainty little Eros hovering among them, is a work of the second century B. C. It will form one of the chief ornaments of the Museum at Constantinople.

A third group of men is busy with the remains of the bridge which once spanned the river Selinus. Already it has been ascertained that three arches of great size were used in this bridge. The myth that the arch is the invention of the Romans is still widely spread; it is of great interest, therefore, to find that at Pergamon this construction was used in various forms in the second century B. C., when Pergamon was still untouched by Roman influence.

Mr. Grüber, an architect, is investigating the remains of the ancient aqueducts. He has devoted much study to this subject, and he hopes this season to finish his researches. The number of aqueducts at Pergamon is astonishingly large, and some are of extremely interesting construction. Smaller excavations are being made to investigate the extent of the royal palaces which once crowned the summit of the citadel.

The progress made is considerable, but it will probably be many years before the citadel is all cleared. Then will come the task of laying bare the magnificent ruins of the lower town, where little has as yet been accomplished.

The new director-general of the Department of Antiquities in Italy, Dr. Corrado Ricci, is to push the excavations in Pompeii, which were interrupted more than ten years ago because the excavators had reached privately owned land. Dr. Ricci has set aside 38,000 lire for the purchase of such land.

Objects of considerable archaeological value, consisting of a number of bas-reliefs, have been discovered at Yozghat in Asia Minor, in the course of excavations undertaken under the surveillance of Maeridi Bey, of the Imperial Ottoman Museum at Constantinople, and Dr. Hugo Winkler of the University of Berlin. These reliefs, with their inscriptions, are said to throw light on the civilization of ancient Babylon.

English Colored Books. By Martin Hardie. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$6.75.

This volume, one of the "Connoisseur's

Library," under the general editorial supervision of Cyril Davenport, is likely to prove of permanent value to the collector of those interesting books with colored plates, which were produced in such profusion in England during the first half of the nineteenth century, as well as to the general reader or student who wishes to know something of the various processes of printing in colors, their development, and their final results, the finished prints. Although the volume is largely devoted to English books with colored plates, it covers, in fact, the whole period from the first book containing printing in two colors down to the modern "three-color" process, which has made possible the production of cheap colored illustrations. The new art, as shown in the many books with colored illustrations produced within the last five or six years, is indeed marvellous; but the modern three-color reproductions, such as those in this book, when compared with the original plates as sent out nearly a century ago by Ackermann from his "Repository of Arts," fail in every point except cheapness.

Very early in the development of printing, large initials, cut on wood blocks, were printed with red and blue ink in the spaces left for them. Probably the sheets were not again put under the press, but the wood block was struck with a mallet. The earliest color printing produced in England, so far as can now be ascertained, is found in that production of an unknown author and unidentified printer, the first edition of "The Book of St. Albans," 1486. The volume contains 117 coats-of-arms from wood-blocks in blue, red, yellow, and olive green, with other tints added by hand. The coloring by hand of book illustrations, whether impressions from wood blocks or copper plates, either by professional illuminators or by owners of the books themselves, began with the publication of books with illustrations. The "Nuremberg Chronicle," 1493, sold unbound and uncolored for two Rhenish florins, bound and colored for six. In the eighteenth century were printed such works as Albin's "Natural History of English Insects," Mark Catesby's "Natural History of Carolina, Florida, and the Bahama Islands," Edwards's "Natural History of Uncommon Birds," with line engravings colored by hand.

The method of a separate block for each color was applied to the printing of separate plates and to wall-paper, but seems not to have been used in book-illustration in England until 1754, when John Baptist Jackson, himself a wall-paper manufacturer, published an "Essay on the Invention of Engraving and Printing in Chiaro Oscuro." Another advance in printing from wood blocks was made by William Savage, whose "Practical Hints on Decorative Printing," 1822, contains illustrations printed from as many as fourteen blocks. In 1835 George Baxter patented a process of first printing the entire picture from a plate engraved on copper, steel, or zinc, or from a lithographic stone, and supplying the color from separate wood blocks, sometimes as many as thirty. With Baxter's work, color-printing from wood blocks reached its highest development.

Simultaneously with the development through 300 years of printing from blocks, where the surface is in relief, there was similar development of printing from metal plates, where the ink is deposited in lines cut into the metal. This method, which is little used in book-illustration, but which produced the magnificent prints of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century, is closely allied to hand-coloring. It consists in painting upon the plate itself the separate colors, which are transferred by pressure to the paper, giving a finished print for each impression. A second method, allied to that of printing from wood blocks, consisted of the preparation of several plates, each for a single color. These plates could be inked rapidly and wiped off by a mere apprentice, whereas extreme care, if not artistic ability, was required in painting the several colors upon a single plate.

As foreshadowing the modern three-color process, there is the work of Jacob Christoph Le Blon, a German by birth, who came to London in 1719. In that year he secured a patent for a "New Method of Multiplying of Pictures and Draughts." He endeavored to distinguish in the painting he wished to copy the primary colors red, yellow, and blue, and then engrave three plates, and superimpose these colors. His only book with colored plates was an explanation of his method: "Colorito. L'harmonie du coloris dans la peinture, reduite en pratique mécanique" (London, 1722). Besides the illustrations in this book, he reproduced some fifty large prints which are among the wonders of color-printing. The "golden age" of color printing was the last half of the eighteenth century, when Earlom, J. R. Smith, and the other great mezzotinters and engravers in stipple were producing those magnificent prints which are so attractive to the collector of to-day. But colored mezzotints and stipple engravings were little used as book illustrations, for their preparation was too expensive; and the plates of soft metal allowed only a few impressions.

The book before us deals primarily with English books with colored illustrations, which reached their perfection in books published by Ackermann, McLean, Boydell, and others from 1800 to 1830. In these books the plates are aquatints, from etched copper plates in one or two tints and colored by hand. Ackermann's publications may be divided into three classes, architecture and famous buildings, costume and scenery, and books with humorous plates, the latter by Thomas Rowlandson. As Rowlandson's humorous plates and Pugin's on architecture have helped to make Ackermann famous, so the books published by McLean are sought for on account of the plates of sporting subjects from drawings by Henry Alken. Some of these publications have become exceedingly scarce and costly. William Blake, unique in his genius, as in his process of reproducing his own drawings from copper plates etched in relief, deserves a book to himself rather than the chapter to which Mr. Hardie's notes are confined. Other chapters on George and Robert Cruikshank, John Leech, W. M. Thackeray, Randolph Caldecott and other modern illustrators bring the account down to our own day and "process" plates. A last chapter is devoted to the collecting

of colored books, catalogues, and prices. An appendix contains lists of plates printed by Baxter, books published by Ackermann, and books with colored plates by Rowlandson and by Alken.

The book, as a whole, is admirable. Nothing has been heretofore published covering the field as it does. The story of the development of the art is interesting and non-technical; the books described most fully in each class are typical and the reproductions of the plates, necessarily on coated paper, are as good as could be expected from the process used.

The thirteenth annual architectural exhibition of the T Square Club, held under the auspices and in the galleries of the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, Philadelphia, is open through the month of December. The exhibition includes many of the drawings submitted in the recent competition for the Peace Palace of The Hague; the Shelby Court House, by Hale & Rogers; the Wisconsin State Capitol and the National Theatre in New York, by Peabody & Stearns; the Washington National Museum, by Hornblower & Marshall; the New York terminal of the Pennsylvania Railroad, by McKim, Mead & White; some of Henry Hornbostle's drawings of the Carnegie Institute of Pittsburgh; ecclesiastical work of Cram, Goodhue & Furgerson; and D. H. Burnham & Co.'s original sketches for the beautifying of San Francisco. There are also photographs of executed work, and drawings in color for work executed or in the course of construction. A whole room is devoted to French architects. M. Chedanne, architect to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, shows his remarkable drawings made in connection with his study of the Pantheon at Rome, and drawings of the restoration of a Roman temple, of the decorations of a Roman house, and of his Champs Elysées Hotel in Paris. M. Duquesne shows drawings of two Italian municipal palaces; M. Lapeyrer, five drawings of his scheme for a great entrance boulevard to the city of Bordeaux. The large hall at the Academy is filled with the exhibits of the National Society of Mural Painters. Among the exhibitors are John La Farge, E. H. Blashfield, William B. Van Ingen, and Karl Newmann. The central rotunda and the gallery adjoining contain the exhibit of the National Sculpture Society, with four groups from the New York Custom House by Daniel C. French, and a model of the doorway of the chapel at Annapolis by Ernest Flagg.

The fifth annual exhibition of arts and crafts and the eleventh annual exhibition of the Society of Western Artists open today at the Art Institute of Chicago.

The municipality of Barcelona will hold an international art exhibition from April 23 to July 15. The exhibition will comprise fine arts and art crafts generally.

Four pictures by Domenico Theotocopuli, often known as "El Greco," in the chapel of San José at Toledo, have been sold to Goupil of Paris. The transaction has excited such comment that the authorities of the Spanish Government have forbidden the shipment of the pictures until a searching examination has been made into the right to sell them.

Science.

Bacteria in Relation to Plant Diseases. By Erwin F. Smith, United States Department of Agriculture. Vol. I: Methods of Work and General Literature of Bacteriology, exclusive of Plant Diseases. Washington, D. C.: Published by the Carnegie Institution.

The most striking feature in the recent development of the so-called natural and physical sciences is the rapidity with which new fields of research are being opened to investigation along the hitherto neglected or uncultivated boundaries between the sciences. For instance, between the vast domains of chemistry and physics, there is a borderland which was occasionally invaded by chemists on the one side and by physicists on the other, who brought away very interesting but generally uncoordinated results. Until lately, few students dared to call themselves chemical physicists or physical chemists, but now the territory is fairly well filled with them. These special explorers have not only found a field worth careful investigation, but they are compelling the re-investigation of the older adjoining fields. Thus the physiology which does not take into account these later researches is hopelessly out of date.

There is a debatable land between plants and animals, inhabited by microscopic organisms, many of which are of such doubtful character that the most successful as well as the boldest student who has investigated them, preferred to call them *microbes*, that is, little living things, and thus let their place in systems of classification look out for itself. This territory between the two biological sciences was formerly a favorite hunting-ground for amateur microscopists, but as many of these investigators were imperfectly equipped for their work, the results were received with more or less caution. Even the best of these early explorers did not have at command lenses and methods which could secure success. When, however, the newer lenses and more telling methods became known, exploration followed exploration surprisingly fast, and with startling results. It soon became evident that the new territory must be divided and subdivided between investigators. Some of these were more zealous than wise, and published results which it was almost impossible, offhand, either wholly to confirm or absolutely to reject. The literature grew too quickly to be assimilated by those for whom it was intended, and there were needless repetitions, often made more useless by confusion in terminology. The objects under investigation were difficult to describe in fixed terms, and there was no general consensus as to the application of technical words, so that it was often impossible to discriminate between the true and the misleading. It was in the part of the field devoted to the diseases of animals and plants that the greatest confusion existed, but this confusion was measurably disregarded on account of the beneficent nature of some of the results of the study. Our readers have been made fully aware of the triumphs in certain parts of this sub-

ject, especially the treatment of a few diseases of man; but it is questionable whether the successes in plant pathology and therapeutics have been as widely known.

Obviously it was an imperative duty of the departments of agriculture in different countries to foster these lines of investigation, and this duty has been well performed. The United States Department of Agriculture has given much attention to the subject, and the experiment stations throughout the land have made this work one of the more important features of their activity.

The author of the present volume has been one of the most assiduous in this comparatively new field. In his responsible position in Washington in charge of the laboratory of plant pathology and with a wide correspondence, he has seen that numerous students in our country are not provided with all proper appliances and are not versed in the best methods. To aid them in a substantial way, he has prepared with great care and with minute attention to detail a treatise on the right use of the necessary appliances—all of which is an essential introduction to his main subject—to be presented subsequently, namely, the diseases of plants. At first sight, the present volume would seem to many to be altogether too full of minute detail. But it must be remembered that many students whom Professor Smith had in mind do not have access to properly balanced handbooks. A large number of textbooks take a great deal for granted; Professor Smith has preferred to take nothing for granted. If this be an error, it is a useful one.

To those who care for amateur study of microscopic objects, Professor Smith's treatise affords ample advice. When we remember that the present methods of staining cells and their contents have grown out of the much-derided pastime of former amateurs who wished only to make pretty specimens, and that many of the greatest advances in modern photography have been the result of the lavish expenditure of time and money by amateurs, we can welcome Professor Smith's book, not only for its serviceableness to professional workers, but for the possible good to science which may come through its hints and advice for those who are less systematically trained.

Handbook of Polar Discoveries. By Gen. A. W. Greely. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.

This work of timely interest is an expansion of a publication which has done many years' service with those who follow the progress of exploration in the polar tracts. In the 325 pages of text the reader is presented, as the preface informs him, with results obtained from "more than 70,000 pages of original narrative"; and the facts, it can be readily seen, have been obtained in most cases through a conscientious appeal to first-hand authority. Gen. Greely's high standing as an Arctic authority insures reliability, at the same time that it gives special value to his personal estimate of the accomplishments of different explorers. The book follows, instead of the strictly chronological plan of most polar summaries, the topical method. While this necessitates a certain amount

of repetition, it gives on the whole a clearer picture of the geographical relations involved in researches extending through three hundred and fifty years. Of the twenty-three chapters five are devoted to the Antarctic tract. The material of this section is classified on the "quadrant system" suggested by Dr. F. A. Cook: the American, Pacific, African, and Australian-quadrants. The book is brought down to include the making of the Northwest Passage by Amundsen; but, unfortunately, it was out of the press before intelligence was received of the latest and most brilliant achievement in Arctic exploration, the 1906 journey of Peary.

In the unusually large number of data with which the book deals, the author could hardly avoid occasional slips, and it would be doing scant justice to this useful publication to lay emphasis upon minor defects. We may, however, point to a few of the more serious misstatements or misprints, some of which have crept in as the result of imperfect revision of the earlier text. Thus, we have the statement on p. 220, that the America, the vessel of the late Fiala expedition, in reaching 82° 04' N., equalled "the highest record for a ship under steam in the Western Hemisphere" (see p. 202: Polaris, 1870, 82° 11' N., etc.); on p. 231, that Low Point, 83° 07' N., attained by Lockwood and Brainard (of the Greeley expedition), was in equal latitude "with the highest-known land" (see p. 259; Peary, 83° 39'—Cape Morris Jesup); on p. 247, that Koldewey and Payer (in 1870), lat. 77° 01' N., reached "the highest point ever attained by explorers of the east coast [of Greenland]," overlooking the fact, properly stated on p. 260, that the Duke of Orleans, in 1905, attained the position of lat. 78° 16' on the same coast. A glaring misstatement (p. 231) is that Lockwood Island (83° 24') is "the highest north, then or now." It is much to be regretted that no really good map accompanies the text. Most of the maps that are scattered through the volume are rendered all but valueless, because they are much reduced in size and are out of date.

The conclusive proof that helium is produced from radium salts is explained in recent technical journals by Sir William Crookes. The experiment was performed in the usual shaped vacuum tube, constricted in the middle and enlarged at each end, through which a wire, ending in a loop, was fused. A radium salt was fused into the loops and the air exhausted from the tube. An examination of the contents of the tube by means of a spectroscope showed that there was no helium present. After the tube had stood from March until June, however, the passage of the current showed the presence of a vapor which gave the distinct spectroscopic test for helium. As the test was done in a vacuum, entire discredit is thrown upon the idea that helium is not given off from radium salts, but that radium salts "sort out" the helium from the atmosphere.

Major Ronald Ross, professor of tropical medicine in the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine and at the University of Liverpool, recently gave an account before the Oxford Medical Society of his investigations in Greece. These were undertaken in Bœotia for the Lake Kopais

Company, on whose estates malaria has been terribly prevalent. Major Ross's local figures are only, as he discovered by recourse to the Grecian Anti-Malaria League, a specific instance of general conditions. Out of a population estimated at 2,433,806 the average annual number of cases is probably 250,000, resulting in about 1,760 deaths. He found that owing to the disease many children suffer from enlargement of the spleen; and that adults, partly immunized though they are, lose in vigor because of unhealthy childhood.

The statistical publications of the German Empire show that the great increase in the population of the country, amounting to almost 900,000 per annum, is owing chiefly to the large birth rate in the country districts, and, secondly, to the decrease in the death rate in the big cities. The absolute increase in the population of the Empire would be materially larger if the birth rate in the centres of population were not less than the average. In 1904 the average birth rate for the whole country was 35.2 per thousand, but in the cities it was not quite 30 per thousand.

Two nature books of life in California are to be published this month by Paul Elder & Co. One is "Bird Notes Afield," by Charles Keeler; the other is "The Garden Book of California," by Belle Sumner Angier.

Finance.

A BREAK IN THE "CURB MARKET."

During nearly three months Wall Street has indulged in daily excitement over the furious rise in stocks on the "curb"; at the close of last week it had a little experience in the other side of the game. The focus of interest was a group of mining shares; they went up and came down with the more violence, for the very reason that nobody knew what any of them was worth. As an incident in speculation, the affair would have possessed no broader interest than an evening party at a faro table, but for the fact that the large paper profits, so easily won, completely turned the heads of the speculative community. This result was all the more natural, because speculative appetite, on the part of the general public, was unsated, and because the enforced pause in Stock Exchange and real estate speculation, as a result of money stringency, left "the curb" the only available place to gratify the passion. Even the horse-races had ended for the season. As a consequence, not only at New York, but in Pittsburgh, Chicago, Boston, and many Canadian cities, the speculation in mines raged unchecked. At New York it actually diverted so much patronage from regular Stock Exchange houses that credit balances of customers were drawn down, new faces began to appear on the fringe of the "curb market," and respectable banking houses, tired of doing nothing on orders for the Stock Exchange, made preparations to participate on a large scale, for themselves and their clients, in the gamble on the curb.

What is "the curb"? The phrase has long been familiar in Stock Exchange vernacular. It means, first, as the word indi-

cates, a market conducted without a roof over its head, as against the dignified seclusion of "regular" brokers within the four walls of their own exchange. At London the "curb trading" is conducted in Throgmorton Street, behind the Capel Court entrance to the Stock Exchange; it begins when the Exchange has closed. When "Americans" are in active speculation, and when the climax of activity of New York occurs, say at 2 P. M., which is 7 P. M. in London, one may see the "curb market" in full swing in the darkness and fog of England's late winter afternoon, with buyer and seller barely able to make out each other's faces. At Paris, the *coulisse*—which name, properly used of the side wings of a theatrical stage, is characteristically applied to the "curb"—does its business on the portico of the Bourse, and, as in London, it deals in stocks which are also sold on the real exchange.

In New York, the "curb" is a genuine sidewalk stock exchange; rain or shine, its specialists stand on the Broad Street asphalt, roped in by the police, and sheltered in stormy weather only by a solid mass of umbrellas. But unlike the European "curb markets," it deals only in stocks not formally "listed" on the Stock Exchange. It buys and sells shares which promoters will not submit to the scrutiny of Stock Exchange authorities, or which those authorities refuse to admit to trading. Standard Oil stock belongs to the first-named class; a host of raw industrial or mining projects belong to that last mentioned. Into this curb market came the numerous "mining propositions" of our own far West and, recently, of Canada.

The filip to the upward movement and to the general craze was given this season by the Nipissing Mine, a Canadian property yielding cobalt and silver. In the course of a few weeks, at the beginning of this autumn, shares of this stock rose from the neighborhood of \$5 per share to \$34, an advance of nearly 600 per cent. Along with Nipissing, other mining stocks rose 50 to 100 per cent.; every one on the curb was making money. No one knew anything at first hand about the value or earning capacity of these properties; speculation was merely fed on promises. But the case of Nipissing was peculiar, in that a New York mining house of high standing was negotiating to buy control, and at length announced, a few weeks ago, that it had signed a contract to take a large holding at \$25 per share. Estimates of respectable mining engineers, published along with this announcement, indicated much greater value than the "option price"; hence the willingness of the curb to pay \$9 per share more than the Messrs. Guggenheim contracted for. The inference was drawn that in any case, the stock could not fall below the contract price of \$25.

Even on the curb, appearances are deceitful. Last week the stock broke heavily; on Saturday, it actually went below 20. After the close of business, the explanation came. Something was the matter with the title to the mine; the Guggenheims had withdrawn from their contract, and declined to have anything further to do with the property. The stock has since been down to \$14.50 and with it, the price of other "mine specialties" crumbled. If Nipissing could lose 60 per cent. of its

value in a fortnight, what was to be said of the rest? From the Stock Exchange point of view, a "panic on the curb" is a tempest in a tea-pot; but the losses are quite as real as in a "Northern Pacific panic," and, measured by percentages, they were considerably heavier. Most people, too, would be surprised to know how widely such losses fall in the community at large.

The rather obvious and exceedingly trite moral is, that the investor or the speculator will do well to know something about the stock in which he trades. When he buys because his friend or his broker "gives him a tip," he is relying on advisers who probably know no more about the thing than he. When he follows the purchases of an "inside capitalist," he is very likely to be helping to make the market on which the astute "insider" can sell out. But the human mind is such that the simple outsider—the "tenderfoot" of Wall Street—always expects to sell out his own stock on the "inside manipulator," and at the top price of the market.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Adams, John Coleman. An Honorable Youth. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
- Barker, E. The Political Thought of Plato and Aristotle. Putnams.
- Blackmore's Lorna Doune. Edited by W. P. Trent and W. T. Brewster. Boston: Ginn & Co. 65 cents.
- Bölsche, Wilhelm. Hackel: His Life and Work. Philadelphia: Geo. W. Jacobs & Co.
- Botome, Margaret. The King's Daughters' Year Book. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co.
- Brine, Mary D. Daisy Dear.—Grandmother and Christmas Eve. Dutton. 50 cents.
- Campbell, Donald Francis. A Short Course on Differential Equations. Macmillan Co. 90 cents net.
- Cautley, C. Holmes. The Millmaster. Longmans. \$1.50.
- Christmas Songs and Carols. Dutton. 50 cents.

- Christmastide in Prose and Poetry. Dutton. \$1.
- Clark, Victor S. The Labour Movement in Australasia. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50 net.
- Cowper, William. John Gilpin. Dutton. 50 cents.
- Crawford, T. C. A Real Mahatma. London: Luzac & Co.
- Crosby, Ernest. Golden Rule Jones, Mayor of Toledo. Chicago: Public Publishing Co. 50 cents.
- Crozier, John Beattie. The Wheel of Wealth. Longmans. \$4.60.
- Davis, R. H. Real Soldiers of Fortune. Scribners. \$1.50 net.
- Derr, Louis. Photography for Students of Physics and Chemistry. Macmillan Co.
- Diary of a Forty-Niner. Edited by Chauncey L. Canfield. Morgan Shepard Co. \$1.25 net.
- Dutton's Holiday Annual. Dutton. \$1.25.
- Fallow, Lance. Silverleaf and Oak. Macmillan Co.
- Fiala, Anthony. Fighting the Polar Ice. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$3.80 net.
- Garvie, Alfred E. A Guide to Preachers. A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$1.50 net.
- Giffman, Lawrence. The Music of To-morrow. John Lane Co.
- Gonnard, R. L'Emigration Européenne. Paris: Armand Colin.
- Graham, Margaret Collier. Gifts and Givers. Morgan Shepard Co.
- Granger, A. D. Skat and How to Play It. Buffalo: The Matthews-Northrup Works. \$1.
- Griggs, William. Odds and Ends from Pagoda Land. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. 90 cents net.
- Gruy-er, Paul. Napoleon, King of Elba. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Hamil, Katharine Forest. Rhymes for Wee Sweethearts. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
- Haskell, Mrs. L. The Sweet Story of Old. Dutton. 50 cents.
- Henty, G. A., and others. In Storyland. Dutton. \$1.50.
- Huntington, Helen. The Days that Pass. John Lane Co. \$1.25 net.
- Ibsen's Complete Works. The translation revised and edited by William Archer. Four volumes now ready. Scribners. \$1 each.
- James, George Wharton. The Wonders of the Colorado Desert. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$5 net.
- Jenks, Tudor. A Magician for One Day.—The Rescue of the Syndicate. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co.
- Jewett, Frances Gulick. Good Health. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
- Jewett, John Howard. Baby Finger Play and Stories. Dutton. 50 cents.
- Johnson, Edith Henry. The Argument of Aristotle's Metaphysics. Lemcke & Buechner.
- Juvenal's Satires. Edited by F. A. Cole. Putnams. \$1 net.
- King Philip's War. Edited by George W. Ellis and John E. Morris. Grafton Press. \$2 net.
- Lang, Andrew. Homer and His Friends. Longmans. \$3.50 net.
- Lenotic, G. The Flight of Marie Antoinette. Translated by Mrs. Rodolph Stawell. Philadelphia: Lippincott.

- Johnson, Phillander Chase. Senator Sorghum's Primer of Politics. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co.
- Longfellow's Courtship of Miles Standish. Dutton. \$1.50.
- Longfellow's Songs and Sonnets. Dutton. 50 cents.
- Macdonald, Frederika. Jean Jacques Rousseau. 2 vols. Putnams. \$6.50.
- Mackaye, Percy. Jeanne D'Arc. Macmillan Co.
- Manning, Anne. The Household of Sir Thomas More. Dutton. \$2.
- Mason, Daniel Gregory. The Romantic Composers. Macmillan Co. \$1.75 net.
- Merriman, Charles Eustace. Who's It in America. B. W. Dodge & Co.
- Montgomery, Frances Trego. Billy Whiskers' Friends. Chicago: Western Book and Stationery Co.
- Moore, N. Hudson. The Collector's Manual. F. A. Stokes Co. \$5 net.
- Morgan, William Conger. Qualitative Analysis. Macmillan Co. \$1.90 net.
- Muckenstrum, Louis. Louis' Salads and Chafing Dishies. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co.
- My Little Dutch Book. Dutton. 50 cents.
- My Little Red Indian Book. Dutton. 50 cents.
- Old Ballads. Dutton. \$1.
- Page, Thomas Nelson. Novels, Stories, Sketches, and Poems. 12 vols. Scribners. \$18.
- Parry, D. H. The Golden Glory. Dutton. 50 cents.
- Pfeifferer, Otto. Primitive Christianity. Translated by W. Montgomery. Vol. 1. Putnams. \$3.
- Pope, Alexander. The Rape of the Lock and Other Poems. Edited by T. M. Parrott. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
- Price, William Hyde. The English Patents of Monopoly. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Ramsay, W. M. Pauline and Other Studies. A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$3 net.
- Roberts, Georgia, and Katharine Greenland. The Toy Village. Dutton. \$1.50.
- Scott's Ivanhoe. Edited by W. D. Lewis. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
- Slattery, Charles Lewis. The Master of the World. Longmans. \$1.50 net.
- Smith, C. Alphonso. Studies in English Syntax. Boston: Ginn & Co.
- Songs of Faith and Hope. Dutton. 50 cents.
- Sparling, Samuel E. Business Organization. Macmillan Co. \$1.25 net.
- Stapper, Paul. Etudes Sur Goethe. Paris: Armand Colin.
- Studies in the History and Art of the Eastern Provinces of the Roman Empire. Edited by W. M. Ramsay. Aberdeen.
- Symons, Arthur. The Fool of the World and Other Poems. John Lane Co.
- Tactus's Annals. Edited by C. D. Fisher. Oxford University Press.
- Train, Arthur. The Prisoner at the Bar. Scribners. \$2 net.
- Tynan, Katherine, and Charles Robinson. A Little Book of Courtesies. Dutton. 75 cents.
- World's Classics: Campbell's Sophocles; Bacon's Advancement of Learning; Johnston's Lives of English Poets; Eliot's Silas Marner; Montaigne's Essays; Marcus Aurelius. Henry Frowde.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 13, 1906.

The Week.

The award of the Nobel prize of \$40,000 to Theodore Roosevelt is a proper recognition of his success in bringing about peace between Russia and Japan. This is the finest of President Roosevelt's achievements, and the one for which he should be longest remembered. In every land this award will be applauded, nowhere, however, more warmly than in this country, which is a sharer in the honor to its Chief Magistrate. With admirable public spirit and tact he has decided to devote the money to the cause of industrial peace. The prize will also, we trust, modify his own conventional ideas about the necessity of being armed to the teeth, and will set his thoughts more strongly than heretofore in the direction of amity between nations. At the coming Hague Conference he has a unique opportunity to startle the world by humanitarian proposals for disarmament; he is peculiarly in a position to lead in some long step toward relieving the poor of Europe from the crushing burdens of militarism.

President Roosevelt often speaks and acts as if in his conception an efficient government is that of a benevolent autocrat—not a mere executive, checked by a legislature and a judiciary, and hemmed in by rigid laws. When routine administration under law allows perpetration of a wrong, he would step in, *deus ex machina*, and make the cause of virtue triumph. This notion of his has never been displayed more clearly than in his special message to Congress asking authority to dismiss naval officers whenever he sees fit. The case which has incited him to this extraordinary step is that of a paymaster who, becoming drunk at a dinner in a Yokohama hotel, on May 9, 1905, behaved indecently in the presence of a number of ladies. When this officer was tried in January, 1906, the court-martial plainly came short of duty, for, instead of dismissing him, it merely reduced him to the foot of the list of paymasters and prescribed a public reprimand. In human institutions such failures are inevitable. "I think there is no danger that this power would be abused," says Mr. Roosevelt, in making his request for absolute authority. His consciousness of his own rectitude is thus only surpassed by his confidence in his unknown successors. Moreover, he wrote this message at the very moment when thousands of Americans were

warmly protesting because he had ended the military careers of 150 innocent soldiers, because he could not get hold of "from nine to twenty" guilty men. This was so grave an error that it may fitly be characterized as an abuse of power. The President, too, has plainly neglected the naval officers' point of view. The law to which he objects was demanded by the army and navy jointly as security that officers should be deprived of life commissions only by due process of law. And why not the Army if the Navy? And the Revenue Marine? If executive dismissal will extirpate all evil growths, why limit it to the Navy?

The Secretary of the Navy recants this year his last year's belief that we have warships enough, and he thinks it well to have two more battleships. His change of mind is due to the failure of certain expectations that foreign nations would limit their fleets, and to another mysterious reason, no reference to which shall slip from his pen. The rest of his annual report is of interest because it endorses highly the recommendation of the Personnel Board, which has been sitting all summer with a view to regulating the flow of promotion; and because it favors also a radical reorganization of the Navy Department. A more sweeping change in the corps of officers has never been proposed at any one time, unless it be the amalgamation of the line and the engineers. In urging a reorganization of the Navy Department, Mr. Bonaparte favors placing all the bureaus which have to do with *matériel* under one head and those relating to the personnel under another. The first group will comprise the bureau of yards and docks, equipment, construction and repair, steam engineering, and ordnance. In the other will be the office of the Chief of the Navigation Bureau, the Surgeon-General, Paymaster-General, Commandant of the Marine Corps, and the Superintendent of the Naval Academy. From the point of view of business method and fighting efficiency, much is to be said in favor of the suggested change. But the heads of these two sections will have enormous power—much greater than that of the present Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, who, in the eyes of many officers, has had far too much control over the destinies of individuals.

The annual reports of the Secretary of the Treasury have long been largely given up to discussion of the currency and exposition of projects of reform. Nothing, in fact, could better prove the hodge-podge character of our past finan-

cial legislation, as a whole, than the fact that, for nearly half a century, the annual Treasury reports have almost without exception advocated a change in existing law. Secretary Shaw, in his first report, 1902, argued for a banknote currency based on general assets, remarking that he did not believe it necessary to make the currency thus issued a first lien on assets, and that the new plan "would not preclude the continuance of the present national bank currency." A year ago, he proposed additional issues of banknotes, equal to 50 per cent. of outstanding bond-secured circulation, but subject to a tax of 5 or 6 per cent., with a view to early redemption when no longer needed. Since Secretary Shaw's report of 1905, committees of the New York Chamber of Commerce and the American Bankers' Association, have, as we noted on November 22, joined in formulating a plan which includes the main principles of these Treasury propositions. But now the Secretary seems to have abandoned his currency reform plan of a year ago, and the modification of it proposed by the bankers, in behalf of a plan of sheer paternalism in the money market. He revives the ideas which he has enunciated from time to time regarding bank reserves, and their regulation in the discretion of the Treasury. In this view he is, we think, governed by wholly erroneous notions of the money market, which lead him to a mischievous inference as to the proper functions of the Treasury. His fundamental argument seems to be that Wall Street call money rates of 25 or 50 per cent. are evils *per se* and unnecessary evils at that; therefore, the banks ought to combine to suppress them, and if the banks will not do so, the Treasury ought to intervene. For ourselves, this strikes us as sitting on a safety valve. Mr. Shaw's ideas on paternalism in finance are summarized in this extraordinary paragraph from his report, which we reprint without further comment:

If the Secretary of the Treasury were given \$100,000,000 to be deposited with the banks, or withdrawn as he might deem expedient, and if in addition he were clothed with authority over the reserves of the several banks, with power to contract the national-bank circulation at pleasure, in my judgment no panic as distinguished from industrial stagnation could threaten either the United States or Europe that he could not avert.

The United States Civil Service Commission, in its annual report, confirms the press dispatches regarding the difficulties of the Government in filling its competitive positions. People still take the examinations, it appears, but from

40 to 60 per cent. of the highest eligibles on the various lists decline appointments. "The Government cannot hope to compete with private employers," says the Commission, "unless it pays salaries that measure up fairly well to the standard of private business." In order to make Government positions more attractive, a bill has been introduced increasing the salaries of civil employees by 10 per cent. The complaint of this class does not, however, come alone. Congress is coming to the point of raising the salaries of its own members. A Cabinet officer has embodied in his annual report an allusion to the inadequacy of his pay. Generally speaking, there is not a man in public position, high or low, who does not make a convincing demonstration that, on a basis of the private demand for like services, he ought to receive more than he does. Logically, we should expect the announcement that the Government machinery is inadequately manned. Yet the specifications in regard to the present labor famine are not alarming. To say that Government salaries have not been adjusted to meet the present cost of living, is merely stating one of their shortcomings. They have not properly been adjusted at all. Most of them "just growed." And the man really to be pitied is not the ambitious outsider, whether he be a candidate for a Cabinet post or a rural free delivery route, but the sheltered clerk who entered the service in the days when the salary looked larger, and to-day can neither have it enlarged nor summon the initiative to go elsewhere.

The Isthmian Canal Commission announced on Saturday a "postponement" till January 12 of the opening of bids for the completion of the Panama Canal. This is the officially optimistic way of confessing that no bids had been received, and that none would be received by the date originally fixed, December 12. Moreover, it is stated that "certain changes" in the form of contract are to be made. These are due, it is explained, to the suggestions of "a number of contractors." This again is the polite way of saying that the old form of contract was impracticable. Among the sweeping alterations now to be made in this contract, which last summer was flawless and would be changed to suit no one, are: (1) Reduction in the amount of the bond required; (2) relief of the contractor from liability for defective material, throwing upon the Government the expense of replacing any that may be discovered; (3) a Government guarantee to cover fluctuations in the wage scale on the Isthmus; and (4) a stipulation by the Government that no contractor shall be held in loss on account of faulty engineering data. This last point is crit-

ical and ominous. Prospective bidders, it is admitted, have been so disturbed by the engineering uncertainty of the plans adopted by the Government, that they would not undertake the work without a guarantee that the Treasury should stand the loss, if any resulted from that cause. It is understood that these technical doubts relate mainly to the borings for the great Gatun dam, and to the construction of three locks in flight at that point. How serious is the latter difficulty, may be seen by running over the testimony of various engineers before the Senate Committee last spring.

A "standpat" Congress refused last year to allow the free entry of Canadian lumber for the rebuilding of San Francisco. Therefore, Oregon and Washington have been drawn upon for the exceptional demand. But the American tonnage—which alone can carry freight from one American port to another—is so inadequate that rates have already risen from \$5 or less to \$9 per thousand feet, with a prospect of \$10. Meanwhile, there lies idle an abundance of first-class foreign shipping. These foreign ships cannot carry lumber to San Francisco under their present register, nor can American capital buy them and apply them in this vitally necessary work. The only practicable plan is explained by the Portland *Oregonian*, in the case of the British steamship *Duneric*. This vessel has been chartered by Portland capital, and will be sent to British Columbia, there to load with lumber for San Francisco, at freight rates of \$6 per thousand feet, which, plus the duty of \$2, will still be less than the charge for carrying native lumber from Portland to San Francisco under the American flag. If it were a case of foreign-owned freight-car or wagon or wheelbarrow, Americans would simply buy and use it. But as it is a ship, it must be sent first round Robin Hood's barn, and, after all, deliver lumber not cut in American mills.

The promotion of John W. Riddle, now Minister to Rumania and Servia, to be Ambassador to Russia, is thoroughly deserved. He never gave large sums to the Republican campaign chest, or owned a newspaper, or wielded great political and social influence; hence he will be, among our Ambassadors, almost in a class by himself. "Because he represents the simple life," is one reason now given for his appointment. A far better one is that he has worked his way up from a secretaryship by sheer merit. A remarkable linguist, devoted to the diplomatic service in which he has now been a round dozen years, he has shown conclusively that the United States can get men of the right type to fill the entire diplomatic service

just as soon as it offers a permanent career and pays suitable salaries.

The Pope's seeming rejection of all compromise with the French Government on the question of Separation has undoubtedly precipitated as grave a crisis as any Ministry has been compelled to face since the establishment of the Third Republic. Should the deadlock turn out to be as obstinate as would appear from the declarations of both the Vatican and the Cabinet, the country would be confronted by civil dissension at a time when external relations are enough of themselves to cause the Government much anxiety. Yet it is the very necessity of maintaining the country's position in the present delicately adjusted balance of European politics that may impel the French Government to find means for avoiding actual war with the Church, while maintaining the Separation Law in its substance. Nor is the Church bent on actual violence. So far as may be gathered from conflicting dispatches, the resistance of the French Catholics is to be passive in nature. It is said that "parish priests, vicars, etc., must remain passive, and may not cooperate in any act of sequestration; but if the bishop considers that the refusal of the treasurers to surrender the keys may cause grave consequences, he can permit them to do so." And, again: "Bishops may authorize Catholic officials to participate in sequestrations, if the refusal would endanger positions necessary for the maintenance of their families." Neither side, we believe, should be desirous to provoke a collision—the Government, because crises often mean ministerial changes, and the Vatican, because a religious war, in the present temper of the country, would not redound to the permanent interests of the Catholic Church. It is significant that the Pope's decision should have been withheld till the new French law was on the point of going into effect. Such high dignitaries as Archbishop Lecot of Bordeaux and Cardinal Richard were allowed to put forward measures of compromise which they are now compelled to repudiate. The Government may find this summary overriding of the peaceful efforts of French ecclesiastics by the Curia a powerful weapon in the campaign against foreign dominance in French affairs.

One Ministry after another falling on the anti-clerical issue, the King alarmed, and the people on the verge of riotous outbreaks—such is the news from Catholic Spain. Yet signs of a political movement against the privileges of the Church have long been visible. It is not only the Republican or anarchistic element, as in Catalonia, that has now to be reckoned with; there is evidently a deep and widespread feeling that the

civil power must assert itself against the ecclesiastical. The intellectual alienation from the Church has long been evident in Spain, and, of late, the antagonism has seemed to be striking down. One recalls the popular excitement which Galdós's mildly anti-clerical play, "Electra," provoked. The large sale and vogue of a tirade against the Church which its author, Ibañez, called a novel and published under the title "La Catedral," had a similar ominous significance. That the political result will be some form of legislation directed at the prerogatives of the Church, along the lines of the French law, though probably not so extreme, now appears to be certain.

Sharp differences of opinion at the congress of Italian Socialists lately held at Rome were taken by many as a sign of weakness and break-up. But a writer in the *Nouvelle Revue* asserts that the result was really a triumph for the moderates. There is a party of reform which constitutes the Right. It preaches the emancipation of the proletariat by means of education and instruction. It does not advocate any particular political régime, but opposes clerical influence, urges the reduction of the military establishment, and favors universal suffrage. The "Syndicalists" compose the Left. They seek to propagate revolutionary collectivism; they advocate the general strike, and demand the substitution of "an armed nation" for the present standing army. The Centre is represented by the "Integralists," who seek to compose the differences between the extremes. At the congress, however, the Syndicalists were defeated by a coalition of the two other parties. The programme upon which these agree puts social reform above political agitation, and this distinguishes them from the earlier Republicans, who believed that a change in the form of government was of the first importance. During the last twenty years there has been a rapid development of Socialism in Italy, due, according to the writer in the *Nouvelle Revue*, to the wretched condition of the working people, especially in the south and in the agricultural districts. But it happens to be in the north that Socialism has been most successful. As was pointed out fifteen years ago by Leroy-Beaulieu, the socialistic unrest in Italy really arises from the fact that there has been great improvement in the condition of the working classes, and the reforms already accomplished make them eager to achieve larger results.

An aspect of socialistic experiments, often overlooked, is brought forward by F. T. Bullen in the *London Spectator*. The common notion is that public relief works, old-age pensions, support for

people who are out of employment, and similar socialistic enterprises, take money from the rich and give it to the poor—a blessed levelling of inequalities. Not so, says Mr. Bullen. The rich are not the chief sufferers from these attempts at equalizing, "but the large and almost unconsidered class of workers, just kept on the weather side of want by incessant work." These are the people who feel the pinch of increased taxes, an increase that is distributed through the community in a rise of rents, as well as in the price of all the necessaries of life. "I have heard Lady Warwick assert at a banquet," adds Mr. Eullen, "that it was the duty of the state to feed and clothe as well as educate every child of the poor, and I longed to ask her what she understood by the state." She evidently had in mind the people of wealth; but Mr. Bullen argues that in London the state means "the humble workers who are willing and industrious, and who dread the pauperization of themselves or their children more than death, yet who are gradually crushed down into that bottomless pit by the ever-growing burden of rates expended by utterly irresponsible men of the type of Mr. Will Crooks and Mr. George Lansbury, and women like Lady Warwick." In this country we have not gone so far; but many persons of fine humanitarian impulses, who sympathize deeply with the miseries of the poor, urge us to follow the example of New Zealand, Australia, Germany, and England. But before casting their votes for such policies, they should examine the problem more deeply and discover the ultimate incidence of the taxes for their well-meant projects.

German colonial affairs have inevitably taken much of the time of the Reichstag's present session, and the recent six days' debate put the Government to its trumps. Fortunately for its prestige, it had already begun to clean house; and the new Director of the Colonial Bureau, Bernhard Dernburg, was able to present his plans and achievements so vigorously as to demolish many of the criticisms directed against him and his office. Von Bülow stood by his new subordinate with all possible loyalty, and the result is distinctly a triumph for the Government. The gravest accusations of cruelty and mismanagement were made by Bebel and by Herr Roerens, one of the leaders of the Centre. The latter produced, as proof of barbarity, a heavy cane which in one colony had been used in beating the natives. Over this aspect of the colonial failure Herr Dernburg was fain to glide easily; nor would it be just to hold him responsible for the misconduct of men appointed by his predecessors. Yet the need of reform in the treatment of the natives neither Herr Dernburg nor

any one else can deny; in this respect the German colonial record is black, and Bebel's assertions are not to be brushed aside with a mere charge of exaggeration.

The most significant passage in Jacob H. Schiff's plea at the Zionist mass-meeting, in this city Sunday night, was addressed to the secret agents of the Russian Government, of whose presence in the meeting the speaker felt convinced:

I say to you, is it any wonder that the Jews in Russia have become revolutionists? It is not himself that has made the Jew a revolutionist; it is the Russian Government.

This is a clear admission that the Jews in Russia have become revolutionary. There has always been a pronounced tendency to slur over the part played by Jews in the present Russian disorders, with the benevolent object, no doubt, of representing them as the innocent victims of a murderous autocracy. Especially after the different *progroms*, the sympathetic press has been at pains to refute all stories as to the responsibility of Jewish revolutionaries for the outbreak of massacre. It is true that the victims are for the most part innocent and inoffensive, but it is no service to their cause to evade the fact that the Russian Jews are the main support of the revolution, and the most dangerous enemies of the existing régime. This only serves to bring out in a clearer light the iniquities of a system that has driven an entire people to desperate resistance, not only Jewish socialists and agnostics, but even that large part of the race which is capable of cherishing so idealistic a dream as Zionism.

Increase in the consumption of absinthe is causing some uneasiness in Europe. In Belgium, a law has lately been passed forbidding its manufacture, importation, transportation, or sale. A similar measure was adopted in the Canton of Vaud, by a popular vote. The Catholic Congress of Fribourg passed resolutions approving this Swiss initiative. In the *Journal des Débats*, Dr. Daremberg states that in 1884 France consumed absinthe to the amount of 49,335 hectolitres; in 1894, 125,078, and in 1904, 207,929. It is said that the absinthe habit prevails especially among the younger literary folk; but it is spreading rapidly among business men. The habit increases the liability to tuberculosis, for most patients in the consumptive hospitals in France have been absinthe-drinkers. The subject is one of interest in the United States also; for during the last twenty-five years there has been a considerable increase in absinthe drinking here; it is usually taken in the form of vermouth, which is an infusion of absinthe in white wine.

ROOSEVELT VS. STORER.

If an old judge of Chancery were to sum up this case, he would begin by saying that it never should have been taken into court. It is the kind of personal squabble which is occasionally aired in public, but which the principals, especially if they are high in office, should scrupulously hide from the gaze of the curious. Many of the letters should obviously not even have been written; the thought of publishing them should have filled all parties to the controversy with dismay. The President truly says that this rushing into print with private correspondence is "a peculiarly ungentlemanly thing," although he thereupon proceeds to quote personal letters of Mrs. as well as Mr. Storer. Mr. Storer and his wife displayed shocking taste—the point of diplomatic propriety never seems to have occurred to them—and the lamentable thing is that Mr. Roosevelt did not concede them a monopoly of it. By such a course his personal and official dignity would have been much better conserved. As it is, Americans are mortified, and foreigners are aghast at this exhibition of official manners.

The correspondence is out, however, and attentive reading of it shows that, on the merits of the public controversy (as distinct from the personal wrangling) some points are scored by each side. Mr. Roosevelt is able easily to put Mr. Storer in the wrong in the matter of the letter to "Dear Bellamy" of January 29, 1904. It was not a condonation of the Vatican intrigues, as Mr. Storer asserted; the President clearly proves that the "closed incident" was a different affair altogether.

In other respects, the President comes off badly. His indiscretion was amazing. He writes a letter to Mrs. Storer, which he himself afterwards confesses was filled with imprudences, and in it says to her, "While I would not like to have this letter published, you are most welcome to show it to any one you see fit." That was the letter in which he railed at "Protestant fanaticism." In another one, he paid his respects to "Methodist clergymen of the fool type." To put such phrases at the disposal of a woman like "Dear Maria," was giving dynamite to a child for a plaything. It was not long before Mr. Roosevelt was alarmed to hear that Rampolla had copies of his letters. At once he wrote in a tremor to Mrs. Storer, "I did what I ought not to have done in writing you that letter. . . . Can you not reclaim any copy of my letter?" Afterwards this grew into a demand: "I must ask you to return to me all of my letters in which I have spoken on any of these ecclesiastical subjects." But the mischief had already been done.

The President's angling for the Catholic vote also appears unpleasantly in this correspondence. His admiration for

Archbishop Ireland was plainly mingled with hope of political support. "You may be interested to know," he writes from Albany in 1900 to Catholic Mrs. Storer, "of the large percentage of Catholics . . . whom I have placed upon the various important commissions in this State." Later, he said that he had "accumulated an enormous quantity of Catholic intimacy. I do not think it is exactly support; it is rather a desire to be supported." With all this, it is not strange that Mr. Storer came to imagine that the President's interest in the promotion of Archbishop Ireland was largely political, or that he should have written anxiously in 1904: "In 1896 and 1900 we got perhaps more than half of the votes of the members of my Church. Are we going to keep them?"

The worst single blow that the President gets in this unhappy dispute is where he directly raises an issue of personal veracity. Mr. Storer had asserted that, in 1903, at Oyster Bay, "the President said to me that if I went to Rome he would like to have me see the Pope, and say to him in person that the Archbishop was his friend, and that he would be pleased to hear that he had received the honor of promotion to the Cardinalate." This the President roundly denies. He says that it is "not only an untruth, but an absurd untruth." Mr. Storer, however, has a corroborating witness—no less a person than Archbishop Ireland himself. The Archbishop wrote to Mrs. Storer of an interview which he had, shortly after, with Mr. Roosevelt at Oyster Bay, and explicitly declared:

The President said to me, "Mr. Storer has told you what I said to him about you, Archbishop?"

I replied, "I do not remember—"

"About his going to Rome?"

I said, "No."

"Well," he said, "I told him I would not write a letter to the Pope asking for honors to you, but I said that he could go to Rome and say, *viva voce*, to the Pope how much I wish you to be Cardinal, and how grateful I personally would be to him for giving you that honor."

The whole is a mournful affair. If the President has any more of this dirty linen in his basket, we hope that Taft can be made to sit on the cover. A democratic people is not too fastidious, but it does want those whom it honors to observe the common proprieties of private and public life. The incident may give fresh reason to apply to the President the description which Froude gave in his "Cæsar" of the younger Cato:

No one ever suspected him of dishonesty or corruption. But his excellences were not of the retiring sort. He carried them written upon him in letters for all to read, as a testimony to a wicked generation. . . . And no one was permitted to differ from him without being guilty rather of a crime than of a mistake.

THE POOR OLD CONSTITUTION.

In his annual message, President Roosevelt recommended two Constitutional amendments; and many persons are complaining that the Constitution is as worn out as the stockings of Martinus Scriblerus, or at any rate requires as much patching. In the last *Atlantic*, Dean Melville M. Bigelow, of the Boston University Law School, holds that the Constitution does not permit the successful prosecution of corporation criminals. "Framed in the atmosphere of the eighteenth century," he alleges that it "turns the prosecution into a mock suit." His position is not unlike that of the editors of the *Yale Review*, who asked, in their November issue, the question:

Have we not reached the point at which we should frankly acknowledge that some details of the Constitution are no longer adapted to modern conditions, and instead of pursuing the demoralizing policy of changing it by construction, should openly and distinctly consider the question of amendment?

There's the preliminary rub. Even granting that Constitutional amendments may be desirable, the difficulty of securing them is practically insuperable. It took the great passion of the Civil War to carry through the last ones adopted, and reasonable men have given up hope of seeing others written into the organic law, unless some new national emergency, or agony, shall furnish the pen. The elaborate machinery of amendment, or repeal, was intended to provide against too easy change; and it does so effectually and, we think, wisely. Congressman John Sharp Williams read a pointed lesson, the other day, to his fellow-Southerners who have been prophesying smooth things about getting the Fifteenth Amendment repealed. He told them with great plainness of speech that, if they were sincere in their glib talk, they were living in a fool's paradise, since there were practical as well as moral obstacles in their way which they could not possibly surmount. Even in so powerful and popular a movement as that for the direct election of United States Senators, the tendency is now all away from a Constitutional Amendment, and in the line of political remedy. By making Legislatures in practice merely agents to record the will of the people in the election of Senators, like the Electoral College in the election of President, the country may go directly to the desired result without the long struggle and hope deferred of an attempt to amend the Constitution.

This fertility of political resource in the American people, so often shown in making the old form fit the new need, is one of the consolations we may have in the possession of a "rigid" Constitution. But even making no allowance

for that, is our plight so grievous as some would have us think? Are the faults of which people complain so much in the Constitution itself, as in the failure of Congress to make full use of the powers granted by the Constitution? No Constitution is self-executing. It is "the laws made in pursuance thereof" that do the business. And if the Federal statutes do in any respect fail of the great purpose "to establish justice," we should apply to law-makers before calling upon Constitution-tinkers.

There seems to be no doubt, for example, that penal legislation by Congress could be made to meet the defects in the Federal prosecution of crime to which Dean Bigelow refers. Congress can define the crime, and fix its punishment. It can bestow jurisdiction; provide for the expediting of cases; extend or refuse immunity to witnesses. Weaknesses which are found in the statutes enacted one year, can be cured the next. Thus we have had the imprisonment clauses put back into the Elkins Anti-Rebate act; and though the benevolent Senator from West Virginia was positive in 1903 that no convictions could be had if the guilty were liable to go to jail, to jail some men have since gone under that law. They have found that the Constitution of the United States was not a worn-out and moth-eaten document.

It is, of course, for the purpose of obtaining uniform legislation throughout the States on the subjects of labor in factories, education technical and general, child labor, marriage and divorce, and so on, that the chief demands for Constitutional amendment arise. But the eager amenders overlook three things: (1) the great advantage of the varied and experimental laws of the separate States; (2) the fact that differences in social and economic conditions may warrant differences between State laws; and (3) the power we have of coming to practical agreement and efficient uniformity without depriving the States of their local control. It is now common to call State laws "a chaos of conflicting statutes"—to use the President's phrase. But keen students of comparative legislation, like Prof. A. V. Dicey, still think of them as most valuable and instructive. It is a cock-sure legislator who should want his notions made universally binding, without first giving them a trial, in different forms, in different localities. And the penchant for making all Americans exactly alike would, if given free scope, destroy that deep unity under surface variety which has hitherto been our glory. Our ideal of national education, for example, is not that of the French Minister of Public Instruction, whom Matthew Arnold interviewed, and who drew out his watch and said: "At this moment, every child in France is studying dec-

imal fractions." As even President Roosevelt admits, referring to laws regulating the labor of children and of women: "Each State must ultimately settle the question in its own way."

This does not mean, however, that we may not have humane movements and associations, overlapping State boundaries, and endeavoring to work out a national consensus of a sort which enlightened States may write into their laws. Many such exist, and their influence is daily widening. In congresses for divorce reform, and conferences for the protection of children, and other bodies of the kind, there really lies more hope of permanent moral and legal betterment than in all the plaints about a Constitution outworn.

THE TARIFF AND TAXES.

The more one thinks of President Roosevelt's suggestion of new taxes, the more unfortunate does it seem that he had nothing to say about the abolition of old ones. Historically and logically, the income tax goes with the remitting of tariff taxes. This was the rationale of Mr. Gladstone's famous first budget of 1853. He struck off a large number of existing taxes. They were oppressive, in that, like the soap-tax, for example, they bore more heavily upon the poor than the well-to-do. Other taxes fettered trade. To enable him to remove them, while lightening the load of taxation in other ways, was Gladstone's great object in imposing the income tax. He plainly stated his plan to be one for wiping out grievous and unequal taxes, and at the same time for expanding commerce.

Such was also, roughly, the purpose of the income tax in our own tariff of 1894. The aim was to lift the load of indirect and demoralizing tariff taxes; to strike off as many as possible of the tariff chains upon industry and trade; and to make good the resulting deficit in the revenue by levying an income tax. Viewed in that light, the process is rational. It makes the income and inheritance taxes appear, not as a socialistic device to reduce "swollen fortunes," but as a means of cutting away swollen privileges—bloated monopolies built up under the tariff. In the hands of a thoroughgoing tariff-reformer, the proposal of such taxes has a direct relation to the legitimate ends of Government at which he aims. Congressman James Breck Perkins of this State, for instance, who has introduced a bill for a national inheritance tax, had before declared himself, Republican though he is, strongly in favor of tariff revision. This gives him an air of consistency as a taxer, and of sagacity as a statesman.

On the other hand, the levying of any new taxes without the repeal of some existing, and without careful adjust-

ment of fiscal policy to the needs of the country's trade, would be unwise from every point of view. The people are already overtaxed. The Treasury surplus is too large, whether considered as so much money locked up, or as a temptation to extravagant appropriations. With the Secretary estimating a surplus of \$58,000,000 in the next fiscal year, on the basis of present law, it would be preposterous to enact new taxes to swell it.

That there are vast unused resources of taxation at the disposal of the Federal Government is obvious. They fairly invite to a readjustment, with an eye to relieving the people who are most pinched, and to removing every needless weight from manufactures and commerce. If we had a system under which a Finance Minister could make a scientific budget, looking widely over the sources of revenue and drawing only upon those which would yield most with least injury, while fitting taxes nicely to the demands of trade, the situation which we offer would appeal mightily to a financial genius. One like Turgot or Stein or Gladstone would jump at the chance to reform our taxation, seize our trade opportunities, and increase our general well-being, all at one stroke.

Powerful external reasons, if we are not moved by the inherent injustice of some of our tariff taxes, impel us to take their revision promptly in hand. Something has got to be done to avert a tariff-war with Germany. Secretary Root is fully alive to that danger. If our experts whom he has sent over to confer with the German authorities, report that the only way out is for us to take a hack here and there at the sacred Dingley schedules, are the stand-patters to go on saying us nay? Then there is the new Canadian tariff, now before Parliament. It is to have a "preferential" rate of duty for goods coming from Great Britain; an "intermediate" rate to be accorded to countries which, in turn, lay only moderate tariff taxes on Canadian goods; and finally the general tariff much like the existing. That there is in this a hint of retaliation against the United States is plain; but there is also a clear invitation to us to make tariff reductions of our own, and to secure the benefit of the intermediate rates in Canada. That this would mean a large increase in Canadian trade is admitted by the protectionists across the border. They are, by the way, after the fashion of their kind, disappointed that Minister Fielding did not make the general tariff higher, so that manufacturers now in this country would be compelled to locate their factories in Canada.

From the silence of the message, it would seem that President Roosevelt is blind to the tariff signs of the times. But the vigorous movement in Congress,

But the vigorous movement in Congress, LIB

within his own party, to have an extra session called in the spring for the purpose of trimming our tariff sails betimes to the winds that will soon be blowing, should open his eyes. An old free-trader himself, and a President who talked tariff-reform pretty vigorously in 1902, until he found that other issues could be worked to greater political advantage, he may yet, it is to be hoped, see how his plans for direct taxation require sweeping modification of the indirect and unjust tariff taxes, and some day send to Congress his long-suppressed tariff message.

GEOGRAPHY AND DIPLOMACY.

The British Foreign Office decided, a short time ago, to abandon geography as one of the required examination subjects for entrance into the diplomatic and foreign service. In commenting on this action, Sir Edward Grey, the Foreign Secretary, is reported to have said that, "although a knowledge of geography is no doubt very useful, it is a subject with which men of general education are generally acquainted, and which is easily acquired after entry into the service." Against this view, Sir George Goldie, President of the Royal Geographical Society, vigorously protests in a letter to the *London Times*. To show how vague the geographical ideas even of trained diplomatists may be, he narrates the following incident:

A good many years ago a territorial arrangement with France was in discussion, and I was invited to consider it. The French proposals appeared to the Foreign Office satisfactory. On examination I found that they were expressed, as might have been expected, in longitudes reckoned from the meridian of Paris, while the map with which our Foreign Office were considering the proposals was made in Germany and reckoned its longitudes from the meridian of Greenwich. The arrangement in question was never completed.

What particular motive Sir Edward Grey may have had for dispensing with more than ordinary geographical knowledge in his subordinates, aside from that of economy, is hard to tell. Possibly he may have felt that as England had appropriated about all the desirable vacant spaces of the earth, the study of geography was no longer necessary to further Imperial interests. But even from a more serious standpoint, it is quite possible to justify the attitude of the British Foreign Office, while admitting that the position taken by the president of the Royal Geographical Society has also much in its favor. In brief, statesmen will probably acknowledge the importance of expert geographical knowledge, especially in such matters as colonial policy and administration, and will always be ready to call in specialists, like Sir George Goldie, to solve their problems for them—problems which they would not dare to trust to

the trained diplomatist whose personal information, with all best intentions, cannot be more than "general."

The "general" ideas of the ordinary man concerning the earth on which he lives, outside of the stretch of country between his home and his office, are not such as to inspire confidence. The exaggerated stories of Englishmen in New York, who, in the morning, plan to run over to St. Louis for lunch, have their basis in fact. And there is an equal amount of truth in Mark Twain's story of the distinguished scientist from New Zealand who once visited Yale University. The news of his coming set that institution in a flutter. The visitor must be received and dined and talked to about his native land; but the president of Yale was not quite sure of himself on New Zealand. So he called up in succession the teachers of geography, of geology, of astronomy, of moral philosophy, of fine arts, etc., and all pleaded ignorance of everything but a rather distinct impression that New Zealand was somewhere near Australia and that there was a bridge to cross. Irresponsible individuals do not alone sin in this way. An English encyclopædia, still in course of publication, speaks of an American statesman who "was born in Rhode Island and represented that island in the United States Senate"; and Brockhaus's "Konversations-Lexikon," which is regarded as the very rock of cyclopædic truth, in its map illustrating the distribution of animal life in North America, represents alligators as gayly sporting in the Ohio in the vicinity of Louisville. Whether the illusion was due to the neighborhood of the Kentucky shore, is not certain.

To most of us, indeed, the earth is still as flat as though Columbus had never sailed from Palos, and the relations and distances it reveals are often a shock. There are the Philippines, which we persist in regarding as lying just a step or two beyond Hawaii. There is South America, which, instead of lying decently south of North America, as its name would imply, persists in sticking out absurdly eastward into the Atlantic Ocean, so that a brick hurled due south by an enraged giant at Tampa, would skim right over Panama and plump into the Pacific. There is the Panama Canal itself, with its eastern terminus lying west of its western terminus. There is Cuba, which we instinctively locate somewhere southeast out in the Atlantic, though Havana lies nine degrees west of the meridian of New York.

To base diplomatic negotiations on such general "knowledge," Sir Edward Grey would probably admit to be unsafe. The difficulty, moreover, from the point of view of international politics, is intensified by the fact that nowadays it is not actual geographical distance that counts, but time. The Suez Canal, for

the statesman, upset the geography of Africa and Asia as no seismic catastrophe could have done; and, of course, the Panama Canal will do the same. What use is there in studying geography if the nearest way to Rio Janeiro from New York is by way of London? The diplomatists, in all negotiations where geographical relations enter, as, for instance, in the disposition of boundary disputes, and the like, will have to depend on the expert. For him a sufficient working rule is that all territory producing gold, rubber, coal, or nitrates lies on *our* side of the disputed line. To determine what that line should be, one can always dig up a favorable early map or survey, or claim that the frontier runs along the crests of a mountain range instead of the actual watershed, or that it coincides with an old caravan route.

FERDINAND BRUNETIÈRE.

The unexpected death Sunday of Ferdinand Brunetière takes off the sturdiest fighter in a field regarded of serious importance in France, though little appreciated elsewhere. Literary criticism in Germany is likely to be either metaphysical or purely impressionistic; in America it is looked upon with suspicion, if not with resentment. The critic has a nasty fashion of caring more for truth than for easy enjoyment, and, like the madman who dreamt himself in the theatre, we prefer to revel in the mind's *gratissimus error*. But in France, until recently at least, literature has been considered a part of life, and the ideas of books are debated with violent enthusiasm. The old battle of the classicists and romanticists has become a part of history, and Gautier's *gilet rouge*, worn at the representation of "Hernani," is almost as famous as the red flag of the Commune.

The contest in which Brunetière played so valiant a part was only a continuation of that earlier debate. Romanticism had given birth to a numerous brood—naturalism, impressionism, and a swarm of lesser *isms*, already fading from memory. One and all, they were a rebellion against the principle of authority, which in England Pope had summed up in his oft-quoted couplet:

Learn hence for ancient rules a just esteem;
To copy Nature is to copy them;

and which Sir Joshua Reynolds had developed at length in his lectures on art. French classicism, in the mouth of Boileau, preached nature as vociferously as any modern naturalist; but it believed that the office of art was to discriminate what was good and bad in nature, and that the great masters of antiquity had once for all shown the way in this principle of selection. Hence the rules—the unities, the often-erroneous Aristotelianism, the epic law, and all the pro-

digious critical structure of Le Bossu and his British followers.

Now, naturalism simply repudiated the principle of selection, and so undermined the basis of authority. "Whatever is in nature, is good; it is the duty of the artist to imitate whatever he sees without laying upon the world any standard of moral and æsthetic values. By the inevitable law of contradiction, such a man as Zola even came to a sort of inverse selection, and gloated over all that had been æsthetically prohibited. And naturalism is only a part of the larger doctrine—if doctrine it may be called—of impressionism. Man is the measure of all things, said the sophists of old, and their representatives, the impressionists of to-day; what one man thinks and feels is as good as what any other man thinks and feels, and any thought of a man is as good as any other thought. And here, too, by the same law of contraries, impressionism has gone to the opposite pole. In place of the man whose taste has been trained to distinguish and select, such disguised impressionists as Tolstoy set up the illiterate peasant as the ultimate criterion of art, and such a writer as Andreyev professedly finds the bonds of sympathy between man and man, and the theme of art, in the cruel, bestial instincts that humanity had been supposed to eliminate.

In France, impressionism had, and has, its critical champions. Renan was the high pontiff of the school, and his dissolving influence has, until recently, been enormously powerful for evil, not only in literature, but in politics and practical affairs. Later, Jules Lemaitre and Anatole France were the accomplished leaders, and never was the revolt from authority, the sophistry of moral indifference, the refinement of universal doubt, promulgated with such suavity and distinction. Despite their principles, both were scholars of trained taste, so that their doctrine captivated the public and never shocked. Their very grace made them the more dangerous. Against them and against what they stood for, M. Brunetière waged a relentless and bitter war. Seeing the danger in rebellion, he fell, himself, into the opposite extreme, and raised authority into an idol of oppression. The office of criticism, he said, is to praise what is personally distasteful to us—a hard saying and one that explains much in his later career.

For it must be admitted that M. Brunetière, the brave fighter, was, after all, half in the wrong himself. To raise the banner of pure authority to-day is to proclaim the battle lost in advance. It is in literature as in religion: we have grown skeptical of the past. In place of the authority of written codes, we need to have pointed out and explained to us those unwritten laws which are founded in man himself, and of which

the rules of the fathers are but the imperfect formulation. Unless a teacher, whether of religion or literature, can compel us to recognize the authority of those who have found a unity of taste and morals in the higher plane of our humanity, his enemy the impressionist will bring us to discover that common ground in a lower sphere.

With all his protests, the skepticism of the hour had so far invaded M. Brunetière's mind that he was unable to perceive and trust this inner law of authority. As a consequence, he grew with age more and more dependent on the mere voice of the past. He became a professed reactionary, and a servant of the Church. In his later years he turned the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, of which he was editor, into a powerful organ in support of Rome and ecclesiasticism. Very curious in this respect was his report on the United States after his visit among us in 1897. He discovered that the providential mission and historical significance of this country had been to protect the Canadian Catholics against the oppression of British Protestantism!

As a literary critic, he had lost in grace by his reactionary step—grace, indeed, was never strong in him—and stiffened in his dialectic combativeness. It is too early to forecast positively his place in the future, but one may conjecture that, after the lapse of a little time, he will not be much read. His ideas, so far as they are valid, will gradually be taken over into the common body of criticism—his theory of the evolution of the *genres* has already attained such a position—while his lack of charm and personal magnetism will weigh down his own essays. Yet his name will be remembered and honored as of one who fought a good fight.

We cannot close without remarking on the singular propriety that brought M. Brunetière, the over-zealous apostle of authority, to end his days in the Catholic fold, and that converted Anatole France, the arch-impressionist, into an adherent of Socialism.

LITERARY ALLUSION.

Prof. William Lyon Phelps of Yale has brought up again an old complaint—that modern youth are painfully ignorant of the Bible as a piece of literature. The stories of freshmen unable to explain the simplest Biblical allusion in Teanyson or Browning, not to say Dryden and Shakspeare, are endless. The incidents are amusing or depressing, according as one takes them. But the inquiries of our professors of English might, we think, profitably be extended into other tracts of youthful literary ignorance. The Bible is only one of the masterpieces of the language with which our lusty young collegians would be found not to be on speaking

terms. Try them with an ordinary quotation or phrase from Shakspeare, and you will see on too many faces the look of dismay, combined with indignation, which all students feel entitled to exhibit when the professor asks a question to which he has not first supplied the answer. Like John Quincy Adams, they will find in Shakspeare's language "something strange," and think that his "uncommon words" sound "very affected."

In fact, the perils of literary allusion seem all the time to be thickening. We talk of the desirability of getting an occasional "literary feller" into public life, but how if we put him there and he makes speeches all adrip with literature, only to be misunderstood and misreported. An experience of this sort has more than once befallen Augustine Birrell since he became Minister for Education. As such, he has to do a good deal of speaking in the Commons and out; and, of course, being Mr. Birrell, his mouth he cannot open without there slips, if not a trope, at any rate a poetical citation or memory, or a reference to what some writer has said. Frequently, these things miss fire terribly with his audience or the reporters. Recently, for example, Minister Birrell was speaking of Chinese labor, and said that, if Goethe's word was true that this world is hell, then the British are large landed proprietors. This alone was too much for one London paper, which attributed to him the rather flat remark that the British are "large landed proprietors in South Africa." But Mr. Birrell went on to say that, granted a large ownership in a hell upon earth, it was their duty to improve their property; and he added that they must not be afraid "the characters of hell to trace." He had in mind, of course, the lines in Gray's "Bard":

Give ample room and verge enough
The characters of hell to trace.

But how does the reader suppose his allusion got into print? Why, the British public was told, in one report, that it "must not be afraid the cracks of hell to face"! The limitations of shorthand may have had something to do with this, but the limitations of literary knowledge surely much more.

This raises the question of disguised quotation, about which some people grow so hot. They insist that every allusion, every borrowed phrase, every jewel five words long with which a writer or speaker seeks to ornament his drab diction, ought to have danger-signals placed about it in the shape of " " so that the wayfaring man may not be deceived. This, of itself, we hold, is a sign of the growing unfamiliarity with English classics; cultivated people were not once so nervous lest they mistake what Milton or Shelley had said for your own pretty invention. The time has been when it was a delight to en-

counter in Scott's Journal or FitzGerald's Letters unavowed reminiscences of a Shaksperian turn or a Wordsworthian phrase. It seemed to give one a sense of moving at ease in well-bred society. But there is too much evidence that the thing has become an offence to many. Theirs is a new form of pedantry. If you chance to let run from your pen such words as the unplumbed, salt, estranging sea, these people will be down upon you at once with a charge of plagiarism. Why didn't you honestly say that you were quoting Matthew Arnold, and give the name of the poem and indicate the context? If it has got to that, we may as well confess with poor Mr. Tulliver that talking is "puzzling work."

And the unacknowledged quoter is often embarrassed as well as attacked. Witness an actual conversation which occurred not long since between an author and a lady:

She. "I have read your essay with the greatest interest. Some of your phrases have stuck in my mind, they were so felicitous."

He. "Ah, I am afraid you are flattering me. I really must doubt if you could quote one of those phrases."

She. "Oh, yes, I can! Near the beginning, you spoke of the heavy and the weary weight of all this unintelligible world. That seemed to me so true and so happily turned. You certainly have a great talent for suggestive combinations of words."

Now, what was the mortified author to do? Only one good thing in his essay and that not his, but Wordsworth's! Such experiences go to show that the writer or speaker who would be really safe should conspicuously announce the fact that he is about to quote, or to make a literary allusion. Then everybody can turn up the thing in Bartlett and feel the due learned complacency.

THE PRAISE OF DICKENS.

If it ever seemed that the popularity of Dickens was waning, certainly there is no such appearance to-day. Publishers have been vying with one another in putting out his works in attractive form, and now Messrs. Chapman & Hall have begun to issue the National Edition in forty volumes, including many pieces never before collected, and designed in every way to be final and definitive. And all the while about his work there is going up a critical chorus of praise, mingling the long growl of Swinburne's bass, the flute-like melody of Mrs. Meynell, the jumping staccato of Mr. Chesterton, with I know not how many lesser notes.

Now, whatever may be said against Mr. Chesterton's ebullition of doubtful epigrams, at least he has in his study of Dickens (recently published by Dodd, Mead & Co.) avoided the too common error of choosing the weakest side of the novels for praise. Rightly he lays stress on the superb irresponsibility of Dickens's world, and the divine folly of his characters.

And again he stresses rightly the democratic nature of his genius: "Dickens stands first as a defiant monument of what happens when a great literary genius has a literary taste akin to that of the community. . . . His power, then, lay in the fact that he expressed with an energy and brilliancy quite uncommon the things close to the common mind." I am inclined to think that in his analysis of this genuine, not condescending, democracy, Mr. Chesterton has found the real key to most that attracts and repels us in the novels; yet even here he has not quite escaped the malign influence that lies in wait for the critic of Dickens. Why must Mr. Chesterton imply on every page that great art is always, like that of Dickens, democratic? It is, on the contrary, a simple statement of fact to say that in practically all the living literature of the past the aristocratic temper has been predominant. Who, to take a single illustration, is not familiar with the outrageous contempt of the Elizabethan playwrights for the multitude whose taste they were in part compelled to conciliate? Walt Whitman knew this well enough, and divided literature into two great epochs, the aristocratic of the past, and the democratic which was to spring from his own example. Tolstoy knows it, and finds Shakspeare merely tiresome. Mr. Chesterton, with his own pungency of epithet, designates the democratic element in literature as the "pungent and popular stab," and finds that the universal test of what may be called popular, of the people, is whether it employs vigorously the extremes of the tragic and the comic. Undoubtedly in the judgments of the heart the people is right, and the maker of books severs himself from this source of power only to his own great peril. The demand for simple uncontrolled emotions, for clear moral decisions meting out happiness to the good and misery to the evil, the call for immediacy of effect and the direct use of the material of life—all this is the democratic soil from which literature must spring. Without this it lacks sap and the comfort of sweet reality. We feel the partial want of such a basis in the French classical drama, splendid as the work of that courtly age otherwise is.

Yet, there is an odd paradox connected with the emotional root of letters; while it alone gives life, it cannot keep alive. Racine has outlived and will long outlive all the merely popular dramas ever written; one can foresee the time, not far removed, when Milton will be more read than Bunyan; the enjoyment of Gray's poems already is wider and less artificial than the taste for ballads which sprang warm from the communal heart. The straightforward appeal to the passions, the pathos and humor of the moment, have a strange trick of becoming obsolete with the passing of time and the change of circumstances. The preservative of letters, what indeed makes literature, is the addition of all those qualities that, for the sake of comparison, we may call aristocratic—the note of distinction which is concerned more with form than with substance, the reflective faculty which broods over the problems of morality, the questioning spirit which curbs spontaneity, the zest of discrimination which refines broad effects to the nuance, the power of fancy which transforms the emotions into impersonal memories. In

a word, the aristocratic element denotes self-control, discipline, suppression.

Now discipline and suppression Dickens never acquired, whether in art or character. No writer of England ever underwent in his life so sharp a contrast of ignominy and celebrity, and the effect of either condition upon him is equally significant. Out of the shifting, and sometimes shifty, scenes of his youth, one experience stands forth—his apprenticeship in a blacking factory, which he was later to describe as David Copperfield's bleak slavery in the bottling establishment of Murdstone & Grinby. He learned much in those dismal days—the foul spots of London, the slime of the river, the inside of Marshalsea prison (where his father was), the pawnshops, and grimy lodging-houses; but one thing he did not learn—the chastening of spirit that suffering is supposed to bestow. He came up from that descent into ignominious drudgery in a state of exacerbation which he never outgrew. The memory of it rankled in his mind, and he never forgave his mother for her willingness to abandon him to that unrelieved misery. In his art, he would describe the spectacle of poverty with enormous gusto, but the dull, aching resignation at the core of it and its discipline he left for others to lay bare.

A few years of miscellaneous occupation followed, as schoolboy, lawyer's clerk, and reporter, and then, in 1834, at the age of twenty-two, he began to publish the "Sketches of Boz." Two years later "Pickwick" opened its career in monthly numbers, and soon raised the author to an incredible pitch of popularity. Wealth came to him almost at a bound, while he was still little more than a boy, and overweening fame as it came to no other man, even in those days of sudden celebrity. And it cannot be said that the effect upon him was wholly agreeable. Magnanimous in many ways, no doubt he always remained, and lovable to a few people, even to Carlyle, who could write of him after his death as "the good, the gentle, high-gifted, ever-friendly, noble Dickens—every inch of him an honest man"; but it is true, nevertheless, that his vanity was brought by all this egregious adulation to a state of unwholesome irritability. Applause could not reach him quickly enough and loud enough, and in the end he almost gave up authorship for the noisier excitement of public recitation. It is not only the waste of so splendid talents that we regret in this, but there is something distressful in the very thought of this great man brutalizing his face to the likeness of Bill Sikes, or mopping and mowing as Fagin, out of the mere craving for publicity.

Neither suffering nor prosperity brought him the one gift denied him at his birth, intellectual *pudor*, and the absence of that restraining faculty passed, as how could it help passing, into his work. To this cause must be partly attributed the absence in Dickens of that kind of tragedy which involves the losing contest of a strong man with destiny and his triumph through spiritual discipline. In place of tragic awe, he has rightly given us tears. I know that much of his pathos has grown stale with time, as that emotion is strangely apt to grow; yet here and there it still touches us in his stories as freshly almost as when they first came to the reader in monthly instalments; and, after

all, they are but of yesterday. Most of us may find Dora, the child-wife, anything rather than pathetic, but there are few who will withhold their tears from the death of Little Nell. Here is no conflict, no bitter and triumphant self-suppression; it is the picture of perfect meekness and gentleness fading flower-like in the breath of adversity. At his best there is a tenderness in the pathos of Dickens, a divine tenderness, I had almost said, which no other of our novelists has ever found. Who has been able to harden his heart when Copperfield, after the shame of Emily, talks with Mr. Peggotty and Ham on the seashore? And when the old man, being asked whether they will desert the stranded boat that has been their home, replies—

Every night, as reg'lar as the night comes, the candle must be stood in its old pane of glass, that if ever she should see it, it may seem to say, "Come back, my child, come back!" If ever there's a knock, Ham (partic'ler a soft knock), arter dark, at your aunt's door, doesn't you go nigh it. Let it be her—not you—that sees my fallen child!

And again there is the same touch of human delicacy when, in the presence of David, the broken girl, discovered at last, sinks in her uncle's arms: "He gazed for a few seconds in the face; then stooped to kiss it—oh, how tenderly!—and drew a handkerchief before it." The beauty of the gesture is all the finer because it follows the coarsely conceived and coarsely written interview with the impossible Rosa Dartle.

But if his pathos too often failed from some fault of taste, his humor was incessant and sure. I do not mean the mere ludicrousness of situation—the amiable Mr. Pickwick caught at eavesdropping, or the dashing Mr. Winkle on horseback, although there is abundance of this, too, in Dickens that has not grown stale—but the deeper and more thoroughly English humor of character. He is a humorist in the manner of Ben Jonson and Smollett and Sterne and a long line of others—the greatest of them, it may be, and, alas that it should be so, the last; for with his followers, of whom Gissing is a type, a new spirit of sympathy enters, hostile to the old spontaneous joy. It was not for nothing that his favorite reading as a child and as a man was the great novel writers of the eighteenth century. From their hands he received the art which his genius was to develop in a hundred ways. Humors, as Walpole observed, are native to England, being the product of a government which allows the individual to develop without restraint. Quite as often, I should say, they are in reality the escape in one direction of faculties otherwise pent up and oppressed—the exaggeration of some whim or eccentricity until the whole demeanor of a man is dominated by it. Their very essence, at least as they come to us in art, is the pride of irrepressible life.

And in one particular, in what may be called the humor of trade, Dickens is supreme. Others have seen the fruitfulness of this theme. Indeed, as Hazlitt observes, "the chief charm of reading the old novels is from the picture they give of the egotism of the characters, the importance of each individual to himself, and his fancied superiority over every one else. We like, for instance, the pedantry of Parson Adams, who thought a schoolmaster the greatest

character in the world, and that he was the greatest schoolmaster in it." Or, if we come to Dickens's own day, there is such a pedantic humorist as the Gypsy, who communicated to Borrow the secrets of rat-catching, and "spoke in the most enthusiastic manner of his trade, saying that it was the best trade in the world and most diverting, and that it was likely to last for ever." These characters are common enough everywhere, but in Dickens they flourish with extraordinary exuberance. Who can name them all?—from old Jack Bamber, the lawyer's clerk in the "Pickwick Papers," with his doddering delight in the mouldering chambers and sordid tragedies of the Inns, to Durdles, the stone-cutter in "Edwin Drood," with his grotesque complacency "down in the crypt among the earthy damps there, and the dead breath of the old 'uns"—who can count them? What horror or pain or dull subjection can diminish their infinite zest in living? It has always seemed to me that Jasper's complaints in "Edwin Drood" about the cramped monotony of his existence and the need of subduing himself to his vocation were a species of treachery to the genius of his creator, a sign that the author's peculiar power was passing away, or, at least, suffering a change.

And this special quality of humor, shown by a man's exultation in his trade, leads to a trait of Dickens which might easily be overlooked. Commonly—always, I think, when most characteristic—he describes his people from the outside and not from within. Let us not be deceived by that "pungent and popular stab"; these emotions that touch us so quickly are not what the characters themselves would feel, but what Dickens, the great egotistic dramatic observer, felt while looking out upon them. This pathos is not the actual grief of one bewildered and crushed by circumstances; it is the yearning for tears, the γόου ἕμερος of the strong, impregnable heart. Do you suppose that Smike ever knew in his own breast the luxury of sorrow he gave to his creator and still gives to the reader? His misery, I fear, was of a dumber, grimmer sort.

And so with those characters that merge into the pedantry of humor, to repeat Hazlitt's happy phrase. It is the democracy of Dickens that called them into birth, no doubt, but something else entered into their composition in the end—the great joy of creation which made it impossible for the author to abide within their vexed circle. Possibly old Weller got such hilarious delight out of the misdoings of his wife and Stiggins as his words import, but what of a thousand weaker souls who hug their troubles and their evil? There is the ragged stoker in "The Old Curiosity Shop," who drags a romantic comfort from his sympathy with the cinders and the roaring furnace that have been his whole existence. There is "No. 20," who became so injured to the Fleet that within its walls was freedom and all without was prison. And there is the sublime Quilp, almost the highest stroke of the master. He is brother to all the spooks and goblins of the credulous past, a pure creature of fairyland. His trade is malice, and the sheer exhilaration of evil never received a more perfect expression. Wickedness in him, losing its sullen despair, is turned to amusing mischief. I cannot be persuaded that Mrs.

Quilp really suffered on that memorable occasion when she sat up all night, while her crooked lord smoked and imbibed grog; the pleasure of watching his leering eyes must have counteracted all sense of fatigue. In fact, we are told that she loved him to the end. It was unpardonable in Dickens to bring him to that fear and death in the slime of the river. Here he was misled by that other democratic instinct which demands the punishment of the malefactor, and if Dickens in creating Quilp had at all entered into the reality of evil, this tragic climax would have been appropriate. But Quilp, the gay magician of malice, who breathed fire and whose drink was boiling rum—to think of him perishing in the cold element of water! A mere novice could have contrived his taking off better. But it was notoriously the way of Dickens to bring his people to an impossible conclusion. Quilp he could drown, while of Micawber he made a dignified magistrate and of Traddles a prosperous lawyer.

So it is that the emotions in Dickens's work are quick to life, whereas, the people are external to us, if not unreal; to make the inevitable comparison, we seem to have known Dickens's characters, we have lived Thackeray's. And this, no doubt, accounts for the surprising diversity of judgments you may read in his admirers. Take the three critical studies that lie before me at the present moment—by Prof. A. W. Ward, Mr. Chesterton, and Gissing—and you will find them in a state of most bewildering disagreement. To Mr. Chesterton the epitaph of Sapsea on his wife is a bit of "beatific buffoonery," the true essential Dickens, whereas Gissing will none of it, and thinks it transcends the limits of art. Gissing can put no faith in Mr. Peggotty, whereas Professor Ward finds this whole episode of Emily and her uncle the most perfect part of the book. Only he would exclude Rosa Dartle, who, nevertheless, is to Mr. Chesterton one of Dickens's "real characters." Gissing rejoices to see Pecksniff in the end "felled to the ground," whereas Mr. Chesterton deems the penalty one of the peculiar blemishes in Dickens's dénouements. And so on through the list. Most astonishing of all, both Gissing and Professor Ward find special beauty in that story of David and his child-wife, Dora, which to most readers, certainly, is an utterly tiresome piece of mawkishness.

Now there has been no such divergence of opinion among the admirers of Thackeray or Scott or any other of the great novelists. And the reason for it in the case of Dickens is plainly this, that his characters are so constructed that they will not bear analysis. Probably most people would join in calling Sam Weller the finest conception in Dickens, as his humor is the least subject to the disillusion of repetition. And yet, can any one really believe, if to his peril he stops to reflect, that such a union of innocence and worldly knowledge ever existed in a single breast? These conflicting judgments mean simply that the critical faculty has been at its dissolving work, not steadily, but at intervals, destroying the illusion where it touched and leaving other parts untroubled. For there is a right and a wrong way to read, or at least to enjoy, Dickens, as I have in my own experience, if I may be allowed the egotism, emphatically

discovered. A number of years ago I was living in remote seclusion, where about the only novels at my command were a complete set of Dickens in the village library—if library it could be called. One day, being hungry for emotion, I started on these volumes, and read them through—read as only a starved man can read, without pause and without reflection, with the smallest intermissions for sleep. It was an orgy of tears and laughter, almost immoral in its excess, a joy never to be forgotten. Well, I have been reading the novels again, slowly now, and weighing their effect—and in comparison how meagre my pleasure is!

But the old way was the right way, I think, and he who opens his Dickens must be ready to surrender himself unreservedly to the magician's spell. And then, what a place is this into which he is carried! Who for any realism of art would exchange the divine impertinence of a world inhabited by Mrs. Gamp, and Richard Swiveller, and the Marchioness, and Mark Tapley, and Major Bagstock, and Mantalini, and Mrs. Nickleby, and the fat boy—but the list is as endless as the master's hand was indefatigable. If one were asked to sum up in a single phrase the effect of all this mad variety of humors, one might call it the actual visualization and evocation into life of that doctrine of Folly which Erasmus preached in his "Stultitiæ Laus," some four centuries ago. And this should be the motto for all the *Mystæ* who have been sealed into the fellowship of this secret knowledge: "Quod si mortales prorsus ab omni sapientiæ commercio temperant, ac perpetuo mecum ætatem agerent, ne esset quidem ullum senium, verum perpetuâ iuventâ fruerentur felices"; and again, "ut nihil est stultius præposterâ sapientiâ, ita perversâ prudentiâ nihil imprudentius." Nothing, indeed, is more foolish than the preposterous wisdom, nothing more imprudent than the perverse prudence, which would withdraw a man from the untroubled fruition of all that Dickens has so bountifully provided. P. E. M.

THE HISTORICAL CONGRESS AT MILAN.

FLORENCE, November 12.

The First Historical Congress of the Risorgimento, which met last week at Milan, excited an unexpected interest in Italy, and served as a forum for discussions which may find an application at home. The Risorgimento, which has come to be accepted as the specific name for the movement by which Italy became free, independent, and united, is now recognized as a closed period, which lends itself with peculiar fitness to historical study. For Italians, it is the period of national birth, of the flowering of patriotism, of ideals and sacrifices and heroisms, and of the redemption of their race from political servitude and from moral and intellectual abasement. For strangers, the Risorgimento offers the most remarkable modern example of racial regeneration—a story beyond all others rich in romance and in dramatic contrasts, a stage on which many personages of striking features played their various parts and brought to a solution problems which had long tormented Europe. It has the three elements—characters, incidents, significance—which

make human history more important than the record of quadrupeds.

The Risorgimento closed in 1870 with the fall of the temporal power, and the creation of Rome as the national capital. Its beginning dates from the French Revolution, which broke up the old conditions, although Carducci would go back to 1749, the year when the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle took effect. The new generation which has grown up since 1870 has devoted itself with exuberant zeal to the collection of memorials of the Risorgimento—partly from natural veneration and wholesome hero-worship, partly as a relief from the unheroic politics of recent decades. The great actors in the drama have passed away, so their lives are being studied, their letters edited, their biographies written. The public archives have been put in order, and are now, with many important exceptions, accessible. The old men who survive to bear witness to the glorious image of 1848, or to the realized day-dream of 1860, publish their recollections as copiously as our own veterans of the Civil War. Antiquaries and specialists hunt down every relic, every scrap of paper. In the chief cities museums have been opened, into which material of all kinds has poured; and various journals, generally local, have been established for the publication of noteworthy articles and of sources. It was time that the workers in this field should get together and confer on the best methods of arrangement or lay down some uniform rules, if, indeed, uniformity be desirable.

Some of the most fruitful work of the congress concerned these matters. The discussion of the museums at once brought out two antagonistic points of view. On one side were the advocates of the museum as a sort of patriotic storage battery. They held that its first object should be to display memorabilia of all kinds that may awaken in the visitor veneration for the great man or the great event, and so kindle his patriotic sentiment. In one visitor this sentiment may be stirred by the sight of Garibaldi's scarlet kerchief, in another by Mazzini's penholder, in a third by one of Cavour's letters, in a fourth by the gauntlet Victor Emmanuel wore at San Martino. As there is no means by which you can divine what particular thing will be the effective stimulus in any given case, you must make your museum as hospitable and as miscellaneous as possible. "A poor widow, whose husband, a common soldier, was killed at Solferino, keeps his blood-stained coat as a holy relic for forty years, and bequeathes it to our collection. Am I to reject it?" asked Professor Corio, the able director of the Milan Museum of the Risorgimento. "Are we to display the memorials of great personages only? Shall not the patriotism of the private, who gave his life on the battlefield, have its recognition? There are no degrees of more or less in supreme sacrifice. That coat may mean nothing to the student of history by documents; but it may mean a great deal to the public school pupils, the peasants, the common soldiers, who visit the museum in great numbers."

This position was traversed by the professional investigators and writers who insisted that the collections ought to be arranged scientifically, like those of natural history or archæology, for the benefit of

scholars. The stimulation of patriotic emotion was all very well, they admitted, but it would be fleeting and ineffectual unless it were based on a rational understanding, and this could be reached only through a scientific treatment of the material. A museum should be more than an old curiosity shop or a precinct for the exhibition of patriotic fetiches.

To this Professor Corio replied with much vigor, and he took the discussion out of the region of theory by stating that last year 106,000 persons visited the Milan museum. "How many of these were professional students of history? Very few. Our duty is to serve the interests of the hundred thousand and not of the few scores or hundreds. And, after all, the archives, with their scientific methods, are the proper working-place for the latter." The divergence of opinions being too great for either side to give way, a resolution was passed expressing the hope of the congress that the Risorgimento museums might continue to be centres of patriotic education and stimulus and at the same time serve the purpose of serious historical students.

In the United States we have no such collections, either in scope or detail, as those which have been established at Turin, Milan, Venice, Palermo, and other Italian cities; but the questions, what to accept, and how to arrange, must already have come up in many of our historical societies. As an illustration of the thoroughness with which the Italians are working, let me cite the Milan Museum, which has three or four rooms devoted to Garibaldi and his men. Here are photographs of him by the score; views of his battlefields, autograph letters, his uniform, his weapons, his books, the portraits of a large number of his Thousand, with special relics of many of them, saddles, swords, camp materials, letters, and additional memorabilia of his famous volunteers and captains, Manara, Mameli, Bixio, Mario, and the rest. A study of this material would enable the historian to visualize the Garibaldian legend as he could do in no other way. Would it not be well to make a similar collection of Lincoln memorabilia before they have all fallen into the hands of dealers and private collectors? From now on the camera and the phonograph may be expected to play a large part in recording the deeds and words that go to make up history, and it is more than probable that the history professor of the future will illustrate his lectures by the cinematograph; but even these devices can never take the place of the actual dress or document or weapon of historic personages.

The congress discussed further the best way to encourage the study of the Risorgimento in the public schools; to promote the preservation of material in provincial centres; to persuade the Government to permit free access to the archives; and to urge the addition of special courses on contemporary Italian history to the university curriculum. Several of the professors present agreed as to the ignorance of the young generation. The importance of medals and coins as a subsidiary source of history was brought out by Prof. S. Ricci, an expert medallist, who has published a valuable work on Risorgimento numismatics. The collective work of the congress was concluded by the formation of a National So-

ciety for the History of the Risorgimento, one of whose functions will be the publication of a review similar to that which Professor Manzone founded ten years ago, but had to abandon from lack of support.

Besides these general discussions, the congress listened to some dozen memoirs, several of which examined minutely a special event, while others sought to establish general conclusions. To the former belonged Signor E. Ghisi's paper on the tricolor flag in Italy from 1796 to 1814, Prof. A. Micheli's paper on Tito Speri, and Prof. G. Riva's account of Garibaldi's retreat on Monza in 1848. To the latter belonged memoirs by the two American delegates—on the relations between Italy and the United States from 1837 to 1870, by H. Nelson Gay of Rome, and a parallel between Cavour and Bismarck, by your correspondent. Mr. Gay's monograph, enriched by citations from the archives of the American embassy, and from the inedited papers of the late George P. Marsh, was received with much favor, and many references were made to his magnificent collection, which now numbers some 30,000 titles, of works on the Risorgimento. A special exhibit of Risorgimento relics was opened. There was a farewell banquet, pleasantly informal, at which Dr. L. Pastro, the last survivor of the Belfiore victims of 1853, was the hero—a living historical document. It would hardly have been more surprising to have had Silvio Pellico or Confalonieri there, so remote do the Mazzinian conspiracies seem from present conditions. After all, it is not by lapse of years but by qualitative changes that the historian measures time.

WILLIAM ROSCOE THAYER.

Correspondence.

THE HONESTY OF BROAD CHURCHMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of November 29, in speaking of Dr. Crapsey's enforced retirement from the Episcopal Church, and of his advice to others holding views similar to his not to withdraw, but to remain in the Church, you say,

This seems to us to be in the interest neither of ecclesiastical order nor of sound morals. . . . The idea that the progress of truth or the reform of a creed can best be effected by remaining in a morally ambiguous position, is one to which we find it difficult to subscribe.

Other statements of yours also in recent issues have seemed to give it as the opinion of the man in the street, and to endorse that opinion, that Broad Churchmen are dishonest, as holding views which are not those of the Church to which they belong and yet retaining their positions in the Church for the sake—as it has been expressed—of "eating her bread." This is a charge so serious that, if it is well-founded, it would require, as the High Churchmen are asserting, the expulsion of all Broad Churchmen and their moral condemnation. None would demand this more insistently than the Broad Churchmen themselves.

But to many this seems too easy an analysis of the situation. For, in the first place, the recent decision of the ecclesiastical court of Western New York by which Dr. Crapsey was condemned has not in any

way affected the legal position of Broad Churchmen, at least of those outside that diocese. For the decisions of a diocesan court have only diocesan validity. To maintain that they constitute law for the whole Church is like asserting that if California excludes the Japanese from her schools, they must therefore be excluded from all schools throughout the United States. Nor does this diocesan decision have general validity given it through its recent affirmation by the Court of Review. For that court is expressly prohibited by its constitution from pronouncing upon matters of doctrine or upon the substance of cases brought before it, but must confine its consideration wholly to the legality of the lower court's procedure. From a legal point of view, then, the recent decisions have not affected the position in the Church of any persons excepting Dr. Crapsey and possibly some in the Diocese of Western New York.

But it would be abhorrent to any Christian minister to be even suspected of the methods of sharp and shady business—of taking advantage of a legal technicality to commit a grave moral wrong. Honesty is just as essential in the ecclesiastical world as in the business world; and to decide in a given case what honesty demands is often as complex a problem. The Broad Churchman maintains that he has a right in the Church morally and historically, that the position he holds is essential to the Church's existence, and that its abandonment, if thorough, would result in her decay and death. For there have always been in the Christian Church since the days of St. James and St. Paul two differing types of mind—the one laying stress on institutionalism, on obedience to authority, and caring little to investigate the grounds of its belief; and the other emphasizing the individual element, the importance of thinking, and the conviction that honest and clear thought is not subversive of but essential in historic Christianity. Students of Church history do not need to be pointed to Clement of Alexandria and Athanasius, to Abelard and St. Francis and Wycliffe for instances of the latter type before the Reformation, while after the Reformation the tone of the Church in England was almost wholly of this type for nearly a century. For it was not until the beginning of the seventeenth century that the party represented by Bancroft and Laud gained a sufficient footing to be recognized and opposed.

It is the contention, then, of the Broad Churchman that he is conforming to the standards of his Church quite as truly as the High Churchman. For the most pertinent standard is that which is contained in the promise the priest makes at his ordination—that he will "minister the doctrine and sacraments and the discipline of Christ, as the Lord hath commanded, and as this Church hath received the same." And when he asks where the official statement is, as to how the doctrine and sacraments are received by the Church, he is pointed not to constitution or canon or legal decision, for there are none containing the final utterance. But he is referred to the Prayer Book and to its services. What he seeks is to be found in these embedded. An official standard of interpretation of doctrine the Church has never established. In order to ascertain how the Church "hath received

the same," it would be manifestly incompetent to turn and ask the man in the street; for that which seems to him the "plain" or the "common-sense" or the "only" meaning of a theologic statement, is not unlikely to be wholly modern or local, or even individual. It is the consensus of opinion of the Church at large which must be taken as the ultimate standard.

This may seem too vague to be of value. It furnishes, it is true, no rule of thumb for the ready settlement of disputes, and none such is possible. And here is a main ground of difference with the legalist. For he is inclined to assert, "There must be such a rule, and the thumb must be mine." But, instead of being so vague as to be unpractical, it is, on the other hand, the only practicable standard, for it consists not in rules, but in principles. It is the same as the standard of the law of the land. For this resides only secondarily in the ordinances of Legislatures and the decisions of courts. Primarily, it is in the justice, the intelligence, the moral sense of the people; and this slowly but surely shapes legal precedents and police regulations. For certain practical emergencies the Church has established canons. She has also set forth creeds. But she has never attempted in this country to nail a given meaning to an article of belief, but has maintained that comprehensiveness in its interpretation, within the reasonable limits recognized by her whole history, is as important as exactness.

Such comprehensiveness has long existed in case of every article of the Apostles' Creed, for example, except two. No one would think of asserting that "I believe in God" or "in the resurrection of the body" has or must have the same shade of meaning to every one who uses the Creed. But the thought of the Church has been only recently awakened to the application of this principle to the two articles concerning the Virgin birth and the resurrection of Jesus. There are unquestionably in the New Testament two different traditions in regard to the manner of Jesus's birth, and two different modes of viewing his resurrection. The Broad Churchman who is a priest promised at the ordination to instruct his people out of the Scriptures, and to "teach nothing as necessary to eternal salvation but that which you shall be persuaded may be concluded and proved by Scripture." He has surely, therefore, strong ground in maintaining that views which are in the Scriptures are at least permissible in the Church. He also maintains that whichever of the views above mentioned is held, belief in the divinity of Christ and in his resurrection is in no way diminished thereby. It is for this reason that he repudiates the charge of dishonesty when he repeats the Creed, with its articles of the Virgin birth and the resurrection of the body, since he holds the identical truth these were designed to express. The language in which it was expressed was doubtless sufficient for its time, but to-day it needs sifting to reveal its message, just as hell-fire needs sifting in order to reveal beneath it the solid fact of eternal loss. The High Churchman declares, "One only of these views of the Creed is consistent with belief in the divinity of Christ, and legal in the Church." The Broad Churchman replies,

"Both are so consistent, and both are legal." The attempt to narrow the terms of subscription to one rigidly defined type is a late development in the history of doctrine, and one which has in every case been soon abandoned. This is made evident in Prof. A. V. G. Allen's forthcoming book on the subject. The attempt, however, is the result of an advance in thinking by no means to be regretted. As the spirit of scientific thought increases, many fields are brought within its range which previously had been left quiet in vague indeterminateness. But it is pseudo-scientific to insist on defining what cannot be defined, and on interpreting poetry or theology in terms of legal contract.

Whether the position of the Broad Churchman is legal in the Episcopal Church is a matter now in some quarters under discussion. The Crapsey case has given weight to the opinion that it is not. It has established no decision making it illegal. It was in view of this, I take it, as well as through his unshaken loyalty to the Church he has loved and served so nobly, that Dr. Crapsey expressed the hope that Broad Churchmen would not withdraw. Whether their views are approved or disapproved, such persons may not, I submit, be justly accused of dishonesty for holding a position which in the main has always been held in the Church, and of which even the details have not been condemned by the Church to-day.

FREDERIC PALMER.

Andover, Mass., December 8.

A QUESTION OF METRICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly make clear one or two points in the comment on Professor Lewis's book, "The Principles of English Verse," in your issue of November 15. Two quotations are given, the first from Milton, and the second from Tennyson. Will you tell me why the first, "The world was all before them," should be scanned $\cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup |$ as trochaic, when it occurs in a blank-verse poem, the normal line of which would be iambic pentameter? Moreover, this line completed with the additional words "where to choose" is a normal iambic pentameter line. Is it also a fair test of rhythm to give only a part of a line when the rhythmical character of a line is actually dependent to some extent upon the length of the line, as the reading of four and five stressed verse would prove?

The second example, "To bicker down a valley," is taken from a poem also pre-eminently iambic in character. It would naturally be scanned, $\cup \cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup |$. It might also be scanned, $\cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup |$, but since the whole is iambic and not trochaic, the first is the correct form. How could it possibly be scanned $\cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup |$? Both quotations seem clearly to fall into the form objected to, that is, $\cup \cup \cup \cup$ —; and there is no rhythmical difference due to any difference in the recurrence of stressed and unstressed syllables. The real difference in the rhythmical character of the two is assignable to tone and quantity.

Moreover, the main objection to Professor Lewis's book, that he does not grant the organic value of the foot, is not clear. Is not the character of a line of verse fully

described when written $\cup \cup \cup \cup \cup \cup$? What in addition is gained by $\cup \cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup |$ except convenience in referring to some definite foot? And the use of the foot for convenience, Professor Lewis not only grants, but adopts. If one throws away entirely the idea of the foot, there is still a "recurrence of similar phenomena at regular intervals of time," or if preferred, "a regular arrangement of time-intervals." The foot is merely a mechanical device to indicate the division between time-intervals.

ADA L. SNELL.

Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass., November 20.

[The difficulty is that three things have been overlooked. First, the bar, as it is used in the review, like the bar in music, makes no break in the sound; it merely indicates to the eye, on paper, that the recurring group of similar phenomena, by which the longer series is measured, is for convenience assumed to begin with the ictus or down-beat. In music, in ancient lyric, and in English verse that method of division best avoids confusion. The legal day begins at midnight, the astronomical day begins at noon; does the method adopted affect in any way the phenomena themselves? Of course, both lines are "iambic," in the sense that each begins with the arsis. In the Miltonic phrase the syllabic relations are in no way changed by omitting the rest of the line. Second, the reader was expressly warned that the macron and breve were used by the reviewer to denote time-relations, not accents. Third, accented is not the same as long, unaccented is not the same as short. Tennyson used to complain that people confused accent and quantity. "They said the first syllable of 'sunny' was long, whereas it evidently is short." (Memoir by his son, vol. ii., pp. 12 and 400.) So in "bicker" and "valley," the first syllable evidently is short. Nobody reads "To bicker down a valley" otherwise than as $\cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup | \cup \cup |$. These differences in quantity, *i. e.*, in time-intervals, are of the very essence of rhythm. The rhythmic character of a line is clearly not fully described by marking the accents only. Mr. Lewis's defect is that he takes too little account of the arrangement of time-intervals between the beats—does not adequately analyze those groups of similar phenomena, the feet, whose regular recurrence makes rhythm. It is as if a musician should teach that bars are equal, but should ignore the differences between notes within the bar, merely saying vaguely that these notes differ variously, and sometimes even one note fills the whole bar, but you needn't bother to consider such trifles too curiously.—THE REVIEWER.]

THE CASE OF THE TWENTY-FIFTH INFANTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have followed with interest the controversy over the case of the Twenty-fifth Infantry. I have lived for many years in the neighborhood of various frontier posts, and can say, with authority, that the conduct of the colored troops compares very favorably with that of the white troops.

The Third Battalion of the Twenty-fifth

Infantry has been punished for not delivering up to justice a guilty comrade; but do all of your Eastern readers realize what justice to a negro means in Texas? I am personally of the opinion that the entire Twenty-fifth Infantry would prefer "discharge without honor" to surrendering a comrade to a Texas lynching bee. It has required no little moral courage for the men of the Twenty-fifth Infantry to stand by their comrade, or comrades. Our President has himself the courage—and in his position it requires considerable courage—to stand by his friends. It is to be regretted that he cannot see the affairs of the Twenty-fifth Infantry in this light.

A. MORGAN.

Valentine, Neb., December 6.

Notes.

The diary of Hans Christian Andersen, during the years 1868-75, is to be published in Copenhagen, as the third and last volume of his "Story of My Life."

Anthologies are always numerous, but this year they fall thicker than usual. Largest of all in size is a volume called "Whisperings from the Great," being nothing more than the customary birthday album, compiled by Constance A. Meredyth and published by Henry Frowde. The selection is catholic, and includes French as well as English authors. Two other books are arranged for the calendar; one, "The Friendly Year" (Scribners), with selections mainly in prose, and of a religious or ethical character, by Henry van Dyke, the other, "All the Year in the Garden" (Crowell), by Esther Matson, containing a daily bit of nature verse. Other anthologies are made on a special theme. Thus, we have "A Sailor's Garland" (Macmillan), by John Masefield, containing a surprising amount of good sea-verse. One may here observe the change in tone from the older terror of the ocean to the more friendly feeling of the nineteenth century. "Days and Deeds" (Baker & Taylor), compiled by Burton E. and Elizabeth B. Stevenson, is an attempt to gather together the really significant poetry relating to American holidays, and to great Americans. A little book of "poems divine and moral," collected by FitzRoy Carrington, is published by Duffield & Co., as "The Pilgrim's Staff" in form and type to match old colonial work. Most attractive in appearance and substance are three small volumes that show much the same principle of selection. E. V. Lucas's "Friendly Town" (Holt) has as subtitle "A Little Book for the Urbane," which serves to characterize it fairly well. It is in prose and verse, such a collection of friendly pieces as would have delighted Charles Lamb, whose editor Mr. Lucas has been. It is odd that Lionel Johnson's stanzas on "Saint Charles" are not included. "Traveller's Joy," by W. G. Waters, and "The Pilgrim's Way," by A. T. Quiller-Couch, are both published by E. P. Dutton & Co., and are somewhat alike in contents, both including prose and verse, and both prepared for no less a journey than that of life itself. Mr. Quiller-Couch's book is more reflective in tone.

and mates in this respect with Mr. Lucas's.

Shaksperc's dramas and poems is the latest addition to the single-volume editions of the poets in the Cambridge series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The editor, Prof. W. A. Neilson of Harvard, has given us in this volume a text based on an independent examination of the early Quartos and First Folio. He has included also a biographical sketch and glossary and summaries, prefixed to each play, giving all necessary information concerning sources, authenticity, etc. The work leaves nothing to be desired in point of scholarship, and could, indeed, be recommended without reservation but for the small type which in consecutive reading puts all eyes but the strongest to a pretty severe test.

Eight years ago G. W. E. Russell, the veteran journalist and politician, and editor of Matthew Arnold's "Letters," published his "Collections and Recollections," an amusing volume of gossip in which may be found most of the best and hoariest anecdotes of political, literary, and social English life in the nineteenth century, with a running commentary of reminiscences. His new volume, "Social Silhouettes" (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is more ambitious, because in it Mr. Russell passes from the particular to the general, and sets out to register certain English types, the soldier, the country parson, the author, and the rest; to do in fact for London what Theophrastus did for Athens in his "Characters." Since praise inevitably sounds flat in sketches of character, Theophrastus admitted into his immortal gallery none but the stupid or vicious. Mr. Russell, too, does not keep the tone of mild satire out of his kindest portraits, the Doctor, for instance, or the Schoolmaster, or the Curate, but most of these characters are an improvement on their literary forerunners. The Curate, especially, who has had to face his caricature in every English novel and play, will find himself recognized in this clever portrait for what he has become—the most strenuous and not the least athletic of English professional men. But Mr. Russell wrote with greater gusto such sketches as the Faddist, for whose sake Theophrastus might regret having been born too soon; the Plutocrat; the Authoress, whom Mr. Russell envisages as combining the characteristics of Sarah Grand and Marie Corelli; the Buck, who is none other than the Exquisite of Theophrastus; the Quidnunc, who is Theophrastus's Newsmonger, a figure more familiar in Athens than in London. The political portraits are drawn with a peculiarly expert hand. The Election Agent, the Candidate, and the Party-Hack, are figures that one has met in all the political memoirs and in Trollope's novels. What Mr. Russell does for them is to point to the changes in their features in the last forty years, the completeness of their adaptation to changed times.

"New England Town Law," by James S. Garland (The Boston Book Co.), is primarily intended to serve the most practical purposes, for it professes to be simply a digest of statutes and decisions concerning towns and town officers. Yet the introduction, eighty-three pages in length, is of interest to many persons other than the officers and lawyers who will use the body

of the work; for the introduction gives an account of the history, functions, and present condition of the New England town as a political, religious, and social institution. The author is obviously an enthusiast; and consequently he is easily forgiven for imagining that the townships found in so many States outside New England, although lacking town meetings, moderators, and selectmen, present the essential features of the New England town.

"Highways and Byways of the Mississippi Valley," written and illustrated by Clifton Johnson (Macmillan Co.), is a book to which one will turn in vain for the striking and unusual; but the author has uncommonly keen eyes for picking out what is worth while in the every-day life of the masses. The present volume traces the Mississippi from New Orleans to the wilder region of its head waters, and but few phases of its life to elude the author's notice. Especially valuable is his knack for penetrating without offence into the more intimate life of the farmers, lumbermen, and villagers, so that we get much that is practically first-hand material for the study of the average social life of the great valley. Whether, however, he gained a fair knowledge of the seamier side of the "shanty-boat" life to which he allots one chapter, we are inclined to doubt. He has at least given no hint of the enormous amount of theft, prostitution, and illegal liquor dealing which these little house-boats shelter, the owners finding it easy to elude the law by stealthy and frequent changes of location. There are regions where it is difficult for respectable people to indulge in house-boating as a pastime, because of the presumption of wrong intent thus thrown upon any boat of the kind, whose occupants are not already favorably known. The chapter on Mark Twain's country is amusing in its revelation of the serious point of view from which many of the more unsophisticated natives judge his humor, and their consequent inability to consider his writings as thoroughly trustworthy. The illustrations are full-page insets, well chosen and effectively reproduced.

We remember, in the early eighties, assisting at an interview between an inebriated "cow-puncher" and an English "tenderfoot" who was waiting for the northern stage in a saloon at Rock Creek. The former was explaining to the latter the "institutions" of the United States, and his last, merely verbal, elucidation of his thesis consisted in the statement: "This is a free country. I'm going to kick your dog." The formula may have been a new one, but the essential idea is at least as old as the thirteenth century, when, the rise of the Italian Republics having concentrated all legal authority in the hands of the citizens, and often enough in the hands of a mere fraction of the citizens, the *Popolo* began to show itself as arrogant and illiberal as ever the feudal aristocracy had been. Nor is there any phase of communal life in which the then prevalent conception of liberty as the exclusive prerogative, nay, almost the personal attribute, of the dominant class, is more clearly manifested than in the relations between the communes and their *contadi*. The matter is one to which we have already alluded in our notice of

Signor F. Briganti's "Città Dominanti o Comuni Minori nel Medio Evo," but we are now able to announce the appearance of an even more valuable contribution to the subject in Prof. R. Caggese's "La Repubblica di Siena e il suo contado nel Secolo xiii." (Siena: Tip. Lazzeri). The picture which this book affords us of the ruthless exploitation of the country districts for the benefit of the cities is truly appalling. Indeed, it would seem that the few and precarious rights which were enjoyed by the peasantry were granted them only for the benefit of their masters—just as the owner of a horse might feed him with oats so as to get more work out of him. We have already urged upon our readers the importance of this hitherto little explored branch of the history of mediæval Italy, and it is therefore enough to refer them to Professor Caggese's scholarly work.

The verses of the late Alfred Garneau, translator to the Canadian Senate, have been gathered for posthumous publication by his son (Montreal: Librairie Beauchemin) with perhaps a keener sense of filial devotion than of literary discrimination. Several of these *bluettes* are in the form of innocuous album or occasional verse with enough gentle sentiment to embalm them in the memory of private friends; yet they want specific quality, and seem to have been written under the spell, not of reserve, but of constraint, as from a strictly cloistered intellectual seclusion. This leads to such belated trifling as:

L'aurore
Colore
D'un fin
Carmin, etc.

reminding one of Jérôme Paturot's hirsute poet with his "Qui! Toi, Belle, Telle," etc. The verses entitled "À Ma Sœur," with their simple purity, redeem much. In the last poem, "France," which suggests, though it does not express, a French-Canadian's feeling toward original *patrie* and speech, occurs the singular line:

A Polivier plus blond encore.

"Faint-gray," Browning says.

In the "Bibliographie Géographique" for 1905, the fifteenth of the series published by the *Annales de Géographie*, nearly twenty-five hundred works, Government reports and articles in scientific journals, are catalogued and analyzed by the editor, Louis Raveneau, and fifty-one other writers of different nationalities. These analyses are not mere dry schedules of contents, but are often lively descriptions of works from the critic's point of view. Paul Girardin, for instance, begins his characterization of Capt. Mahan's "Le salut de la race blanche et l'Empire des Mers" with the remark that "one will find in this book some of the cherished ideas [*idées chères*] of President Roosevelt." As in previous years, more space is given to our Government reports than to those of any other nation. The full index and the numerous cross references under its seventy-one divisions make it an invaluable work of its kind.

A noteworthy evidence that the scientific spirit overleaps national boundaries is the publication of the literary remains of Hegel, which the Société des amis de l'Université de Paris has undertaken, on the basis of manuscripts found in the University Library of Berlin. The first volume, contain-

ing "The Life of Jesus," edited by Dr. Paul Roques, professor of German in Chartres, has just been issued by the house of Diederichs, in Jena, and other volumes are soon to follow.

Mrs. Nathaniel Southgate Shaler is preparing to write a life of the late Dean Shaler. She appeals for letters, anecdotes, or reminiscences, and asks that these be sent to her at 1775 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.

Ferdinand Brunetière, who died in Paris last Sunday, was born at Toulon in 1849 and received his education in Marseilles. It was his original intention to become a teacher, but having failed in his Normal School examination in 1869, he was prevented from a second attempt by the war of 1870. He then devoted himself to the general study of literature, and in 1875 first attracted attention to himself by a brilliant review of M. Wallon's "St. Louis et Son Temps." Soon afterward he joined the staff of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, of which in course of time he became first the secretary and then the editor. His reputation as a writer led naturally to his selection as a teacher, and in 1886 he was appointed professor of the French literature and language at the École Normale. In the following year he received the cross of the Legion of Honor, and in 1893 he was appointed a lecturer at the Sorbonne and elected a member of the French Academy. His works include: "Éducation et Instruction," "Époques du Théâtre," "Essais sur la Littérature Contemporaine," "Études Critiques," "Évolution de la Poésie," "Évolution des Genres," "Roman Naturaliste," "Manuel de l'Histoire de la Littérature Française," "Balzac." The last-named monograph has just appeared in English in the French Men of Letters published by J. B. Lippincott Co.

The death of Miss Mary Bateson, November 30, takes away one of the best of the younger Cambridge historians. Miss Bateson was the daughter of Dr. W. H. Bateson, master of St. John's College, and was educated at Newnham, taking the Historical Tripos in 1887 and standing just below the senior of the year. She continued at Newnham as fellow. As a student she took a wide range. Her best known work is a chapter on "The French in America," contributed to the "Cambridge Modern History," but her interest was more particularly in the Middle Ages, and she published a series of papers on the complicated municipal and legal history of mediæval England. It was proper, therefore, that she should have been chosen by the Syndics of the Cambridge University Press as one of the editors of the forthcoming "Cambridge Mediæval History." She was withal as much esteemed for the simplicity and rectitude of her character as for her attainments.

The death is announced of Dr. Hans Zwiedineck, professor of modern history in the University of Graz. He was born in Frankfort in 1845, and educated at Graz. Among his works are the "Deutsche Geschichte von dem Untergang des alten bis zur Gründung des neuen Kaiserthums" and "Venedig als Weltmarkt und Weltstadt."

Herbert Putnam, librarian of Congress, says in his annual report, just issued, that in size and in importance of content the gift of Dr. Stuyvesant Fish Morris of New

York must rank first among the accessions of the year. Mr. Putnam adds:

It was only last year that Dr. Morris presented to the library an elaborate historical collection of 860 letters, addressed to Martin Van Buren, together with a large number of printed circulars and political broadsides typical of the campaign methods of those times. In the year just past, the same donor has presented nearly 1,700 similar letters and political publications, thereby contributing all that remained of the Van Buren collection, with the exception of a few of the more intimate family letters.

The latest donation contains many documents in Van Buren's own handwriting, and it is "particularly rich in its bearing upon the political events of his Administration." For some years the library has owned other valuable papers of this period, presented by Mrs. Smith Thompson Van Buren. Through the accessions obtained from Dr. Morris, the library now possesses a remarkably complete collection. Eighteen letters written by Zachary Taylor to Col. J. P. Taylor during service in the war with Mexico, have come to the library by the gift of Capt. Taylor, U. S. A. As they were written in full family confidence, their contents are of permanent interest.

The regents of the University of California have provided for the establishment of an "Academy of Pacific Coast History," with the Bancroft collection as a nucleus. The academy is to be installed in the new university library building, for which the late C. F. Dole left \$750,000. The expense of maintenance is estimated at \$10,000 a year, which is to be met temporarily by private subscriptions. There will be a curator and special staff of assistants.

The following table, made up from the reports submitted to the Department of Education at Albany, shows the number of volumes in each of the more important of the university and college libraries in this State, the amount spent for books and the amount paid for salaries during the last year for which reports are at hand:

Institution.	No. vols. in library.	Annual amount for b'ks.	Annual amount for sal.
Columbia University	375,525	\$28,052	\$56,389
Cornell University	311,897	18,368	14,485
N. Y. Univ. (gen. library)	56,078	1,318	1,397
Syracuse University	54,177	2,191	3,547
Vassar College	50,276	4,845	3,228
Hamilton College	45,333	956	1,000
Colgate University	45,298	2,798
Hobart College	43,799	916	1,240
Rochester University	42,048	1,956	1,260
Union College	38,490	701	825
College of City of N. Y.	36,481	2,053	2,250
Alfred University	19,421	1,235	710
St. Lawrence University	15,710	99	275
Wells College	12,188	2,045	1,075
Elmira Female College.	6,280	50	300

Outside of Columbia and Cornell, which are in a class quite by themselves, the largest sum spent per year for books (inclusive of periodicals and bindings) is \$4,845, and the largest amount paid for salaries of library staff is \$3,547, while such old and well-known institutions as Hamilton and Union spend respectively \$956 and \$701 for books, and \$1,000 and \$825 for salaries. Many small and obscure village libraries in the State are receiving better support than this. Including Columbia and Cornell, the total amount spent by the fifteen libraries named above was \$67,587 for books and \$67,981 for salaries. The former of these items is less by \$20,000 than the amount spent for the same purpose by the Brooklyn Public Li-

brary; while the total salaries paid is less by \$4,000 than the amount paid in the New York State Library alone; it is less than half that paid in the Brooklyn Public Library, and less than one-third the amount paid in the Boston Public Library. A comparison of the figures in the above table with those submitted by the athletic committees of the institutions named, would be instructive.

The American Sociological Society, the American Economic Association, the American Historical Association, the Bibliographical Society of America, and the American Political Science Association will meet this year at Providence, from December 26 to December 29. All five organizations will be the guests of Brown University.

The Bibliographical Society of America has issued a tentative programme for its meeting, to be held December 27. The morning session will be opened by an address by the president, William Coolidge Lane, librarian of Harvard. There will be reports from various committees, including those in Americana, incunabula, and current bibliography. The following papers will be read: "The Bibliographical Work of Historical Societies," Dr. Reuben Gold Thwaites, secretary of the Wisconsin Historical Society; "The Need of a Bibliography of American Colonial Newspapers," Clarence S. Brigham, librarian of the Rhode Island Historical Society; "Plans for a Union Catalogue of American Colonial Laws," Theodore Lee Cole, Washington, D. C.; "Book-hunting as a Sport," Prof. James Westfall Thompson, University of Chicago. The subject for the afternoon session will be "An International Catalogue of the Current Literature of the Social Sciences." The discussion of the bibliography of history will be opened by Dr. E. C. Richardson, librarian of Princeton; and W. C. Ford, library of Congress; of economics by Prof. F. A. Fetter, Cornell; J. C. Schwab, librarian of Yale; and J. J. Macfarlane, Philadelphia Commercial Museum; of sociology by Prof. C. W. Veditz, George Washington University; and C. H. Hastings, Library of Congress; of political science by W. F. Dodd, Library of Congress; and Prof. Paul S. Reinsch, University of Wisconsin; of law by F. W. Schenk, librarian of the University of Chicago Law School, and Prof. George G. Wilson, Brown University.

Following the useful custom of meeting together during the winter recess, the American Philological Association, the Archæological Institute of America, and the managing committee of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome, will hold their sessions at Washington during the first week of January. The programme provides for entertainment as well as for work. We have space only to give the names of those who have registered papers to read: F. G. Ballentine, Bucknell University; W. P. Mustard, Haverford; E. W. Hopkins, Paul Baur, Bernadotte Perrin, T. D. Seymour, A. W. Van Buren, and C. C. Torrey, Yale; R. G. Kent, W. B. McDaniel, W. N. Bates, and G. D. Hadzits, University of Pennsylvania; C. W. Super, Ohio University; R. S. Radford, Elmira College; J. Pickard, University of Missouri; W. H. Goodyear, Brooklyn Institute; E. L. Hewett, fellow of the Institute of American Arch-

æology; K. P. Harrington, Wesleyan; G. D. Kellogg, A. Marquand, H. C. Butler, O. S. Tonks, and A. R. Anderson, Princeton; A. A. Bryant, C. H. Moore, J. W. White, G. H. Chase, E. Cary, and M. Warren, Harvard; E. W. Fay, University of Texas; W. S. Scarborough, Wilberforce University; O. M. Washburn, University High School, Chicago; F. G. Allinson and A. G. Harkness, Brown; C. B. Newcomer and F. W. Kelsey, University of Michigan; E. T. Merrill, Trinity; T. Fitz-Hugh, University of Virginia; H. N. Fowler, Western Reserve; Miss Gisela M. A. Richter, Metropolitan Museum of Art; D. M. Robinson, Johns Hopkins; J. M. Paton and E. von Mach, Cambridge, Mass.; J. E. Harry, University of Cincinnati; H. C. Tolman, Vanderbilt University; A. W. Mildner, Emory and Henry College. The visiting members will be guests of George Washington University and of the Washington Society of the Archaeological Institute.

The steady decrease of students at the University of Athens, the only institution of the kind in Greece, is, according to the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, beginning to trouble the authorities. The decrease has been caused by the fact that foreign students, especially from European and Asiatic Turkey, no longer crowd to Athens, and in order to attract them it is now proposed to relieve them of fees and other university expenses. It is also proposed to enlarge the scope of the institution by adding departments in technology and the branches of economics. The funds for this innovation are furnished by a legacy amounting to about \$1,750,000. The native Greeks themselves still flock to Athens in numbers far exceeding the demands of State and Church, and Greece accordingly has also its problem of a "learned proletariat."

THE HOHENLOHE MEMOIRS.

Denkwürdigkeiten des Fürsten Chlodwig zu Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst. Im Auftrag des Prinzen Alexander zu Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst herausgegeben von Friedrich Curtius. Stuttgart und Leipzig: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt.

Memoirs of Prince Chlodwig of Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst. English edition supervised by George W. Chrystal, B.A. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$6.00 net.

The instant success of scandal which these memoirs attained has resulted in obscuring even their true personal interest. Gossip and indiscretion have been thrust forward as the main things in a life-record of which the real significance has been too much overlooked. And the large political import of the career and of the events narrated in these volumes has had hard work to disentangle itself from the outcry and recrimination following their appearance.

Prince Hohenlohe was not perhaps a great statesman, but he was a great German. Before the rise of Prussia gave promise of her hegemony among the German States, and their consolidation through her, this Bavarian noble had longed for German unity. In April, 1848, he said: "Deep in the hearts of all Germans lives the quickening belief in a single, free, powerful Fatherland." He was oppressed by "the nullity" of Germany over against other countries. To him it was a sorrowful thing that in foreign lands

one could not boast of being a German, but bad to say: "I am from Hesse; I am a Darmstädter; my country was once a great and mighty nation, but now it is broken up into thirty-eight fragments." Dedicated from early youth to what he called the "erstrebten Einheit Deutschlands," Hohenlohe had peculiar advantages for describing, from his personal point of view, its accomplishment. Here we have no elaborate history composed after the event; but letters and journals written at the time. In many ways Prince Hohenlohe's account of the unification of the German Empire is more instructive than anything that even Bismarck wrote. First, this is not a studied apology; it is the running and contemporary comment of a good observer, with excellent sources of information. Further, Hohenlohe was a South German. He belonged to one of the absorbed states. Hence his story of the process of absorption is written from a standpoint different from the Prussian—and it is the Prussians who have given the world the accepted version. This Bavarian prince becoming, after Königgrätz and Sedan, Chancellor of the German Empire, was in a position to give us a fresh and instructive philosophy of that great political revolution in Europe which we call the rise of united Germany. It is much as if a cultivated Southerner, say Judge Lamar, had left us his rendering of the consolidation of the United States of America after Gettysburg and Appomattox.

As a leading actor, as well as narrator, Prince Hohenlohe was well fitted to play his part. A South German, he was yet without that narrow particularism which so long marked the policy of the smaller states in the Germanic Confederation. A Catholic, he was yet able to appreciate the position of German Protestants, and to perceive the liberating nature of the work wrought by the Reformation. He very early wrote:

The intolerance and hatred of Protestantism, the notion that the Reformation, with all its great philosophic and intellectual consequences, was a mere aberration of the human mind, are so diametrically opposed to my inmost being and point to such a decay that I could never bind myself to render any assistance to that party [the Ultramontane] without repudiating my whole past inner life and all my most sacred convictions.

The Prince was thus happily fitted to play the part of a mediator. This he did most usefully when, as Bavarian Minister, he labored, through such measures as the Zollverein, to bring the scattered parts of Germany into touch. The fires of war finally welded them together, in 1866 and 1870, and with that the Prince had little to do directly. But he consistently represented throughout his long career the national, as against the purely Bavarian or the strictly Prussian, interest. His suspicion of the latter endured to the end. It is highly instructive to note his dread of Prussian Junkerdom. He had in his young manhood thought of it as a threat to the South Germans; in his old age he conceived of it as a threat to the Empire itself. One of the very latest entries in his journal, December 15, 1898, is a sort of summing up of the whole political evolution which he had witnessed and furthered, and an instructive judgment upon it:

When I am thus among Prussian Excel-

lences the contrast between North and South Germany becomes very perceptible to me. South German Liberalism is no match for the young aristocrats. They are too numerous, too powerful, and have the monarchy and the army too much on their side. Moreover, the Centre goes with them: Everything I have seen these four years is made clear by this antithesis. The Germans are right in regarding my presence in Berlin as a guarantee of unity. As I labored from 1866 to 1870 for the union of North and South, so I must strive now to keep Prussia attached to the Empire. For all these gentlemen do not care a fig for the Empire, and would give it up, the sooner the better.

Such an *aperçu* lets us into much of present politics in Germany, as well as past history.

It was partly, as Bismarck explained, because the Junkers could not be envious of Hohenlohe that his political career was possible. His long and able service as Ambassador at Paris was due in part to the fact that he was a *grand seigneur*, apart from the jealousies and the strivings of the cliques that swarmed and schemed in Berlin. Similarly, as Statthalter at Strasbourg, and finally as Chancellor of the Empire, it was Hohenlohe, the Prince of an historic family, that filled the eye. He was a man of fair abilities, of much strength of character, and no little nobility of nature, clear-sighted and steady; but it was what he represented, more than what he was, that made his career. He was staunch to his convictions, and believed in straightforward diplomacy. "The most honorable testimonial of my whole political life," he called it, when among some French secret correspondence, captured in 1870, was found a report stating that before any plot could be executed to engage Bavaria in a war against Prussia, it would be necessary first to get Hohenlohe out of the Ministry (vol. ii., p. 33).

Apart from the now notorious revelations concerning Bismarck's dismissal, these pages throw much incidental light upon that great man. Hohenlohe, it is plain, admired more than he either loved or trusted him. He calls him "the terror of all diplomats." The Czar said that he could talk comfortably with Caprivi, but that he had never been able to converse with Bismarck without a fear of being tricked. More details are given of the secret alliance with Austria in 1879, going behind the Dreikaiserbund, and the fact is made clear that the old Kaiser at first thought the step distinctly one of treachery. Hohenlohe deplored Bismarck's bad manners, giving many illustrations of his *Grobheit*. And he came to be able to read the Chancellor pretty shrewdly. When the swift and startling victories of 1870 made it plain that a plan for a united Germany would speedily be forthcoming, and many were wondering what it would be, Hohenlohe wrote (August 17, 1870): "I doubt if Bismarck will wait long. It is pretty certain that he has his preparations all made, and this seems the more likely from the fact that he has shut himself up at headquarters and refuses to communicate with anybody."

The English translation, so far as we have been able to test it, appears to be fairly satisfactory. It betrays signs of haste, and the printing, especially of French, is carelessly done. On the first page, for example, of the section dealing with the Prince in Paris, there are two

misprints and one mistranslation. The right word is not always chosen, in the rendering. Thus, "all his *deeds* and papers" is not what Professor Curtius meant by "alle seine Papiere und Akten"—as materials for the memoir. Here and there the sense is not caught. The Kaiser is made to say (vol. ii., p. 129) "I shall fall out with Prince Bismarck again over this matter," when what he really said was that he would sharply debate it with him—"in Streit kommen." On the whole, however, the translation seems trustworthy, if not so close and careful as one might desire.

THREE BOOKS ON ITALY.

Glimpses of Italian Court Life. By Tryphosa Bates Batcheller. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. \$4.80.

The fad of the day in literary style being to avoid style and to aim at colloquial ease, the letter is naturally a favorite form of expression. And now that letter-writing as an art is almost extinct, letter-writing as a fashion is very much to the fore. It satisfies public curiosity for private affairs. It introduces the personal note, the *I*, the little god now most adored by the general reader. In no other form, except the diary, which is nothing more than a series of letters written to one's safest friend, could one say to the public: "I wore my white broadcloth princess gown that is trimmed with Cluny lace embroidered in gold thread, the little white and gold toque to match, and my ropes of pearls."

We have had numerous letters from Italy of late. Maud Howe, as an artist's wife, wrote some charming letters from Roma Beata; Mme. Waddington's correspondence, that of a diplomat's wife, was full of a more mature if less picturesque interest. And now Mrs. Batcheller, as a singer and society woman, has brought out in sumptuous form her letters to her parents, written mainly from Rome, and, to judge from manner and matter, with more than a half-thought towards future publication. They deal principally with the social life of the Italian Court and of the Roman nobility. They are lively, gossipy, perhaps lacking in charm, certainly lacking in maturity. But they are fresh, buoyant, and to the outward eye *ingenuous*; they abound in the names of great people; they see everything *colocur de rose*. And the writer adores Italy—"Italia Adorata"—an undeniable appeal to one who cherishes the same feeling.

The writer had friends alike among the Blacks and the Whites, and moved, or "whirled," in the centre of the "best society" of aristocratic Rome. To a lyric soprano who could take high F with ease and sing arias from the "Magic Flute" in the original key, every salon was open in a country where the voice is a national gift and singing a national love. A brilliant public presentation to Queen Elena at the Quirinal follows closely upon a private audience from Pope Pius X., at the Vatican. Then comes a private audience from the Queen Mother, the ever-charming and lovely Queen Margherita. Receptions, balls, private theatricals, dinners, succeed each other with bewildering rapidity; and through them all walk the great ladies of the Roman nobility, dressed in rich silks

and laces, and wearing superb jewels. Why is it that a woman writer dwells lovingly on externals? We learn so much more about the clothes than the character of these noble Italian ladies.

To many, the special interest of these letters will lie in the glimpses they give of Italian musical life—of opera, or artists and musicians, Ristori, Sgambati, Bustini, Mme. Helbig, Professor Mastrigli, of private recitals by the Joachim Quartet, and public concerts at the Royal Academy of St. Cecilia, the Bach Society, Cherubini Society, and Orchestra Society. Also of interest is the account of the *Industria Femminili*, the society founded by Italian ladies of rank, to encourage and develop the work of Italian peasant women in lace-making and embroidery, which now has branches and successful schools of lace-workers scattered over Italy, in the small mountain towns and in the large cities.

The book would have been improved by more careful editing. The illustrations in photogravure and half-tones are excellent, especially noteworthy being the reproductions of photographs of the Italian sovereigns, of different members of the Roman nobility, of artists and musicians. The few colored illustrations are hard and cold. Large, clear type, a generous page, and rich binding make a volume which in appearance is well suited to the subject.

By Italian Seas. By Ernest C. Peixotto. Illustrated. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.50.

Italy of the Italians. By Helen Zimmern. Illustrated. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.

Among the many books that appear yearly on almost every phase of Italian life and culture, it is a pleasure to open one that reflects the real Italy. Ernest Peixotto is a thorough artist, from eyes to finger-tips. He has lingered in spots out of the usual track and beyond the boundaries of modern Italy. And his book is the record of impressions made by the charm of these unfrequented places on a nature responsive to every appeal of the picturesque. In choosing the title "By Italian Seas," he has followed the spirit rather than the letter of Italian domination. Dalmatia, Malta, Tunis, belong to Italy, not by right of present politics, but of past history and influence. And the seas themselves—the Ligurian, the Adriatic, the Ionian, the Tyrrhene, the Mediterranean, are but great inland lakes, as it were, of a former Italy, and their shores still reflect her art and civilization.

The book is not in any way a consecutive narrative; it is more a collection of separate chapters recording experiences in a life of leisurely travel or quiet sojourn. In one chapter, for example, Mr. Peixotto follows the incurring coast of the Italian Riviera, with its "bold headlands, grown with pines and cedars," its rill-run valleys, and "quaint villages hidden within their depths." Snatches of tradition, of history, of fact, are woven into the description wherever they are needed to give color and light and shade. In another chapter he takes us a charming trip down the Dalmatian coast, that long, thin strip of land, so little travelled, so easy of access, whose front faces Italy and the Adriatic and whose back touches Servia, Herze-

govina, and the rocky defiles of Montenegro:

It is a country of transition. In it the Occident touches the Orient and almost mingles with it. Its coast, inclining toward Italy, has imbibed Latin influence, but once over the mountain wall the Orient begins. In its marts Italians of the coast—the "Bodoli"—meet Turks, and Servians, and other Slavs in turbaned fez and flowing trousers. . . . Bald mountains lift their heads from the water's edge; bleak islands break the horizon with clear-cut silhouettes—with an almost utter lack of verdure, save on the gentler slopes and in the rocky hollows where pale olives and almond-trees shelter their frail branches.

Mr. Peixotto's style is always clear, picturesque and mellow, often poetic, and he draws his word-pictures with the same dexterous touch with which he sketches his pen-and-ink pictures of church spires, tall cypresses, or ruined monasteries. In the more finished drawings, the use of wash, combined in a peculiar way with pen and ink, produces some remarkable panoramic effects, packed with life-like detail.

It is a sudden transition from Mr. Peixotto's book of impressions to Miss Zimmern's book of facts—from the poetic to the practical, the artistic to the commonplace. "Italy of the Italians" is a handbook of new Italy, a guide to the intellectual, political, and social conditions of the present. Miss Zimmern's contention is that Italy's contribution to the modern movement is no less worthy of study than what Italy has handed down from the past. Whether she succeeds in proving her contention is another matter. At least, she has brought together, by reading and research, a quantity of material which will be useful to travellers who are visiting Italy for the first time.

The volume, light and convenient in form, is divided into chapters, made easy for reference by a lavish use of side-titles, or paragraph headings in the text. The subjects treated are: The King, which includes a sketch of the administration; the Press; Literature; the Painters; Sculpture and Architecture; Playhouses, Players, and Plays; Science and Inventions; Philosophy; Agrarian Italy; Industry and Commerce; Underground Italy; Music; Italy at Play. Of these, the chapters on Players and Plays, and Italy at Play, are the best, and give a faithful picture of the light-hearted, amusement-loving people. The least successful chapters are those on art and literature. Where facts are concerned, Miss Zimmern is instructive; where personal bias filters through, her position is radical, anti-church. She preserves, however, a healthy Anglo-Saxon antagonism for the decadent, neurasthenic, and sensual tendencies of recent Italian culture.

We note a few important omissions: In the section on the Press; no mention is made of *La Cultura*, a literary and critical review which stands among the foremost in Europe or America. In the chapter on Music, Giovanni Sgambati is omitted as a composer of instrumental music, yet he is by this time well known on both sides of the Atlantic, through his symphonies, quartets, and piano compositions.

The style of the book is very uneven. At times clear and straightforward, it is often over-embellished with adjectives, and marred by a half-trivial tone and awkward

constructions. It is unfortunate that the work could not have been better illustrated.

CURRENT FICTION.

Thalassa. By Mrs. Baillie-Reynolds. New York: Brentano's.

The perturbed spirit of Curren Bell, or rather of Rochester, is not yet at peace. Feminine fancy still hovers caressingly about the image of a dark and sinister and domineering masculinity, with a sad and mysterious past, and a talent for unactionable brutalities. The thing was greatly overdone the other day in a story called "The Dark Lantern." The hero was altogether too savage to be effective; he came too near actually setting the property dog upon the heroine; and otherwise appeared to torment her not so much as a balm to his world-embittered spirit as for the pure sport of it. In "Thalassa" he is at his best. This story is, in much of its detail as well as in general character, strikingly Brontësque. A girl of English birth and Continental breeding is, at twenty, by her dying father's wish, commended to the care of an old friend of his whom she has never seen. This man is of the Rochester age, experience, temper, and surroundings. He lives alone in the country with an old housekeeper, numerous dogs (of the property sort), and the child of an unhappy union. Into this household enter the heroine, a person of more beauty and less meekness than Jane Eyre, and, consequently, with a somewhat easier row to hoe. However, she is sufficiently abused to give point to her eventual triumph.

But, if all this is true, it is not the whole truth. We have read few recent novels with greater pleasure. In the first place, the author herself is perfectly conscious of the kind of thing she is doing. "Will it be like Wuthering Heights, do you think? I keep on thinking of that!" cries the heroine, as she faces her exile in "Grimwold, Yorkshire." Grimwold turns out to be, in atmosphere, more like Thornfield Hall than Wuthering Heights, but the hint is explicit enough. We suppose, however, that the author may have been hardly conscious how like Jane Eyre's first impression of Mr. Rochester is Aldyth Staveley's first impression of Mr. Orme:

He was a large, roughly built man, of a complexion so dark as to be almost swarthy. His hair was jet black, and his close-cropped head and bull neck gave him the appearance of immense strength. His expression at the moment was savage, and the strong curves of his mouth looked cruel. His dress was careless; he wore riding-breeches and gaiters, and carried a hunting-crop in his hand.

No wonder he stands with his back to the fire when he speaks to her, and turns on his heel when she speaks to him. But this is by no means a novel to be laughed at.

Paul. By E. F. Benson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

The author of "Dodo" and "The Chalmers" has a talent curiously feminine, by which we do not mean precisely effeminate. He does not mince in his gait or speak in falsetto; but his progress is attended by a kind of emotional *frou-frou*. His characters are always in a flutter of

spirits, whether high or low; it is hard to take such volatile persons with becoming seriousness, however grave the predicament into which the author may for the moment immerse them.

There are really only four persons in this present story: an Englishwoman of pleasant manners and a ruinous passion for stock-gambling, who is kept pretty well in the background; her daughter Norah, who loves Paul, but does not know it; Paul, who loves Norah, but does not know it; Theodore Beckwith, the villain, a loathsome person who naturally marries the heroine. Beckwith is a kind of vampire, physically a weakling, with the monstrous power of feeding his strength by contact with youth and vigor. His chief pleasure is in the exercise of a wanton malice. Having married Norah, he induces Paul to become his secretary, thus securing the companionship of two healthy young creatures whom he may feed upon and in due time torture. He sees to it that they remain in no doubt of their feeling for each other, taking pains to throw them literally into each other's arms. The disappointing thing about the tale is that it is only striking, and not moving at all. The villain is too villainous to be true, and the hero too amiable to engage sympathy; the heroine is simply a nice girl in an awkward position. Paul respects the rights of the husband. Eventually, however, he crushes Beckwith under a motor-car, nearly killing himself in the desperate attempt to save the vampire. But he really does kill the other man, and he really has had a momentary impulse to do it deliberately. This fault preys on his mind for over a hundred pages, during which he takes to drink, and otherwise enjoys himself very little. Finally he atones by rescuing Beckwith's child from being run over by a train. This makes everything as comfortable as possible.

The Viper of Milan. By Marjorie Bowen. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.

This "romance" which its publishers marvel at and exult in as the work of a young girl of "fifteen or sixteen" (as they somewhat vaguely put it) is at least as silly and superfluous as if she had been fifty or sixty. No cruder bait can be thrown to a gaping public than that of precocity. A sort of pathetic interest, to the friendly or parental eye, will always inhere in these raw attempts, but even as exhibits or "documents" they are seldom worth printing. The story is preceded by an absurd "Publisher's Preface" (which is nothing more than a "reading notice" on a large scale) in which we are called upon to admire this fustian as a notable historical romance. For the rest, the manuscript is in much need of editing. "The pair of thee hold your lives solely at my pleasure"; "She looked strangely like her brother could look," and so on; not to speak of such delightful conjunctions of the romantic and the colloquial as "I have done naught but fight since I left Germany. I am on the sick list." Apart from these special crudities, the tale is neither better nor worse than most others of the kind. It has the merit of brief descriptions and much dialogue, and a kind of go which, to be sure, goes nowhere in particular. In short, the book represents an infinitesimal achieve-

ment, and it would not be serving Miss Bowen to pretend that we find special promise in it.

Gabrielle, Transgressor. By Harris Dickson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

This is not a tale of the Latin Quarter, and the promise of its title is unfulfilled by any real naughtiness. Gabrielle, a young girl, fresh from a Louisiana convent, merely transgresses *les convenances*. At the same time the author is at pains to achieve one situation which would, we suppose, be called "piquant," and another which faintly approaches actual impropriety. For the rest, this is a romance involving elements sufficiently improbable to assure it a popular title of originality. Nobody has hitherto thought of casting an *ingénue* into relations at once secret, romantic, and blameless, with an heir to the Turkish throne. The means by which the hero is transported to Louisiana, in the nick of time, with all desirable accessories of Oriental luxury, shall remain a secret for all that we shall divulge. Suffice it to say that the author's treatment of the theme makes the yarn rather less absurd than might have been expected.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.—II.

One of several additions to Lippincott's Romance Series is "The Romance of Animal Arts and Crafts," compiled by H. Coupin and John Lea, English scholars, who give an interesting account of the various industries of wild life, told in the plain way that children like. For the same series Archibald Williams has compiled "The Romance of Early Exploration," following his earlier stories of modern explorers. The present book brings exploration down to A. D. 1600 beginning with its infancy 200 years before Herodotus. Pictures and maps add desirability to the book. The writer's own manner is one of manly straightforwardness, as free from dullness as from misplaced embellishment. The same firm publishes "Adventures on the Great Rivers," by Richard Stead, in which figure a long line of heroes from the Abbé Huc down to the miners who rushed to Klondyke—a chronicle irresistible to any boy with a soul for wild adventure and wilder beasts. In the Heroes of American History (Harper & Bros.) are two books by Frederick A. Ober, "Ferdinand de Soto and the Invasion of Florida" and "Vasco Nuñez de Balboa." Both of these popular lives, though interesting to adults, are sure to prove attractive to boys and girls who are old enough to read history intelligently. Mr. Ober, who has travelled extensively in the West Indies, as well as in Central and South America, is qualified to present an entertaining narrative of the adventures and achievements of the early explorers.

Passing from true to fictitious adventure we have from the John C. Winston Co. "Lost in the Forbidden Land," by Edward S. Ellis. This is one of three volumes by the same writer constituting a Foreign Adventure Series, and it carries the reader to South America on the wings of marvellous escapes from savages and serpents, accomplished by two Americans, with the aid of a trusty Alabama negro, opportunely found in involuntary residence with a tribe

of Paraguayan Indians. "Dale and Fraser, Sheepmen," a tale of sheep raising in Colorado, by Sidford F. Hamp (W. A. Wilde Co.), adds to ranching experiences a story of hidden treasure. "Signal Lights," by Louisc M. Hopkins (C. M. Clark Publishing Co.), tells of frays with the Indians on the Western plains in the years immediately preceding the civil war, with a lad of eighteen as a prominent figure. G. Manville Fenn's "Tention!" (W. & R. Chambers) is a story of boy life during the Peninsular war, when a youthful private and a more youthful bugler, separated from their regiment by the chances of war, acquire vast experience in perils, rescues, brave endurance, and gallant actions. "The Young Rangers," by Everett T. Tomlinson (W. A. Wilde Co.), belongs to the author's Colonial Series, and is a story of the conquest of Canada, dealing with "prowling redmen and marauding Frenchmen," offset by eccentric and other Americans.

In "Heroes Every Child Should Know," one of Hamilton W. Mabie's well-known series (Doubleday, Page & Co.), the editor takes from the best sources accounts of some twenty heroes, ranging from Perseus to Father Damien. T. Y. Crowell issues two meritorious little volumes, one by H. L. Havell, "Tales from Herodotus," a particularly desirable sort of preparation for children's nourishment, and "Stories from Scottish History," this being a selection with only slight rearrangement, and with disarming apology, by Madalen G. Edgar, from Scott's "Tales of a Grandfather," bringing them into an encouraging compass for to-day's children. A little book called "Great Names and Nations," by Harmon B. Niver (George S. Hulbert & Co.), is for very small readers' profit, whisking them cheerfully through the infancy of the old nations of earth, history and biography being carefully given their due proportions.

George P. Upton translates from German sources (A. C. McClurg & Co.) "Life Stories for Young People," which rather clumsy name is worn by a pleasantly illustrated series, one convenient little volume for each of the subjects, which are William of Orange, the Maid of Orleans, Gudrun, the Nibelungs, with others. McClurg ministers further to the young by the series called Old Tales Retold for Young Readers, a good example being the "Canterbury Tales," rewritten in a simple prose, which yet preserves much of the Chaucerian phrase and rhythm. The skilful reteller is Calvin Dill Wilson, who has dealt similarly with the "Faery Queen." Another series worthy of attention is the Children's Heroes Series, edited by John Lang and published by Dutton. A good instance is the story of Sir Walter Raleigh by Margaret Duncan Kelly, with colored pictures by T. H. Robinson. The volume fits itself ingratiatingly into a small hand. Another noteworthy volume in the same series is "The Story of Joan of Arc" by Andrew Lang. In his novel, "The Monk of Fife," he dealt with the same period, and now he relates the life of the wonderful maid simply and well for children. It is a subject to inspire any writer; and it is well fitted to Mr. Lang's hand.

High among fairy books must be placed Andrew Lang's annual offering—this time "The Orange Fairy Book" (Longmans, Green, & Co.). This volume contains sto-

ries from the natives of Rhodesia, Uganda, the Punjab, Jutland, and various other sources. Some of them, indeed, have been edited from the pages of the *Journal of the Anthropological Institute*. The illustrations, both in color and in black and white, by H. J. Ford are excellent.

"The Russian Grandmother's Wonder Tales," by Louise Seymour Houghton (Charles Scribner's Sons), will, as she suggests, be found reminiscent of Uncle Remus and of Oriental fairy stories, besides carrying touches of Russian folk-lore and the Slavonian background which the little boy and grandmother supply. Lippincott publishes a fairy-story book, "Bluebell and the Sleepy King," by Aubrey Hopwood and Seymour Hicks, telling the amusing adventures of a little girl nurtured on fairy tales and on "Alice in Wonderland." Maud Ballington Booth's "Twilight Fairy Tales" (G. P. Putnam's Sons) tells of a little boy who found the magic land of "Maybe" the more readily for faithfulness in the land of "Is," and so lived cheek by jowl with fairies when he had behaved himself properly. Clifton Johnson's "Birch Tree Fairy Book" (Little, Brown & Co.) is an anthology of many old favorites changed only so far as to contain modified gore and mitigated stepmothers. The Century Company issues "Fairy Tales Retold from Saint Nicholas," sixteen in number, old and new, prose and verse. Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett's two little child-size volumes, "Queen Silver-Bell" and "Racketty-Packetty House" (Century Co.) are full of fairies, dolls, humor, and merry little pictures. The Scribners publish in a beautiful new edition "The Queen's Museum and Other Fanciful Tales" of Frank Stockton's creation. The collection includes "The Griffin and the Minor Canon," with other immortals.

The Scribners also publish two new Beard books; one, "The Field and Forest Handy-Book," by D. C. Beard, a guide for boys' activities in making equipment for each season's out-of-door pursuits, from spring kites to winter bob-sleds and snow statues, with log houses and fire engines, and all the comforts of the changing year. The other, "Things Worth Doing, and How to Do Them," by Lina and Adelia B. Beard, the authors' fourth book for girls, gives directions for a great variety of useful and amusing objects and occupations. How to find the principal constellations, and how to inaugurate a circus in the nursery, are but two of the feet by which to judge this Hercules. Everything is described and illustrated with the utmost care and clearness.

"Why the Robin's Breast is Red," by Emma Gellibrand (Fleming H. Revell), is a thin volume, but a stout exemplification of that antropomorphism which is the besetting sin of nature books, and particularly bird books. Here is Jenny Wren deserted by Bull Finch, and dying of love for Robin Redbreast, like any Camille. Douglas English, in a second edition of "Wee Tim'rous Beasties" (S. H. Bousfield & Co.), humanizes his creatures to some extent, but as a naturalist and not a novelist, adding a wealth of the photographic illustrations which are his specialty.

The Frederick A. Stokes Company publishes "The Wild Flower Book for Young

People," by Alice Lounsberry, a happy combination of story and botany, illustrated. Margaret Coulson Walker's "Lady Hollyhock and Her Friends" (the Baker & Taylor Co.) is full of delightful illustrated hints for making dolls and other humans out of flowers and vegetables.

Books about children for grown-ups are "The Very Small Person," by Annie Hamilton Donnell (Harper & Bros.), a volume full of misunderstood children with anarchistic feelings, yet warranted to bring tears; Mrs. Henry De La Pasture's "A Toy Tragedy" (E. P. Dutton & Co.); "Dearlove," by Frances Campbell (Dutton), a tale of a vacation carnival of make-believe; and "Polly and the Aunt," by M. E. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), a child-biography as distinguished and as healthy as childhood itself. "The Hill-top Girl," by L. T. Meade (J. B. Lippincott Co.) is a magnified non-natural picture of girls and their guardians.

Good straightaway stories for the plain citizens of girl-land, are "A Borrowed Sister," by Eliza Orne White (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), and Carolyn Wells's "Dorrance Doings" (W. A. Wilde Co.). "Merrylips," by Beulah Marie Dix (Macmillan Co.), is of the adventurous order, made semi-historic by putting the little heroine with her boy's disguise into the thick of Cavalier and Roundhead troubles. "The Wisbone Boat," by Alice C. D. Riley (H. M. Caldwell Co.), if it does not wholly suggest "Alice in Wonderland," was obviously suggested by it. There was probably a point, however, at which the frog who tried to emulate the ox was amusing, and this wonder-book is not without cleverness. Charles J. Bellamy in "The Wonder Children" (Macmillan Co.) blends fairies and boys in a group of stories admonitory but readable. Julia A. Schwartz's "Elinor's College Career" (Little, Brown & Co.) is more really a college story and less a dwarf novel than usual. From the same firm comes "A Sheaf of Stories," by Susan Coolidge, full of the habitual good sense and good English of that lamented writer. "The Airship Dragonfly," by William John Hopkins (Doubleday, Page & Co.), dwells in dizzy heights, its aerial soarings equalled only by the wiles of the smuggler and the beneficent arts and crafts of its highly endowed youngsters.

The fifth edition of John Denison Champlin's "Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Persons and Places" (Henry Holt & Co.) will be welcomed by all boys and girls of alert, inquiring mind. This edition has been brought down to May of the present year. Among the events recorded are the Russo-Japanese war, the establishment of Norway as an independent kingdom, the Baltimore fire, the eruption of Vesuvius in 1906, and the destruction of San Francisco. Among the new persons to whom space is given are Oyama, Togo, Kuropatkin, Rojestvensky, and the new Pope, Pius X.

NOTES FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

"Where are the book shops of old time?" sang Austin Dobson. Thomas Gosden, publisher, bookseller, engraver, bookbinder, fisherman, and sportsman, who did business at "The Sportsman's Repository," is introduced to bibliophiles of to-day by William

Loring Andrews in his book just issued from the Gillis Press—an edition limited to 125 copies on Van Gelder paper and 32 copies on Japan paper. Gosden, 1780-1840, has been known as an engraver of prints, mostly sporting subjects, or as a binder of angling books. Mr. Andrews has reproduced his eight-page "Catalogue of Engravings and Books on Angling and Field Sports," issued in 1825, which shows the character of his business. As a publisher Gosden is best known by his reprint of Zouch's "Life of Walton," and by the ninth Hawkins edition of Walton's "Angler." Each of these contains a prefatory "advertisement" by him. Though Gosden made the designs of all his bindings, and no doubt cut his own tools and stamps, Mr. Andrews has not found evidence that he actually did binding with his own hands. Specimens of his stamped or stamped and tooled bindings occasionally turn up in the market. They are always decorated with angling or sporting subjects. Besides the handsome title-page, engraved by Sidney L. Smith, the volume contains sixteen fine reproductions in photogravure of prints, bindings, etc., executed by Gosden.

Harvard University Library has recently acquired a complete set of the rare original folio issue of *Spectator*. The first number appeared on March 1, 1711; the last, No. 555, December 6, 1712. The periodical was, however, revived on June 18, 1714, when No. 556 appeared. Eighty additional issues were issued; the last was numbered 636, though it was actually 635, for No. 607 was skipped. A few additional copies of two different periodicals with the title the *Spectator* were published in 1716, but with these Addison had no connection. One series began on January 3, 1716, and continued for at least nineteen issues, No. 19 being dated March 11. These nineteen numbers are also in the Harvard library. Another series began in June, 1716, of which Nos. 2 to 8 are included in the set recently acquired by that library. Nos. 2 and 3 are marked "given gratis"; the later numbers are priced at three half-pence. The Harvard set was formerly Malone's, and has a few manuscript notes by him. When sold at Sotheby's in 1901, it brought the ridiculously low price of £7. It has since been rebound by Riviere, and Harvard paid \$500 for it. The set is not unique. Robert Hoe of this city has a fine complete set, 635 numbers, entirely untrimmed.

On Monday, December 17, the Anderson Auction Company of this city offers a collection of books gathered from various sources. The series, illustrated by Cruikshank, is unusual, including some of the most sought-for pieces. Most notable, perhaps, is the first edition of both series of Grimm's Tales, 1823-1826. The first editions of Dickens include two sets of "Oliver Twist," 1838, both being the first issue with title reading "By Boz"; two sets of the "Memoirs of Grimaldi," two volumes, 1838, both having the last plate in the earliest state; and "Master Humphrey's Clock," 1840-1841, in the original eighty-eight weekly parts. The two most valuable volumes in the sale are no doubt Keats's "Poems," 1817, and "Lamia, Isabella, the Eve of St. Agnes, and Other Poems," 1820, both in the original boards, uncut, and each having verses in Keats's auto-

graph inserted. They were formerly Frederick Locker's copies, and each contains notes in his autograph as well as his book-plate. Among other items of Americana are: Mackenzie's "Voyages," 1801; and Heriot's "History of Canada," 1804, boards, uncut. There are a few volumes of early poetry and plays, including Thomas Carew's "Poems," 1640; Massinger's "The Picture," 1630; and three plays by Shirley, "The Duke's Mistress," 1638, "The Maides Revenge," 1639, and "Arcadia," 1640. A few good autograph letters and documents are included: a letter, signed, of Washington, written from West Point, July 22, 1779, giving an account of the battle of Stony Point; an autograph letter, signed, of Lincoln, written December 17, 1863, to Thurlow Weed; and several letters of Emerson.

The sale of the fourth part of the library of Wilberforce Eames, which begins at the rooms of the Anderson Auction Co. in this city to-day, is continued to-morrow afternoon and evening. Among the items offered to-morrow are catalogues of many important old-time sales, as: Heber, 77 days' sale, 1834-1836; Hibbert, 42 days' sale, 1829; Libri, 1847-1868, and Tite, 1874.

On December 14 and 15, Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge offer at auction in London a collection of books and manuscripts, including the library and correspondence of Charles Lever, sold by order of his grandson. Some of the books contain Lever's autograph; a collection of his novels in eleven volumes has an especially interesting inscription, having been given by him to his wife, and on her death to his daughter Julia. The manuscripts include 310 letters by Lever himself to his wife and daughter, and letters from Dickens, Thackeray, Carlyle, Macaulay, Lover, Trollope, and others, written to Lever. Among the other properties are seven out of the nine Shakspeare quartos which A. W. Pollard's investigations led him to believe were bound up as remainders by some bookseller, perhaps shortly before the appearance of the first folio. These are "A Midsommer Night's Dreame," Roberts, 1600; "The Merchant of Venice," Roberts, 1600; "King Lear," Nathaniel Butter, 1608; "The Whole Contention Betweene the Two Famous Houses Lancaster and Yorke" [1619]; "Pericles," 1619; and the two spurious plays, "Sir John Oldcastle," 1600, and "A Yorkshire Tragedie," 1619. The last four were printed for Thomas Pavier, the imprint reading "for T. P." There is a copy of "The Two Noble Kinsmen," first edition, 1634, according to the title, by Fletcher and Shakspeare; and a copy of "A Pleasant Comedie of Fair Em, the Miller's Daughter," first edition, 1631, which has been ascribed to Shakspeare. There are also copies of the second and fourth folios, the former having the leaf of verses in facsimile. There are ten out of the twelve drawings made by William Blake to illustrate "Paradise Lost"; and an old folio scrapbook, containing a large number of original sketches, engravings, trial proofs, etc., by Blake. The Keats material, sold by a descendant of John Taylor of the firm of Taylor & Hessey, Keats's publishers, is also of unusual interest. There is a portrait in sepia on a piece of cardboard 5 1-16 by 3 1/2 inches, with this inscription in Severn's autograph at the bottom: "28 Jany.

3 o'clock mornig. drawn to keep me awake, a deadly sweat was on him all this night." Another portrait, a pencil drawing, by William Hilton, apparently unpublished, shows Keats seated at a table, his chin resting on his left hand. The lot includes also a lock of Keats's hair, with endorsement by Richard Woodhouse; and a "testamentary Paper" being a sort of will written by Keats when he was just about to start on a voyage to Naples.

At the auction of the Duke of Sutherland's Trentham Hall Library, by Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge, in London during the latter part of November, the following high prices were realized: Æsop, with German woodcuts, 1501, £25; "Breviarum de Camera secundum Usum Romanum," 1494, £29 10s.; Coryat's "Crudivities," 1611, £36 10s.; Erasmus's New Testament in Greek and Latin, first five editions, 1516-1535, £39 10s.; Froissart's "Chronicles," Pynson, 1523-1525, £30; Gower's "De Confessione Amantis," 1554, £35; Higden's "Polychronicon," 1527, £29 10s.; Ben Jonson's copy of Martial, with autograph and manuscript notes. £100; Le Roy's "Les Politiques d'Aristote," 1576-1579, dedication copy to Henry III. of France and Poland, bound by Clovis Eve, £660; Melanchthon's copy of Homer's "Odyssey," 1525, £26 10s.; English manuscript Psalter, fourteenth century, illuminated, £325; Earl of Pembroke's "Poems," 1660, £20; third folio of Shakspeare, 1664, £390.

Three of Shelley's note books, which had been given by Sir Percy and Lady Shelley to the late Richard Garnett, were the most valuable items in Dr. Garnett's library which was dispersed at auction by Sotheby's on December 6. They brought, according to cabled report, £3,000, and were bought, it is said, for an American. Shelley's earliest drafts of his verses, such as those which fill the pages of these note books, were crudely written, in great haste, and sometimes hardly decipherable. Trelawney thus described a similar first draft of a poem:

It was a frightful scrawl; words smeared out with his finger, and one upon the other over and over in tiers, and all run together in most "admired disorder." It might have been taken for a sketch of a marsh overgrown with bulrushes, and the blots for wild ducks; such a dashed-off daub as self-conceited artists mistake for a manifestation of genius.

William Michael Rossetti prepared a list of the contents of Dr. Garnett's three note books, indicating those pieces which are apparently unpublished. Among the poems of which early drafts appear are the following: "Ode to the West Wind," written in faint pencil across another poem, three lines in ink, may possibly be complete; the latter portion of "The Sensitive Plant"; "To Night"; "The Masque of Anarchy," nearly, possibly quite, complete; "Good Night"; "A Lament," etc. Among the prose pieces are: the Preface to "The Centi," part of the Preface to "Julian and Maddalo," and part of the Preface to "Prometheus Unbound." The unpublished pieces, while numerous, seem to be short and fragmentary.

At the auction of the library of Gov. Samuel W. Pennypacker, held by Stan. V. Henkels at Philadelphia last week, one of the most important items was the first printed laws of the colony of Penn-

sylvania, printed by Andrew Bradford, 1714. Bound in this copy were four rare Session Laws, 1715-1719, one at least of which is said to be unique. The volume brought \$725. The second printed Pennsylvania laws, 1723, brought \$85. A collection of the Session Laws of Pennsylvania, 1776-1781, printed by John Dunlap, eighteen pieces in one volume, brought \$150. Several of the German and Swedish books reached good prices. Hesselio's "Kort Berettelse," 1725, brought \$110; Böhm's "Getreuer Warnungs Brief," 1742, \$102; "Missive van William Penn," 1684, \$55; Peun's "Further Account of the Province of Pennsylvania," 1685, \$90, a very low price; "A Letter to Mr. Penn, With His Answer," 1688, of which three editions were printed in one year, \$62.50. Holme's "Mapp of ye improved Part of Pennsylvania," 1690, the first engraved map of the region, was bought by the Pennsylvania State Library for \$200—another low price.

An exhibition of fine bindings will be open until December 24 at the book shop of E. D. North, No. 4 East Thirty-ninth Street, in this city. The collection is composed largely of examples of the work of nineteenth-century binders of France, England, and America. There are also examples by earlier binders, and some of the older works bear the coats of arms of famous owners, such as Madame de Pompadour, Louis XIV., Louis XV., and Charles II.

Edwin Davis French, an American designer of book-plates, with an international reputation, died in this city on Saturday. He was born in 1851 and studied at the Art Students' League—of which he was president later, from 1889 to 1891. His friend, Samuel P. Avery, induced him to try his hand at book-plates in 1894, and five years later his work was in such high repute that it was made the subject of a special catalogue. The collection of his plates made by Mr. Avery is now in the New York Public Library. Mr. French sought and secured a wide range of decorative effects in clear line. The product of his twelve years of book-plate drawing was between two and three hundred designs.

Dreamthorp: A Book of Essays Written in the Country. By Alexander Smith. With a biographical and critical introduction by John Hoghen. New York: Mitchell Kennerley. \$1 net.

Half a century has passed since the critics were quarrelling over the writings of Alexander Smith, and his very name is almost forgotten except by professed students of literature. His poetry—"A Life-Drama," "City Poems," and "Edwin of Deira"—was the hone of contention; and the question was whether he was an author of original power or a mere imitator of Tennyson and others of his betters. He was one of the victims of Prof. W. E. Aytoun's "Firmilian, a Spasmodic Tragedy." His output of verse was small, for he died at the age of thirty-seven; but posterity has reached the decision that some, at least, of his work is the product of genuine inspiration. His two novels, "Alfred Hagart's Household" and "Miss Oona McQuarrie," contain interesting sketches of Scottish life, but they are not likely to be reprinted. His prose essays, however, are of more enduring stuff.

"Dreamthorp," published in 1863, is now deservedly revived in a new edition.

Admirers of Stevenson's essays have often remarked the likeness between Stevenson and Hazlitt. Indeed, the younger writer has freely admitted his debt to the elder. In telling how he learned to write, he confesses that he "played the sedulous ape to Hazlitt." To Hazlitt and also, we think, to Alexander Smith. There are, as critics have already noted, many points of resemblance; and Stevenson's "Apology for Idlers" is little more than Smith's "On Vagabonds" brought up to date. Yet the resemblances may be chiefly due to the fact that both Smith and Stevenson derive from Hazlitt, the great master of the discursive essay. The art of writing in this fashion seems to be lost. Lamb was an adept; Thackeray could sometimes do it, as in "Roundabout Papers." But who are their successors? We might mention Andrew Lang, Augustine Birrell, Austen Dobson, Gilbert K. Chesterton, and in this country Agnes Repplier. But these essayists, however excellent their intentions, are all victims of modern journalism. The reader of to-day, who takes his literary quick lunch in snatches, and the editor who caters to him, demand that the essay shall be short and direct. There is no time for loitering by the way, however alluring the outlook; no time for amusing divagations and flights of fancy.

Alexander Smith belongs to the older and more leisurely school. He holds that an essayist is "a chartered libertine and a law unto himself." He stops to describe the scenery, and charming scenery it is. He shows us Dreamthorp, "fallen asleep in the afternoon sunshine:"

Dreamthorp—a castle, a chapel, a lake, a straggling strip of gray houses, with a blue film of smoke over all—lies emhosed in emerald. Summer, with its daisies, runs up to every cottage door. From the little height where I am now sitting I see it beneath me. Nothing could be more peaceful. The wind and the birds fly over it. A passing sunbeam makes brilliant a white gable-end. . . . On the walls of the next Academy's exhibition will hang nothing half so beautiful.

He is never in too much of a hurry to sketch a character or moralize his tale. Yet in spite of this appearance of sauntering he moves surely toward his goal. His whimsicalities converge upon his thesis; beneath all his apparent digressions is an underlying principle.

He ranges through a wide variety of topics, but the idea to which he recurs most often is that death waits at our elbow. Perhaps this turn of melancholy was due to a secret warning that in his own case, at least, the inevitable end could not be long delayed. He touches upon death with humor, with delicate irony, and again with fine gravity. In "A Lark's Flight" he treats of the death of malefactors on the scaffold in a descriptive passage of extraordinary power. He hurls with "unappeasable curiosity" to "wrest from the death of the criminal information as to the great secret in which each is profoundly interested." Yet he is driven back from the quest, baffled. His search, after all, has carried him no further into the great enigma than a child of ten can penetrate. Death may not, he concludes, "be so difficult, may not be so terrible, as our fears whisper. The dead keep their

secrets, and in a little while we shall be as wise as they—and as taciturn."

Americans of the bygone generation had an opportunity to read "Dreamthorp" in the reprint published in Boston in 1864. Those fortunate oldsters will be glad to greet a former acquaintance in this excellent new edition, with its competent introduction by John Hoghen. Those who are not familiar with Alexander Smith's prose, with its happy turns and occasionally daring tropes may put down the book as worth buying and reading.

Among Country Schools. By O. J. Keru. Boston: Ginn and Company. \$1.25.

In refreshingly vigorous, unconventional style Mr. Kern, superintendent of schools in Winnebago County, Illinois, sets forth the movements on foot in the Middle West for the improvement of country schools. These movements include the erection of attractive buildings, the improvement of school grounds by landscape gardening, the establishment of school gardens, the decoration of class rooms, travelling art exhibits, permanent and travelling libraries, better-trained teachers, and better programmes of study. A striking feature is the increased attention to scientific agriculture. This is one important phase of the general movement to make country life more profitable and attractive, and to check the tide of emigration from country to city. Most striking of all is the growing tendency to consolidate the small scattered schools of each township into a single well-graded school, centrally located, with daily transportation of pupils from and to their homes at public expense.

Any one who desires information as to the ways and means, and the actual results of experience in carrying out these reforms, or a good discussion of the financial problems involved, will do well to read this book. Here is a county superintendent with ideas, the courage of his convictions, and the ability to persuade taxpayers to look at the matter from his point of view. "There is no halo coming" to the men who bring about these reforms, says Superintendent Kern. He is quite right. The shame is that more men in his position are not awake to their duty and their opportunity.

Drama.

Molière. A Biography. By H. C. Chatfield-Taylor. With an introduction by T. F. Crane. New York: Duffield & Co. \$3 net.

If Sainte-Beuve was right when he said that every man who knows how to read "makes one more reader for Molière," his saying is likely to become as true for the English-speaking world as it has been for the French. While Corneille, Racine, and La Fontaine do not appear to command much interest nowadays among American and English readers, Molière, on the contrary, is the object of a revival as enthusiastic as it is general, to which sundry manifestations of recent date, on both sides of the ocean, bear unmistakable testimony.

The latest evidence of this ever-present interest in the most modern of French seventeenth-century dramatists is the appear-

ance of this new biography by an American writer. It is to satisfy the curiosity of the layman, the general reader who wants to know Molière, and yet cannot read French, that Mr. Chatfield-Taylor has obviously written this handsomely illustrated and beautifully printed book. Therefore we have no right to complain of not finding in this biography developments or discussions that the very title forbids us to expect; no generalities on the French comedy before Molière, no attempt to show the influence of Molière's art at home and abroad, not a word about the deficiencies of his style—that famous bone of contention among French critics from La Bruyère down to Edmond Scherer.

On the other hand we find a good, readable, and reliable story of his life, his career, and his plays; a true and often brilliant sketch of the dramatic, the literary, and the court life of the time; a clear and not too monotonous analysis of the best comedies; and all this is written in an easy and chatty style by a man of the world who speaks to men of the world, interspersing his recital with philosophical remarks, comparisons with things as they are now, *obiter dicta* from friends known and unknown, pleasantries on the delicate urbanity of the Parisian hackmen. But this conversationalist is not a superficial and hastily informed writer. He has spared neither time nor trouble to place before his reader an accurate and up-to-date likeness of his hero. He has read all that was essential to the subject, gone to the sources, visited the landmarks, examined the documents, weighed the arguments, sifted the evidence on all contested points, and finally formed a personal opinion which he submits candidly, without disguising a strong preference for a good anecdote and picturesque story, even when they are not substantiated by irrefutable authorities. His chapter on *Tartuffe* contains, if we dare use a kind of language that he does not seem to be afraid of, "a scoop" on the recent rival biographers of Molière, by giving the latest interpretation of *Tartuffe's* identity, as explained by Raoul Allier in his "*Cabale des Dévots*."

The book presents an authentic and, as far as possible, exhaustive story of the great comedian's life, divided into its three well-defined periods; from 1622 to 1643, his youth and early education as a scion of a well-to-do middle-class Parisian family; from 1643 to 1658, his "barnstorming" career through the provinces, with its various incidents, told by local police records; finally, from 1658 to 1673, his return to Paris, his fifteen years of literary activity, histrionic successes, and managerial responsibility. The deadly strain of this last period told on his weakened health, and cut off this scoffer at medicine at the age of fifty-one—from twenty to thirty years before all the great writers of his generation. When we remember that we have not ten lines of Molière's handwriting, that for his early career we have to rely on a biography written in 1705, thirty-five years after his death, that his family relations have been obscured by anonymous slanders as difficult to refute as to believe, and that his whole biography is built on scraps of evidence gathered from provincial records, legal papers,

deeds, entries on birth and death registers, bits of gossip scattered through the correspondence of contemporaries and pamphlets of enemies, it is indeed remarkable that such a continuous and, as a whole, satisfactory account should be written.

Mr. Chatfield-Taylor distributes his story over eighteen chapters, in which the chronological order is respected to the extent of placing together under one strangely chosen title, productions as different as "*Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*," "*L'Avare*," and "*George Dandin*," and separating in chapters widely apart such plays as "*Les Précieuses Ridicules*" and "*Les Femmes Savantes*." Elsewhere, fortunately, the author was less afraid of taking liberties with chronology. To that inconsistency we owe some excellent chapters such as that on Molière and the Physicians. The work of a biographer must be one of condensation and arrangement. If there was more of both, we might perhaps have had of Molière as a man and of the general aim of his work as a censor of society a more vivid and consistent idea. The chronology and bibliography at the end of the book are most helpful, although the latter leaves out books that touch on the literary side of Molière, and therefore does not pretend to be exhaustive. Professor Crane fittingly introduces the subject, and nobody could do it with more authority than the author of two scholarly books on that same period.

Slips are comparatively few in this book of 446 pages. On page 90 Renaudot is meant, not Renoudot; on 392 the word *ainsi* must be supplied in the first line of Cléante's speech. The extracts from the plays are judiciously chosen and felicitously translated.

"On the Safeguarding of Life in Theatres" is a reprint, with elaborations, of an address delivered last winter before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers by the president, John R. Freeman. It contains much matter of vital importance to the public in general and to all public officers responsible for precautions against fire in places of entertainment. It is a scientific treatise by an expert, and its statements are amply fortified by facts, figures, and illustrations. Some of these are exceedingly disquieting. Like other qualified students of the subject, Mr. Freeman holds and practically demonstrates that the great safeguards against the recurrence of such calamities as that of the Iroquois Theatre, in Chicago, are ample, automatic smoke vents over the stage, a plentiful supply of automatic sprinklers, and ready means of exit. Most important of all are the smoke vents, which, according to the building law in this city, must, in combined area, be equal to one-eighth of the area of the stage. In nearly all the most fatal theatre fires in this country and in Europe, the loss of life has been due mainly to the asphyxiating smoke and gases pouring into the auditorium through the proscenium arch. Yet Mr. Freeman maintains that in only a small percentage of even the newest theatres in this country are these smoke vents sufficiently large or so arranged as to be instantly serviceable. In many cases, he says, they are covered by wire screens, which in case of fire would be almost instantly choked by char-

red fragments, thus stopping the up-draught in which the sole salvation of the audience would lie. In other cases the machinery for the automatic opening of the vents is altogether inadequate. Moreover, Mr. Freeman seems to prove that there is the smallest justification for the faith that is often put in the efficacy of the so-called asbestos curtain. Further, he maintains that no "fireproofing" substance is of much account where there is a considerable body of flame. But this is rather beside the point. The object of the fireproofing, as it is called, is to prevent a fire from beginning, and for this purpose it is undoubtedly efficacious, as was clearly shown by the experiments of Lester Wallack and Dion Boucicault thirty years ago, to which Mr. Freeman alludes, and of which the writer of this paragraph was an eye-witness. But Mr. Freeman's paper is worthy of serious attention on the part of all fire and building authorities.

The Dramatic Revival Society, of which F. R. Benson, J. T. Grein, G. H. Burrows, and W. T. Stead are the moving spirits, seems to be making solid progress in England. It has found support in powerful quarters, and now issues a proclamation, of which the following is the main part:

The first object of this society is to facilitate and encourage amateur dramatic representations throughout the country, especially in villages by the villagers themselves, in schools by the scholars, for purposes of education and recreation. The extraordinary potency of the dramatic method as an instrument of elementary education has been such a revelation to some of us that we may paraphrase Wagner's well-known saying and declare that in the drama there lies the spiritual seed and kernel of all poetic and national ethical culture. Our elementary schools will never truly succeed in stimulating the sluggish mind of our youth until the drama's all-powerful assistance has been completely recognized and guaranteed. The society has established a central office where the experience of each may be rendered available for the service of all and has secured in many counties a representative who will organize local committees. . . . In this way it is hoped that the society will be able to do much—(a) to give a new stimulus to the methods of elementary education; (b) to provide instructive and intellectual recreation for rural districts; (c) to popularize among the British people the dramatic masterpieces of all times and countries; (d) to assist in the revival and production of pageants, mysteries, moralities, lyrical, and poetical plays; and (e) to encourage dramatic experiments of untried authors.

W. B. Yeats's new poetic play of "*Deirdre*," given in the Abbey Theatre, Dublin, is reported a great success. The plot is taken from the concluding scene of the famous story of Naisi and Deirdre, in which the lovers are decoyed and slain by King Conchobar. Miss Derragh played the emotional part of Deirdre with fine effect.

Music.

TWO OPERATIC NOVELTIES.

At the Metropolitan Opera House Heinrich Conried produced two of his promised novelties in the second week of his season. Concerning the first of these novelties, Giordano's "*Fedora*," little need be said. It is far from being a masterpiece, and it was obviously produced chiefly in order to give

Lina Cavalleri a chance to make her début in America in a "prima donna opera"—a work providing an opportunity to show that she has rare personal beauty, and that she is at the same time a good vocalist and a better actress. Giordano's work is, like so many operas of the modern Italian school, based on a popular play. Yet his powers of invention are feeble, and neither in the vocal melody nor in the orchestral score is there sufficient charm to counteract the disagreeably choppy effect of the staccato dialogue as set to music.

Far more successful was the second novelty—an operatic version by Raoul Gunsbourg of Berlioz's dramatic legend, "La Damnation de Faust." While there is reason to believe that Berlioz wrote concert music chiefly because he could not get his operas accepted, there is no record, so far as known to the writer, of his having ever thought of his "Faust" in connection with the theatre. He failed even in his efforts to acclimate it in Paris as a concert piece. The first attempt, in 1846, landed him in debt, and up to the year of his death, 1869, the Parisians heard nothing of this score but an occasional fragment. The composer never dreamt that his greatest work would one day become popular in the concert hall, and still less that it would be acted on the stage with sumptuous scenic background. Nothing more charming than the aerial ballet which accompanies and illustrates the fairy waltz of the third act has been seen in any theatre that makes a specialty of scenic effects. The march of the Hungarian army to the inspiring strains of the Rakoczy march is another impressive scene; still another, the student carousal in Auerbach's cellar, in which Mr. Corried's forces set a new standard of choral singing by their superb rendering of the fugue. While Goethe saves Faust in the end, Berlioz, with his unique love of the horrible, could not forego the pleasure of sending him to hell; so the audience witnesses an infernal panoramic phantasmagoria of monstrosities and diabolical tortures that might have been painted by Doré. Berlioz's Faust also differs from Goethe's in that he makes the pact with the devil not to gain pleasure but to save Marguerite. The vocal parts were well rendered by Geraldine Farrar, Rousselière, Chalmin, and Plançon.

The Music of To-morrow and Other Studies.
By Lawrence Gilman. New York: The John Lane Co.

The Romantic Composers. By Daniel Gregory Mason. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.75 net.

While many magazine editors have come to the conclusion that the reading public does not want essays, the publishers of books, especially of books on musical topics, are sending forth numerous volumes of essays. One such collection, Hubert Parry's "Studies of Great Composers," has passed through eight editions. Parrys, to be sure, do not grow on every tree; but we have musical writers worth reading on this side of the ocean, too. One of these is Lawrence Gilman, whose "Phases of Modern Music" and "Edward MacDowell" are promptly followed by a third little volume of 144 pages. Mr. Gilman is nothing if not modern. Himself an incipient composer, he studies eagerly the latest—the very latest—mani-

festations of musical genius or talent, and makes his readers share his interest, with the aid of an imaginative style and abundant knowledge. It is a little startling—but also comforting—to find this former champion of Richard Strauss declaring that "even the flagrant modernity of Strauss is become—if one may venture to whisper it—a little out-moded, a little *vieux jeu*"; and that "if the 'Domestica' proved an exasperation and a disappointment, 'Salome,' the latest product of Straussian intelligence, has almost the character of an affliction." One of Mr. Gilman's present idols (who may be bowled over, too, later on) is Claude Debussy, of Paris, the man with a "sincere passion for the esoteric." We get from these pages a luminous idea of modern French ideals, on which further light is thrown in a chapter on Vincent d'Indy. Under the head of "Modern Music" Mr. Gilman tries to prove, with perhaps more ingenuity than success, that in the representative music of to-day the "love interest" has come to occupy a subordinate position. Admirers of Wagner will read with great interest what Mr. Gilman has to say on "A Neglected Page" of that composer—the remarkable changes made by him in the Paris version of "Tannhäuser."

Of the seven essays contained in Mr. Mason's book, the one on Chopin is by far the best. It is written with sympathy, based on close familiarity, and gives an excellent idea of the great Pole's revolutionary and uniquely original achievements; yet at the end the author mars it all by echoing those comic traditional critical doubts as to whether Chopin is a fixed star "of the first magnitude," "a giant like Bach, or Mozart, or Handel, or Beethoven," which have been a standing joke in musical circles for several decades. If Chopin has done all those wonderful things, he is certainly as great as any musical Teuton. Very Teutonic is Mr. Mason's estimate of the Hungarian Liszt—or, rather, his estimate is that which used to prevail in Germany, but is now being radically modified, as can be seen in the writings of Riemann, Breithaupt, Leopold Schmidt, and many others, who are beginning to see how well founded was and is the enthusiasm for Liszt shown by Wagner, Bülow, Saint-Saëns, Dvorák, Grieg, MacDowell, Paderewski, D'Albert, Hans Richter, Seidl, Nikisch, and most eminent musicians of our time. Against these men, of course, the reader may accept the verdict of Daniel Gregory Mason that Liszt's methods of writing for the pianoforte are "those of barbarism," and his orchestration "radically vulgar." He may also accept his equally amazing condemnation of Schubert's greatest and most influential songs. If not, he may find compensation in the chapters on Schumann, Mendelssohn, and Berlioz, which are readable and instructive.

On German concert programmes few symphonic writers appear oftener to-day than Anton Bruckner, but in this city his music has been strangely neglected. Since Theodore Thomas produced his seventh symphony (which first established Bruckner's reputation in Europe), twenty years ago, it had not been heard here till last Thursday, when Dr. Muck conducted it at a Carnegie Hall concert of the Boston Symphony Orchestra. Dr. Muck is a Bruck-

ner specialist, and in this score he revealed a wealth of beauty and feeling. The Brucknerites of Germany have written much concerning the tragedy of Bruckner's life—the hopes deferred because of the hostility of the powerful Brahms clique, headed by Hanslick. Yet Bruckner was his own worst enemy, by his lack of moderation. He never knew when to stop; one of his symphonies lasts ninety minutes, and all of them would gain immensely by being condensed to one-half their dimensions. But even as they are, they are more interesting than the symphonic works of Brahms and Strauss; more beautiful in orchestration, deeper in feeling. Dvorák and Tchaikovsky excepted, no composer since Beethoven has written such soulful adagios as Bruckner. The seventh proves this; still more the ninth, which, it is to be hoped, Dr. Muck will also let us hear before he returns to Berlin.

Beethoven's "Pastoral Symphony," which Walter Damrosch has chosen for production by the New York Symphony Orchestra, at the fourth subscription concerts, at Carnegie Hall, next Saturday evening and Sunday afternoon, has not been played in New York during the last six years. The soloist at these concerts will be Moritz Rosenthal.

The season of German opera at London begins at Covent Garden January 17, under the management of Ernst van Dyke. Arthur Nikisch, Leopold Reichwein, and Franz Schalk will be conductors, the last-named in place of Michael Balling, who is ill. Eugène Ysaÿe will conduct performances of "Fidelio."

Charles Santley, the baritone, will celebrate his artistic jubilee next year; a movement is already on foot, with Lord Kilmorey at its head, for a suitable celebration. It is suggested that a jubilee concert should be held in May next at the Albert Hall.

Art.

The Art of the Greeks. By H. B. Walters. With 112 plates and 18 illustrations in the text. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$6.

The last few years have been particularly prolific in histories dealing with Greek sculpture, Greek architecture, Greek vase-painting, and so on. This selection of one branch of Greek art to the exclusion of all others inevitably made the results one-sided. The need was felt more and more for a work on the "art of the Greeks," giving us a complete picture of their artistic activity in every field. Only such a work could trace along many lines the achievements of the Greek genius, which remained the same whether it had marble, bronze, gold, or clay for its material.

Two years ago Mr. Walters contributed a small volume on "Greek Art," to the series of Little Books on Art, published by Methuen & Co. Its purpose was chiefly to review the history of Greek sculpture, painting, architecture, vase-painting, bronze-work, terra-cottas, gems, and coins. Considering the small size of the book, the task was carried out with wonderful suc-

cess. Brief, and more or less popular the account had to be, but it seemed to include everything essential, and, if necessarily incomplete, it was throughout suggestive. Mr. Walters's present "Art of the Greeks" is about five times the size of the former volume. We should expect, therefore, to have the subject treated much more fully, so that the reader, stimulated by the earlier book, might pass on to the new for a more thorough, less superficial understanding. But the voluminous appearance of the new work is misleading. The paper and type are excellent, but, together, they take up so much space that, in spite of bulkiness, the volume contains at most about double the number of words of the primer. Moreover, the smaller book has been incorporated word for word in the larger. Only now and then are some additional paragraphs inserted, and two new chapters have been added, one on the characteristics of Greek art, and one containing introductory remarks on Greek sculpture. "Art of the Greeks" is, in fact, scarcely more than an *édition de luxe* of the little book. As such, if nothing more is looked for, it will be welcomed by many lovers of classical culture. But those who hoped for more and perhaps expected something to take the place of what Prof. A. Michaelis has done for German readers in his volume "Das Altertum" in A. Springer's *Handbuch der Kunstgeschichte*, will be disappointed. Though no bulkier, the German book is far richer, both in matter and in illustrations. In arrangement, however, Mr. Walters's work is superior. Professor Michaelis has chosen the strictly chronological order, dividing his subject into periods and showing the advance made in the different arts during each epoch. The result is that the development and decline of each branch of art cannot be followed with the same clearness as by Mr. Walters's method.

But it is not only that from so high an authority as H. B. Walters we had a right to expect a fuller treatment of the subject; there are omissions which, even within the narrow limits he has set himself, are hardly warranted. In the second chapter, "Beginnings of Greek Art," Mr. Walters gives a short account of the discoveries made in Crete and elsewhere during the last thirty years, which have revealed a pre-Hellenic civilization of the greatest importance. He fully recognizes that Crete was "the primary centre whence this culture was diffused throughout the Eastern Mediterranean," but in enumerating sites and giving illustrations (though he names many already well-known "Mycenean" cities both on the Greek mainland and on the Ægean islands, and though he devotes a whole page to illustrating the finds of this period from Cyprus), the only excavations he mentions on the island of Crete are those by Dr. A. Evans at Knossos. At least a bare mention of the Italian site at Phaestos, excavated under Prof. F. Halbherr, was demanded. The palace unearthed there is in many respects similar to that of Knossos, but with differences that are likely to prove crucial; and the vases, wall-paintings, and inscribed tablets are of singular interest.

We must also draw attention to a slight mistake made by Mr. Walters in his description of early Cretan civilization. On

page 142 he speaks of the pottery from Thera as being now antedated "by the extensive remains of early Cretan painted pottery, remarkable for their naturalism and brilliancy of color." These, he says, "belong to the period 3000-2000 B. C.," and "are known as Kamarais, or 'Early Minoan' ware." He is here referring to Dr. Evans's classification of Cretan pottery into Early Minoan, Middle Minoan, and Late Minoan. The Kamarais ware, however, is placed by Dr. Evans in the Middle Minoan, not the Early Minoan period, which is characterized by much more primitive pottery.

Another omission requires comment. In the year 1901, Prof. A. Furtwängler was commissioned by the Bavarian Prince Regent to make an investigation of the temple of Ægina and its surroundings, which had practically been left undisturbed since 1811, when Cockerell and Haller unearthed the pedimental groups, now the chief treasures of the Glyptothek at Munich. The results of this recent campaign have been published in two large quarto volumes, which appeared early this year. Numerous fragments belonging to the pediments have enabled Professor Furtwängler to advance a new theory as to their reconstruction. Though the new arrangement cannot be regarded as final, it is certain that Thorwaldsen's restoration cannot be right. Mr. Walters almost entirely ignores the recent discoveries. After stating that the sculptures in question were unearthed in 1811 and were largely restored by Thorwaldsen, he continues: "A few additions have been made from the recent excavations, but nothing of importance." And a little later: "The arrangement of the figures in the pediments is not absolutely certain, but that adopted by Thorwaldsen has been generally adhered to." The bibliography at the beginning of the book will be found most useful. But, again, we are surprised at the extraordinary gaps. Why, for instance, is T. H. Middleton's little book on *Ancient Gems* (1891) deemed so all-sufficient that Prof. A. Furtwängler's splendid publication in three volumes, "Die Antike Gemmen" (1900), is found unworthy of notice?

Among the recent accessions to the Metropolitan Museum of Fine Arts, first shown to the public last Friday, are five architectural fragments from the Forum of Trajan, the gift of J. Pierpont Morgan; a small painting by Giovanni di Paolo, an Italian primitive, representing blessed souls received by angels in Paradise; "Madonna and Child," by Pesellino; "Madonna and Child," attributed to Pisanello; a pen drawing by Rembrandt, illustrating the scene from the "Book of Tobit," where Sara is exorcised of the devil Asmodeus through the prayer of her spouse, Tobias, over the burning fish livers; and seventeen pieces of fine Italian, French, and Belgian laces, presented by Mrs. Hamilton W. Cary.

The eleventh annual exhibition of the Water-Color Club of Washington has been opened in the Corcoran Gallery. The first Corcoran prize was awarded to "Boulevard Montparnasse," by H. Hobart Nichols; the second to "Gloucester Neck," by Sarah Sewall Monroe; and honorable mention to "The Home Field," by Robert Coleman Child, and to "A Day of Clouds," by Marlanna Sloan.

Twenty-five pictures by Childe Hassam

are on view at Montross's gallery in this city till December 26. The collection, including works old and new, in oil, water-color, and pastel, represents excellently the range of the artist's work. It confirms his place as the foremost American exponent of the methods of the French impressionist school. The "Brooklyn Bridge" is possibly the finest of all the city scenes that have come from his brush.

The publication of a new mezzotint in colors by S. Arlent-Edwards, after the painting of Miss Davenport, by George Romney, and of an etching, "Cinderella," by Herbert Dicksee, is announced by Wunderlich & Co.

The University of Pennsylvania plans to begin excavations in Northern Egypt on a scale as elaborate as in the expeditions to Nippur, Babylonia. The expedition is to be equipped by Eckley Brinton Coxe, jr.

From his great numismatic collection, Dr. F. Parkes Weber has presented 5,551 pieces to the British Museum, embracing specimens of all ages and styles. A large number of the medals are the modern work of David d'Angers, Roty, and Scharff, and others who have hitherto been unrepresented in the museum.

Science.

Space and Geometry in the Light of Physiological, Psychological, and Physical Inquiry. By Dr. Ernst Mach. From the German by Thomas J. McCormack. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co.

To appreciate this important book, one must view it in its relation to certain modern movements in mathematical thought. It will be sufficient to mention here two of these movements, namely, the logical movement and another that may be significantly called the biological. The aim of the former has been to detect and enumerate all definite notions that are indefinable, and all definite propositions that are indemonstrable, to combine these into all possible sets of compatibles, and then by purely deductive processes to determine explicitly the implicit contents of the various sets. The method has been that of postulation and inference; the interest has been, not with actuality or with truth, but exclusively with consistency, or logical coherence. The march has followed two paths—the path of the well-known mathematical rigorists, and the path of modern logic, under the leadership of Boole of England, C. S. Peirce of America, Schröder of Germany, and especially Peano of Italy; and it has been found that these paths converge in the remarkable thesis that mathematics in its ideal form is symbolic logic, and that logic in its ideal form is symbolized mathematics. The effect has been to eliminate intuition, to detach mathematics from experience, from the sensuous world, from reality. To exemplify this tendency to nominalism, it is sufficient to refer to Hilbert's "Fundamental Principles of Geometry." In its attempt to dispense with intuition, this work out-Euclids Euclid by far; points, lines, and planes being nothing but names for undefined entities (replaceable by others) that satisfy a specific set of postulates, assumptions, or axioms.

Meanwhile another movement, originating in another motive, has been going on and rapidly gaining in distinctness and force. In this the aim has been to readjoin mathematics to reality and life, not in the sense of rendering mathematics more applicable to the natural sciences, but in the sense of showing that mathematical thought, however abstract or remote, has been evolved literally and continuously in accordance with the needs of the animal organism out of the most primitive elements or feelings of physiological experience. This is why the movement may be properly called biological. The leader in this great enterprise is Professor Mach, whose "Popular Scientific Lectures" and "Science of Mechanics" have quickened and enlightened both scientific and philosophic thought throughout the western world. The book in hand ought to be read and pondered by every teacher of mathematics and by every educated parent. Physiological space, the space of touch, the space of vision, the space of audition, the space of geometry, the agreements and differences of these, feelings of motions and velocities and accelerations, the biological functions of all these things—such are among the striking themes here treated in a way scarcely less remarkable for its answers than for its questions. The Kantian philosopher will find here reason to reconsider his master's doctrine of space and time. The psychologist will gain startling glimpses of the relations of modern psychology to modern mathematics. And the mathematician of the analyst type will gain a wholesome sense of the fact that the purest offspring of his thought may trace a legitimate genealogy back and down to physical and physiological parentage. Indeed, the stream of the author's discourse contains the waters of many confluent sciences.

The translation is well-nigh perfect. And the publishers are again to be congratulated on their excellent judgment and their generosity in the service of science.

The Log of the Sun. A Chronicle of Nature's Year. By C. William Beebe, with Illustrations by Walter King Stone. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$3.50 net.

Mr. Beebe has chosen a pleasing title for this series of attractive essays, a number of which have already appeared in the *Evening Post* and other publications. While occasional repetition shows that they were not prepared especially for use in the present connection, as a rule they supplement one another admirably and, without too evident an effort at seasonableness, lead us from January to December. The habits and interrelationships of mammals, birds, reptiles, insects, some forms of sea-life, plants and trees, supply texts for the fifty-two short sketches, one for each week, which, the author tells us, are designed "to inspire enthusiasm in those whose eyes are just opening to the wild beauties of God's out-of-doors."

Few popular writers on nature have the special training required to cover properly so wide a field. Courses in biology generally lead to specialization and a self-centred existence, with a subsequent drying up of the wells of human interests beyond those which immediately concern us. Popularization of nature, therefore, has too often been left to those who are ill-

prepared for the task, with results which have led the public far from the truth in search of animals existing only in their authors' unchecked imaginations. Mr. Beebe, however, has passed through the years of his technical training without losing the freshness of his point of view. His mind responds to the varied stimuli of nature as quickly as a boy's, and with equal enthusiasm and accuracy he presents the results of his observations. We find only one false note in the present volume, and this was sung by a "bob-white" in January! The author's style is more than usually readable; but, while he is not lacking in originality of ideas or expression, his essays would gain in force if they were not, so to speak, all set to the same tune. This monotony of method, however, will doubtless not impress the reader who goes to the book for a breath of mental fresh air, and, rightly, does not take his year out-of-doors at a sitting.

The work of the illustrator ranks in importance with that of the author. Mr. Stone supplies appropriate chapter headings, text cuts, and a full-page drawing, reproduced in flat tints, for each week of the year. Sketchy vistas of country roads and lanes bordered by the now fast-disappearing rail-fences, show Mr. Stone's art at its best. His mammals are excellent, but in bird portraiture he is less convincing, success here seeming to require a special interest in the bird, which makes an artist primarily an ornithologist. The publishers have spared no expense in the preparation of this sumptuous volume. A comparison of it with a copy of the first (and virtually unsold) edition of Thoreau's "Week" is a striking comment on our changed attitude towards nature.

The New York Botanical Garden has lately received nearly seventy-five new species of cacti. Most of them were obtained in the elevated desert valleys of Mexico by Dr. Daniel Trembley Macdougall, of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, and Dr. J. N. Rose of the United States National Museum. The collection in New York is now rivalled only by the collections in the Royal Gardens at Kew, England; the botanical garden at Berlin, and the outdoor gardens of Sir John Hanbury at La Mortola, Italy.

The Berlin Academy of Sciences some time ago instructed Prof. H. Diels, in conjunction with Prof. G. Schöne, to make preliminary examinations of the large number of classical manuscripts extant dealing with medicine; and the first volume, treating of Hippocrates and Galen, has just been issued.

Prof. Henry Fairfield Osborn has announced that he will not accept the secretaryship of the Smithsonian Institution, but will stay with the American Museum of Natural History in this city.

Dr. Giuseppe Lapponi, who died at Rome last Friday, was best known as the physician who attended Leo XIII. But aside from his prominence as a physician, he had occupied the chair of applied anthropology in the Roman Academy, and as an outgrowth of the lectures delivered before the Academy, he published, in 1906, a summary of his views on occult phenomena, entitled "Hypnotism and Spiritualism" ("Ipnotismo e Spiritismo"). The volume is of interest not merely as a contribution to the subject

of psychic research, but as an official and accredited expression of Roman Catholic opinion along these lines.

Dr. Ferdinand Henrotin, for twenty-five years one of the most prominent physicians of Chicago, died on Sunday. He was born in Brussels in 1847 and came to this country when a boy. He was connected with a number of Chicago hospitals; and he has written many monographs on gynecology and other medical topics.

The natural history library of the late Andrew J. Lloyd is to be offered at auction by C. F. Libbie & Co. of Boston on December 18 and 19. Audubon's *Birds*, 7 v., 1840-1844, the first octavo edition; the *Quadrupeds*, 3 v., 1854; Michaux's "North American Sylva," with the continuation by Nuttall, 5 v., 1859; Baird, Brewer and Ridgway's *Land and Water Birds*, 3 v., 1875-1884; Donovan's "British Insects," 8 v., 1792-1799; Hovey's "Fruits of America," 2 v., 1852-1856; Sowerby's "English Botany," 28 v., 1790-1808; Stephen's "British Entomology," 12 v., 1828-1846, are among the important books with colored plates. There are long runs of a number of scientific periodicals.

Finance.

THE ATTACK ON "TIGHT MONEY."

An interesting attack on New York rates for money was made last week Thursday at the monthly meeting of the Chamber of Commerce. The day before the meeting, rates on the Stock Exchange for loans payable on demand, went as high as 32 per cent. While the meeting was in session, they touched 28, and no demand loans were made that day for less than 20 per cent. The next day, they reached 36; this week, they have been at 38 again. The excessive rates are not new, however, even for the present year. In September, "call money" was loaned at 40 per cent.; last April at 30 per cent. At the end of December, 1905, there was a momentary Wall Street rate of 125 per cent. There have been times—notably in 1899 and 1890—when Stock Exchange loans on demand were made at 186 per cent.

The Chamber of Commerce adopted a resolution instructing its committee on finance and currency to report to it later "upon the practicability of devising measures through which the interest rate beyond 6 per cent. upon call loans made at the New York Stock Exchange can be better regulated than is the case at present." This resolution was adopted after a speech by Jacob H. Schiff, head of the international banking house of Kuhn, Loeb & Co., in which he described these high rates as barbarous. Mr. Schiff further declared that such rates "must in the long run be destructive of the best interests of the country." He added that "there must be means to better regulate such a state of affairs," and that "such means may be actual methods or moral methods." In general, Mr. Schiff's denunciation of the high rates merely repeated what he said in a speech at the Chamber of Commerce last January. He then asserted that the 50 and 125 per cent. call money rates of the period were "a disgrace to any civilized country," and he wound up with the

striking prediction that "if this condition of affairs is not changed, and changed soon, we shall get a panic compared with which the three which have preceded it would be only child's play."

Exactly what is this "call money market," whose rates excite such misgiving? How do lenders escape the 6 per cent. maximum rate of the usury law? This happens because of explicit exemption of "call loans" in the statute. The New York interest law of 1882 reads:

In any case in which advances of money repayable on demand, to an amount not less than \$5,000, are made upon warehouse receipts, bills of lading, certificates of stock, certificates of deposit, bills of exchange, bonds, or other negotiable instruments pledged as collateral security for such repayment, it shall be lawful to receive or contract to receive and collect, as compensation for making such advances, any sum to be agreed upon, in writing, by the parties to such transaction.

So much for the law; next as to the practice. Such rates as those quoted above are paid only by Stock Exchange brokers or speculators, who have purchased stocks with borrowed money and are holding them for the rise. In one corner of the Stock Exchange stand the agents of the banks, offering the "balances of the day" as other brokers offer stocks, and receiving a commission of one-thirty-second of one per cent. on loans effected, where a sale of stocks brings one-eighth of one per cent. commission. To this so-called "loan crowd" go the brokers who are buying stocks and want to procure the necessary money. In the "loan crowd" are paid the spectacular call loan rates. They are rarely paid for more than a day or two. No broker or speculator in his senses would continue, for any length of time, to pay 25 or 50 per cent. interest for money to finance an undertaking; all his profits would surely be eaten up in interest.

A Wall Street borrower will often pay such rates, when he might get a two-months' loan for 6 per cent., or, at the worst, for 6 per cent. plus a "commission" which would bring up the annual rate to 8 or 9. He expects the call money rate presently to fall below 6 per cent. again—perhaps to 3 or 4—and, moreover, he can pay off his "call loan" whenever his speculation is closed up; whereas with a sixty-day loan, he might realize on his stock venture within a week, and yet be left for eight weeks longer with interest running against him. In times of extravagant speculation for the rise, therefore, the Stock Exchange clamors for "call money." But as such speculation naturally accompanies great activity in general trade, resources of lending institutions are absorbed already in ordinary business loans. To provide for Wall Street, the New York bank pays smaller interior institutions to give it the use of their own deposits.

This new money the New York banker will not lend out in long-time loans, because he knows that when interior trade grows active—as at harvest time—the little banks will ask for their money again. But a "call loan" on the Stock Exchange is open to no such objection; if the Western bank telegraphs for repayment, the New York institution calls in the cash from Wall Street. When, however, a hundred or

more of such notices from "the Interior" arrive simultaneously, the Stock Exchange suddenly finds the support of its speculation undermined. If the speculator gives up his borrowed money, he must sell his stocks, and probably at a loss. Therefore he bids an inviting rate of interest, with the idea, either of persuading the inland bank to postpone its call, or of inducing the city bank to trench on its own legally required reserve. In the present season, Wall Street speculators have used both inducements, and both have been successful. It is not at all strange, however, when the position of the lenders is considered, that the borrower should in such circumstances find it necessary to bid abnormally high rates.

This is the simple explanation of 35 and 50 and 100 per cent. call money in New York. Much has been made of the fact that no other great money market has such rates to show. But in that there is nothing mysterious. No other American market deals in "call loans" on such a scale; no foreign market uses the redeposited funds of outside banks on the Stock Exchange with such profusion. Mr. Schiff, in last week's speech, intimated that greedy institutions were to blame, stating "that one of the prominent financial institutions of this city makes it a rule, when money in the morning is only 6 or 7 per cent., to call its loans, and to wait until the rate has advanced—which it naturally does in consequence of large calls—to consent to loan its money again." There unquestionably have been such cases, and Mr. Schiff was right in saying that moral pressure ought to be applied to the offenders. But it is one thing to show how somebody took advantage of an abnormal situation, and quite another to show what caused it. Unless an unnatural condition existed in money and stock markets, justifying unannaturally high rates for money, a bank which did this would probably find, towards the close of the day, that it could not get even the forenoon price. Other local and out-of-town lenders would have "filled the market."

When, therefore, one is told that unless the exorbitant money rates are stopped, we shall have a panic, he will be wise in looking behind the excessive rates to see what caused them. If he finds that cause to be reckless speculation on an insufficient or unstable supply of capital, he will conclude that the high rates will stop when the rash speculation stops, and that if a panic comes, it will have been caused, not by the money quotations, but by the speculation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alger, Horatio, jr. *The Young Musician*. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.
 Baldwin, James Mark. *Mental Development in the Child and in the Race*. Macmillan Co. \$2.25 net.
 Barine, Arvède. *Princesses and Court Ladies*. Putnam's. \$3 net.
 Brunetière, Ferdinand. *Honoré De Balzac*. Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$1.50 net.
 Chadwick, John White. *Cap'n Chadwick*. Boston: American Unitarian Association. 60 cents net.
 Christmas Selections for Readings and Recitations. Compiled by R. L. McNaught. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co. 30 cents.
 Collier, Robert. *Father Taylor*. Boston: American Unitarian Association. 80 cents net.
 Crosby, Edward. *Kadiana*. Boston: The Ivy Press.
 Curtis, Alice Turner. *The Little Runaways*. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.
 Day, Mrs. Frank R. *The Princess of Mantua*. Paul Elder & Co. \$1.50 net.
 Dean, Bashford. *Chimeroid Fishes and their Development*. Washington: Carnegie Institute.

Dietzel, H. *Retallatory Duties*. Translated by D. W. Simon. A. Wessels Co. 75 cents.
 Dimond, Mary B. *A Century of Misquotations*. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co.
 D'Olone, Capitaine. *La Chine*. Paris: Armand Collin.
 Elder, Paul. *Mosaic Essays*. Paul Elder & Co. \$1.50 net.
 Elliot, Charles W. *Four American Leaders*. 2 vols. Boston: Am. Unitarian Assoc. 80 cents net.
 Enoch, Romola. Edited by Guido Biagi. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
 Ellis, Edward S. *The Hunt of the White Elephant*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. \$1.
 Fear Not. Paul Elder & Co. 75 cents net.
 Freeman, John R. *On the Safeguarding of Life in Theatres*. Am. Soc. of Mechanical Engineers.
 Gibson, Charles. *The Spirit of Love and Other Poems*. Published by the author.
 Gotthell, Richard J. H. *Syriac Julian Romance*. Leiden: E. J. Brill.
 Grant, Ethel Watts-Mumford and Richard B. Grainger. *The Auto Guest Book*. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co.
 Haines, Jennie Day. *Sunday Symphonies.—Ye Gardeyne Bock*. Paul Elder & Co. \$1.50 net each.
 Hauling, Carolina A. *Letters of a Business Woman to Her Niece*. R. F. Fenno & Co.
 Hill, David Jayne. *A History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe*. Vol. II. Longmans. \$5 net.
 Hinkley, Frank E. *American Consular Jurisdiction in the Orient*. Washington: W. H. Lowdermilk & Co.
 Hohenlohe-Schillingsfuerst. *Memoirs of Prince Chlodwig of*. Translated by G. W. Chrystal. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. \$6 net.
 Holliday, Carl. *A History of Southern Literature*. Neale Publishing Co. \$2.50.
 Howard, Burt Estes. *The Shepherd's Question*. Boston: Am. Unitarian Assoc. 80 cents net.
 Ingersoll, Ernest. *Eight Secrets*. Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.
 Jones, Johnny. *Book of Nature.—Wonder of the Deep*. Paul Elder & Co. 25 cents net each.
 Jordan, David Starr. *Life's Enthusiasm*. Boston: Am. Unitarian Assoc. 80 cents net.
 Joslin, Sarah Proctor. *The Major Stories*. Published privately.
 Knick Knacks. Compiled by H. L. Goggin. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.
 Koenigsberger, Leo. *Hermann von Helmholtz*. Translated by Frances A. Welby. Henry Frowde. 16s. net.
 Lane's *Arabian Nights*. Edited by Stanley Lane-Poole. Vol. II. Macmillan Co.
 Larsson, Gustaf. *Elementary Sloyd and Whittling*. Silver, Burdett & Co.
 Leighton, William. *Florentine Sonnets*. Florence, Lewis, Judd Mortimer. *Lit's of Love*. Houston, Tex.: J. V. Dealy Co.
 Leyds, W. J. *The First Annexation of the Transvaal*. A. Wessels Co. \$6.30.
 Levussove, M. S. *The New Art of an Ancient People*. The Work of Ephraim More Lillien. B. W. Hirsch. 75 cents.
 Librarian of Congress. *Report of the Washington*.
 Littmann, Leo. *Gedanken in Liedern*. Leipzig.
 Living Church Annual, 1907. Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co. 35 cents.
 Lowell, Percival. *Mars and its Canals*. Macmillan Co. \$2.50 net.
 McIntyre, John T. *Sketches, Skits, and Stunts*. 50 cents. With John Paul Jones. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.
 Madon, A. C. *Wisa Handbook*. Henry Frowde.
 Madison, Lucy Foster. *A Maid of Salem Town*. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.
 Massé, H. J. L. J. Oxford. Imported by Scribners. \$1. net.
 Molmenti, Pompeo. *Venice*. Translated by Horatio F. Brown. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$5 net.
 More, Paul Elmer. *Shelburne Essays*. Fourth Series. Putnam's. \$1.25 net.
 Morris, Charles. *Heroes of the Army in America.—Heroes of Progress in America*. Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$1.25 net each.
 Morrow, Albert S. *The Immediate Care of the Injured*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co. \$2.50 net.
 Murrell, Mrs. David Gamble. *What Marjorie Saw Abroad*. Neale Publishing Co.
 Napoleon's Last Voyages. Edited by J. Holland Rose. Imported by Scribners. \$3 net.
 Nelson's Encyclopædia. Edited by F. M. Colby and G. Sandeman. Vol. IX. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
 Olin, Charles H. *Ventriloquism.—Journalism*. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.
 Otis, James. *Among the Fur Traders*. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.
 Paullin, Charles Oscar. *The Navy of the American Revolution*. Cleveland: Burrows Bros Co.
 Philosophy of Ingersoll. Edited by Vere Goldthwaite. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co. \$1.50 net.
 Pike, Oliver G. *In Bird-Land*. A. Wessels Co. 60 cents.
 Plutarque de Montaigne. Edited by Grace Norton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25 net.
 Raymond, Ibbie. *S'Ancre*.
 Rose, Elsie Whitlock. *Cathedrals and Cloisters of the South of France*. 2 vols. Putnam's. \$5 net.
 Royal Historical Society, *Transactions of the Vol. XX*. London.
 Shoemaker's Best Selections for Readings and Recitations. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co. 30 cents.
 Sir Thomas Lawrence's Letter-Bag. Edited by George S. Leyard. Longman's. \$4 net.
 Songs for Schools. Compiled by Charles H. Farnsworth. Macmillan Co. 60 cents net.
 Sophocles' *Antigone*. Translated by Robert White-law. Henry Frowde. 1s. net.
 Spots, or Two Hundred and Two Cleaners. Compiled by Clarice T. Courvoisier. Paul Elder & Co. 75 cents net.
 Tatham, Frederick. *The Letters of William Blake*. Imported by Scribners. \$2 net.
 Ten Years of Princeton University. F. P. McEreen & Co.

United States Catalog Supplement, 1902-1905.
 Edited by Marlon E. Potter. Minneapolis: H. W.
 Wilson Co.
 Warde, Margaret, Betty Wales, Junior. Phila-
 delphia: Penn Publishing Co.
 Waterman, Nixon, "Boy Wanted." Chicago:
 Forbes & Co. \$1.25.

Watson, Helen H. Andrew Goodfellow: A Tale of
 1805. Macmillan Co. \$1.50.
 Westell, W. Percival. British Bird Life. A. Wes-
 sels Co. \$1.25.
 What Is Man? De Vinne Press.
 Wilde, Oscar. Decorative Art in America. Bren-
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Williams, Victor Wyatt, "Hello Bill"; Toasts.
 Williams, Victor Wyatt Williams. The Imp's Cal-
 endar for 1907. Published by the Author.
 Wise and Otherwise. Philadelphia: Penn Publish-
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 Yeats, William B. Poetical Works, Vol. I.: Lyric-
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 20, 1906.

The Week.

Those persons who professed fear that President Roosevelt's message on the Japanese situation in San Francisco would be full of threats and extra-Constitutional remedies, must confess themselves agreeably disappointed. Mr. Roosevelt says that if the San Francisco and California authorities fail to protect the persons and property of the Japanese, "then the entire power of the Federal Government, *within the limits of the Constitution,*" will be used promptly and vigorously. Again, he speaks of using the Federal forces which he could "lawfully" employ. From the report of Secretary Metcalf, transmitted by Mr. Roosevelt, it appears that the labor unions, the curse of San Francisco and the Pacific Coast, are at the bottom of most of the trouble. It was they who, through the Japanese and Korean Exclusion League, induced the School Board to shut out Japanese children, and it was they who organized and carried on the boycott against the Japanese restaurants. More than that, this boycott was easily terminated by the payment of \$350 to the leader of the boycotters. Certain San Franciscans have tried to make us believe that their civilization and industries, their whole standard of living, are in danger of being subverted by the Japanese. San Francisco still has over 325,000 people; the subjects of the Mikado there number only 6,000, a mere handful. Altogether shameful is the police record of assaults by the more highly civilized Americans upon the Japanese, 281 within the period from May 6, 1906, to November 5, 1906; during that time only nine breaches of the peace by Japanese were reported. Fortunately, there is a President in the White House who is not afraid to stand up for our good name and describe properly the San Francisco outrages.

President Roosevelt has endorsed the plan of the Personnel Board for a reserve list in order to secure younger captains and rear-admirals in the navy. The Board was instituted because there is prospect of a "hump" or block in promotions similar to that after the Civil War. To remedy this threatened congestion, the Board considered two plans: first, promotion by selection, formerly urged by President Roosevelt; and, second, elimination of certain officers by taking them from the active list in order to create the vacancies necessary for rapid advancement.

The Board wisely decided on the second plan. Army and navy officers are convinced that no scheme of promotion by selection of the best can be devised which will not be marred by political or social considerations. The safer way is to eliminate those less fit. The Personnel Board's plan calls for the constitution of a board of officers whenever, on June 30, the ten senior captains average fifty-five years of age, or the ten senior commanders forty-eight years of age, or the ten senior lieutenant-commanders average forty-four years of age. This commission is then to select 15 per cent. of the captains, or 10 per cent. of the commanders, for transfer to the reserve list, and thus force a number of promotions. On behalf of its scheme, the Board urges that it is automatic, yet elastic. In some years there may be enough casualties and retirements to make special action unnecessary. Congress must remember, however, that the adoption of the Board's report as a whole would increase the number of officers below the rank of rear-admiral, from 992, as at present, to 1,500, by adding seventy-five a year. The proper action for Congress to take, as we view the problem, is to go to the root of the trouble and decrease the size of the corps of midshipmen at Annapolis, or resort to the old plan of discharging with a year's pay the surplus graduates. There should be retrenchment rather than enlargement. With the decrease, the necessity for elaborate schemes to regulate promotion will diminish. But if something of the kind should then still be deemed necessary, the report of the Personnel Board contains excellent suggestions as a basis to build on.

In publishing the full correspondence relating to our intervention in Cuba last September, the Administration has not added much to our knowledge, but has certainly proved to all the world that action by our Government was absolutely imperative. The President shrank from intervention, both word and thing, as long as possible, and acquiesced in it, finally, only as a dire necessity. Secretary Taft's cablegrams set forth conclusively how impossible were the people with whom he had to deal in Cuba, and how inextricable the situation. The freedom of his dispatches, and of the President's replies, is probably unexampled in diplomatic correspondence; but the net effect of their massing and publishing is to free this country from the suspicion of meddling officiously in Cuba for selfish advantage.

President Roosevelt's message about

work at Panama reports nearly everything on the Isthmus absolutely perfect. No doubt much of his high praise is deserved. A vast amount of money has been spent upon sanitation, buildings, paving, water-supply, etc., and there is a good deal to show for it. Indeed, the health-record has been so good on the Isthmus in recent months that, as the President says, we probably ought to count upon more sickness, on the average, and a higher death-rate. The President confesses frankly that three days ashore was too short a time for him to pass judgment on the engineering problems. His references to them are, accordingly, meagre. Such as they are, however, they are not reassuring. Take, for example that part of the message in which the President deals with the engineering crux of the whole canal plan—the Gatun dam and the location of the three locks in flight to reach the eighty-five-foot level. This, Mr. Roosevelt admits, yet offers "a serious problem," and he freely grants that "there will be some little risk in connection with the work." The unpleasant truth is that the engineers are by no means satisfied with either the feasibility of this great earth-dam, or the location of the locks. The report of the Chief Engineer shows that further borings are being made in order to allay the grave doubts about the rock bottom; while the location of the locks is so far from being fixed that, Mr. Roosevelt announces, the whole thing is deferred to April next, when Secretary Taft and three engineers will go down to "make the final and conclusive examinations as to the exact site for each lock." Thus it is upon engineering plans confessedly in a state of great uncertainty—for this Gatun dam is vital to the whole project—that contractors are asked to bid, and Congress to vote hundreds of millions. The President announces that a "badge" is to be given to every American who works on the Isthmus, as a sort of membership in a Legion of Honor. This is well enough for those who want it, but the real decoration ought to be reserved for the man who can prevent the waste of money at the Isthmus on ill-considered and ever-changing and possibly unworkable plans.

In deciding to court-martial the senior officers of the Twenty-fifth Infantry battalion, accused of rioting in Brownsville, the President has at last taken the proper military procedure. The officers of a regiment must be held responsible for the conduct of their men. Failure to do so in this, as in many other cases in the past, would make officers still more indifferent to their duty to control their men outside their

garrisons as well as inside. Major Penrose and Capt. Macklin should have been tried at least two months ago—before any of their enlisted men were punished. We welcome this movement now as a sign of sober second thought. There is every indication that before long most, if not all, of the discharged soldiers of the Twenty-fifth Infantry will be reinstated, one by one.

Secretary Shaw's explanation of his "prosperity speech" of last Thursday, at a Washington banquet, is marked by great subtlety. He did not, he replies, give any such advice as "Get down on your knees to-night and pray God to save this country from its prosperity." What he did say was, "We who pray should ask God to save us from any increased prosperity; we have all we can stand." Whether there is or is not any difference, economic or theological, between those two pious sentiments, we imagine that many, even of the Secretary's admirers, have already reminded him to speak for himself in such petitions, and not for other people. There are always Jerry Crunchers with an ill-natured objection to people suspected of "prayin' agin them." The further exposition by Mr. Shaw, that "we are growing more crops than we can harvest, and harvesting more than we can haul to market," would appear to mean a hint, in the nightly petition, that a little adversity be granted us. Even in this somewhat grotesque view there is a substratum of reason. That our "boom" has not only overtaxed the labor and transportation facilities of the producing districts, but has drawn in an exhaustive way on the supplies of capital usually absorbed in industry, is admitted by all competent observers. Justice Brewer touched on one vital consideration in this matter, when, in his speech of Sunday, he declared that "our great expansion and rapid growth in population and resource are developing a habit of extravagance," and that "we have been most unwisely discounting the future." Justice Brewer was speaking primarily of increase in public debts; he might have applied his doctrine still more directly to the incurring of private debt for purpose of outright speculation. Precisely how large a part this form of extravagance has played in causing the "money stringency" and "scarcity of capital" of which one hears so much, it would be difficult to say; every intelligent financier recognizes it as a factor of importance. Regarded from this point of view, Secretary Shaw's prayer to be rescued from greater prosperity may be intelligibly translated into a prayer to be spared a wilder speculation, and in such a petition sober-minded citizens would unquestionably join. The embarrassing part of a check to expanding prosperity, as a

check to the habit of gambling on it, is that the speculators would then turn out to have "discounted" a future which did not come, and to have done so with borrowed money. The "rich men's panic" of 1903 gave us some experience of what sometimes happens under such conditions.

Memory triumphed over hope in the vote of the House, by 188 to 107, not to increase the salary of its members from \$5,000 to \$7,500. All the arguments for this advance in pay—and some of them are good ones—were swept away in the vivid recollection of that Congress which was dubbed the "Salary-Grab Congress," and which was visited with the sovereign displeasure of the people. Yet the chief offence, in that historic example, was the "back-pay" feature of the legislation. That was not imitated this time. The increase proposed would have been entirely prospective. Yet the yea and nay vote was decisively against it. If the vote had been affirmative, the Representatives might have excused themselves on the ground that they are of the class—the salaried class—who have most felt the pinch of prosperity. While the cost of living has risen enormously, while wages have gone up and profits in business have increased, salaries have, as a rule, but slightly advanced—in Congress, not at all. Bradstreet's figures showed last week that the average increase in prices since 1895 has been 55 per cent. We have heard of wages, here and there, going up 10 or 20 per cent., but not 50. The working and salaried classes know that there is a seamy side to our apotheosized prosperity.

When pension order No. 78, after a year and a half of anomalous existence, was made into law, some may have supposed that it disposed of the question of old-age pensions for veterans. By no means. A "vigorous effort" is to be made at the coming session, under the leadership of Senator Porter J. McCumber of North Dakota, to pass the "general service pension bill under material limitations." The "limitations," however, are not the features of the bill to arrest attention. The Ware-Roosevelt edict gave every veteran of 62 the one-half disability pension of \$6 per month, whether he proved such disability or not. Senator McCumber would make this \$12 a month. The order gave veterans of 70 the full disability pension of \$12 a month. Senator McCumber would make this \$15, with an increase of \$20 at the age of 75 years. Estimates of the additional cost of new pension rules have not been so accurate in the past as to inspire great confidence, but it is safe to predict a large bill from the fact that over half the pensions now

paid are at rates of \$10 per month or below. If Congress decides to discontinue entirely the sifting process as between deserving and undeserving Civil War veterans, there will remain the consoling consideration that perjury will be unnecessary when in order to obtain the new rate of pension no evidence will be required except an honorable discharge.

Simplified spelling was likened by some one to a vigorous tree which, beginning as a hardly noticeable shoot, was destined to spread its branches gradually until a whole nation should be comforted by its shade. In the climate of Washington, however, it has proved only a tender annual. Planted in the rather arid soil of the *Congressional Record*, with all the care of most competent gardeners, it did blossom once on December 4, when such verbal posies as "a thoro-going child-labor law" and "repeatedly past legislation" could be gathered by any passer-by. But this efflorescence was its last. It wilted even while it bloomed. In all seriousness the outcome of the spelling controversy should give satisfaction. The threatened squabble was avoided. Congress acted with promptness and dignity, and without a trace of partisanship. The President, meanwhile, has realized, what he might have perceived before he touched a pen to his order of last summer, that reformed spelling would not receive unanimous acceptance, and that a double standard in the Government Printing Office would be both ridiculous and vexatious.

"The Episcopal Church has turned out its last heretic." That has been a common remark among clergymen and others, since the deposition of Dr. A. S. Crapsey, and it is borne out by the extraordinary action of the diocese of Southern Ohio, last week, in the case of the Rev. George C. Cox. That clergyman had publicly announced himself a sympathizer with Dr. Crapsey and a sharer of his views, as well as the holder of others equally revolutionary, and he had asked the judgment of his ecclesiastical superiors. They resolved that, on the face of his own statements, he was "presentable for trial," but then proceeded to record the decision that, "having regard for the highest interests of the Church," they would recommend no action. The inference is unmistakable. In casting out Dr. Crapsey, the Episcopal Church exhausted itself, so to speak, straining the loyalty of many of its clergy and members to the breaking-point, and is capable of no more such efforts. In this light, Dr. Crapsey may have won for his brother clergymen the authorized liberty which was denied himself. The Rev. Mr. Cox can, of course, remain in the church with per-

fect honor and good conscience, after his manly avowals, and their condoning by his diocese; and as soon as such actions become widespread, a new rule will be practically established and troubled consciences made easy.

Chancellor E. B. Andrews of the University of Nebraska is the latest student of philanthropic problems to join in that criticism of the Salvation Army which began publicly at the last National Conference of Charities. "The Army's methods," he says in an open letter, "are vicious and pauperizing, and are calculated to make your so-called relief work a plague." He also censures the Army for its failure to make a satisfactory statement of the disposition of its funds, or to submit its accounts to the inspection of any outside committee. Here are two distinct lines of criticism. That much of the Salvation Army's activity is efficient and praiseworthy, critics would probably concede. Its industrial homes, "rescue work," and farm colonies appear to embody the "self-help" principle quite as well as most private charities, and better than many. But an organization which appeals for and receives wide public support ought to be conducted on the soundest principles. It may be recalled now that a wealthy Englishman once offered to endow Gen. Booth's work with a large sum of money on condition of the late Thomas H. Huxley's approval of methods, but this approval was withheld for much the same reasons that Dr. Andrews and others are now advancing in this country.

No Englishman could be more welcome as Ambassador to this country than James Bryce, for no Englishman has a similar understanding of our institutions, and the problems which this nation is trying to solve. None of his countrymen has performed a more valuable service for the United States than Mr. Bryce in writing "The American Commonwealth." Moreover, Mr. Bryce has an extensive acquaintance among American public men of both parties. He could take up his duties with a clearer comprehension of the elements of our political life than most Americans themselves possess. Aside from all this, on the personal side Mr. Bryce's appointment would be most popular. We can well see, however, that, tempting as the proposal must be, he would find it hard to give up his work as Chief Secretary for Ireland. As he has repeatedly stated in public of late, he is as devoted to the Gladstone Home Rule principle as any man in England, and he would naturally like to have a hand in the putting through of any Home Rule measure. But his present duties are extremely arduous, involving as they do constant trips to Ireland, long hours of

office work, and still longer hours at night in the Commons. Hence a change to the comparative quiet of the British embassy in Washington might appeal to him not a little, as would the opportunity of renewing his American friendships and continuing his American studies.

Neither James Bryce nor John Burns, the two members of the British Cabinet who have most to do with the question of the unemployed, favors unproductive or unnecessary labor schemes on the part of the Government. Mr. Bryce has declared, in reference to the Irish problem, that he will have no public works simply for the purpose of affording relief. That would be, in his view, a "most dangerous thing"; if there were any works of permanent value industrially needed, he might recommend them. But against the building of roads where no roads are necessary his face is set. John Burns takes much the same view. If he receives money, for instance, to reclaim land which is slipping into the sea, he will use it. As for starting projects for afforestation, or improving grades merely to afford employment, this is not in his mind. The various distress committees have difficult tasks before them to care for the unemployed. Not only is this an unusually trying winter, but the rapid deterioration of the unemployed makes it difficult to use them to advantage. After a man has been without work for some time he is incapable, according to the Rev. W. R. Wakefield, chairman of the London Central Unemployed Body, of earning more than 60 per cent. of what it costs to keep him until "after a period of reasonably good feeding and the discipline of labor." To do a \$10,000 job with unemployed labor, necessitates an expenditure of \$15,000; that is, large expense, with a comparatively small return, is the true characterization of relief work such as the Government is undertaking. But some families are permanently saved, and so become lasting assets.

The new Constitution for the Transvaal which was fully outlined last summer by Winston Churchill in the House of Commons, is summarized in the December number of *The World's Work*. The suffrage is conferred on all adult males (not colored natives) who have resided in the Transvaal for six months. Representation is based not on population, which would have assured complete Dutch predominance, but on the number of voters. For the first Assembly thirty-four seats have been apportioned to the Rand, with Johannesburg, these being assuredly English; six seats to Pretoria, which are regarded as doubtful, with the chances favoring the Dutch; and twenty-nine seats to the

rest of the country, which, possibly with one or two exceptions, will be likewise Dutch. The non-Afrikaner parties, according to Mr. Churchill's statement, include the Transvaal Progressive Association, which is the party of the great mine owners; the Responsible Government Association, which has advocated successfully the cause of autonomous government; the Transvaal Political Association, standing midway between the two; and the Labor Party. The balance of power will be held by "Het Volk," the Boer party, and Mr. Massingham's prediction that the first government would be organized by this Boer party, in coalition with liberal English elements, seems, according to the latest reports in the *London Times*, destined to prove true. The programme of "Het Volk," as published at Johannesburg on December 4, calls for the repatriation of the Chinese, extensive labor legislation, the establishment of a land bank, the construction of agricultural railways, a new education law establishing local control in the appointment of teachers and "the selection of the medium of instruction," and the recruiting of the civil service from among residents of South Africa. Evidently, the Boers have accepted the fact of the British conquest without reservation, and are preparing to assert themselves in ways parliamentary.

Following closely on the reported efforts to secure the consent of the great Powers to the neutralization of Denmark and Norway, comes news of a movement for welding together the three Scandinavian countries. A tri-national interparliamentary conference is proposed, to be held next summer at Copenhagen. The impetus to this step seems to have come from within the legislative bodies of the three countries, all of which will meet early in 1907. The plan is to have the Danish Rigsdag, the Swedish Riksdag, and the Norwegian Storting take simultaneous action on the proposition. If this be favorable, a committee of three members will be appointed by the popularly elected branches of each one of those three bodies. The committee will probably meet in the city of Gothenburg, on the Swedish west coast, which is equally accessible from all parts of the two peninsulas. The members of the larger conference would number about 400, which would mean a not inconsiderable expense. But the money, it is understood, may be appropriated by the three nations represented. It would be rashly optimistic to expect an immediate federation of the Scandinavian sister countries, but it is very likely that a standing interparliamentary committee may be established for the furtherance of a good understanding and coöperation between them.

HOW TO MAGNIFY THE STATES.

Secretary Root's speech at the meeting of the Pennsylvania Society in this city last week, appears to have been misunderstood. It seemed to be taken as a rampant plea for centralization of all power at Washington. Rightly read, we think it stands as a warning against such centralization, with an indication of the one way in which it may surely be prevented. Mr. Root was not exalting the Federal Government. That is not necessary; the drift is, as he said, all that way. He was rather pointing out the method of magnifying the States. Instead of holding up as the ideal an all-absorbing Government at Washington, riding over the governments of forty-six States, he called upon those States so to legislate, so to enforce the laws once made, that nobody would think of riding over their rights.

The only reason why a different view of the Secretary's speech is held by some must be that they studied only his premises and neglected his conclusion. He pictured in a few rapid strokes the tendencies which, as every one but the blind can see, are creating a strong national sentiment in this country, and binding the different parts of the land together. There is getting to be a clear *sensus communis* among the citizens of the United States regarding many matters of general concern. Respecting them, they wish that the voice of the people, as expressed in the laws, shall be harmonious and unmistakable. In some way, that powerful desire is going to translate itself into statute and action. That was the point which Secretary Root made emphatic; and upon it turned his urgent appeal, which really was, not for further congestion of power at Washington, but for its freer and more efficient exercise in the States. His exact words were:

I submit to your judgment, and I desire to press upon you, with all the earnestness I possess, that there is but one way in which the States of the Union can maintain their power and authority under the conditions which are now before us, and that way is by an awakening on the part of the States to a realization of their own duties to the country at large.

Now, as a matter of fact, such an awakening is visibly beginning in this country. Many influences are at work to bring the States into coöperation and a reasonable degree of unity, as regards important subjects of legislation. The movement is partly official. Such a step as the issue at Albany of bulletins of comparative legislation, has been imitated with good results in other States. In Wisconsin, particularly, the method has been useful, both in furnishing information and in guiding the drafting of laws. In Oregon, in Maryland, in Indiana, Rhode Island, and elsewhere, a similar practice has been started, with the aim of bringing about a sort of

tactic codification of the statute-books of various States, in those matters of law-making which interest them all. In addition, there are the volunteer and unofficial agencies which are working powerfully upon the several Legislatures to cause States that are backward in their divorce laws, or their child labor laws, to move forward abreast of enlightened sentiment. These signs of the times cannot be ignored by any one who keeps his eyes open; and the movement they represent ought to be quickened by Mr. Root's summons to the States to preserve their dignity and authority by wise and efficient laws, and so check "the tendency of the people of the country to seek relief through the national Government, and to press forward the movement for national control and the extinction of local control."

Efficiency in government will, in the long run, prevail over theories about government—though, of course, no government can be called efficient which does not consult and satisfy the wishes, and even prejudices, of the people as concerns its form and methods. If the majority of the citizens are convinced that public affairs should be conducted in a given way, it is not really efficient to try to conduct them in another. But there is no hard-and-fast rule. No absolute line can be drawn. On this whole question of centralization as opposed to local control, no wiser word has been uttered, even in women's clubs or leagues for political education, than that of John Stuart Mill in his essay "On Liberty":

I believe that the practical principle in which safety resides, the ideal to be kept in view, the standard by which to test all arrangements intended for overcoming this difficulty [centralization], may be conveyed in these words: the greatest dissemination of power consistent with efficiency; but the greatest centralization of information and diffusion of it from the centre.

In any case, Secretary Root was quite right in calling upon the States to magnify their function, as the surest way to retain it. Power clings to him who power exerts. If there still resides in State governments enough of the ancient virtue, enough of the constructive talent, the flexibility able to meet changing conditions with changed laws, and if these powers are put vigorously into play for the common weal, then no one need dread that they will be taken away.

PREVENTING LAND FRAUDS.

If the solution of the public land problem consisted merely in punishing all those who have violated the laws passed for regulation of the public domain, then the Roosevelt Administration might already be credited with astonishing progress toward that solution. It is doubt-

ful if ever before so many persons from such different stations in life and in so many different localities have been convicted within so short a time for the violation of Federal statutes which had previously been almost ignored. Secretary Hitchcock, in the face of political and personal pressure of every form, has been relentless in his pursuit of corrupt officials and corrupting outside operators; and the President has given loyal support to his work. As the Secretary summarized results in his report for this year, there have been 490 persons indicted for land frauds, 89 have been convicted, and 401 are under indictments still pending.

Naturally, when such wholesale rascality is exposed, the laws which have proved so easy to evade come in for attention. The land laws are bad because they facilitate fraud and deceit, and their shortcomings in this particular have already been widely noted; but they are also bad because they fail to make provision for the legitimate needs of the country. The peculiar interest of President Roosevelt's special message of Monday lies in its emphasis of this latter and less considered phase of the subject.

All over the West there have been conducted industries useful to the country at large, indispensable to the communities in which they are placed, honest in every relation of life—except that the land on which they operate has been virtually stolen. Timber-cutting, cattle-raising, coal-mining have been carried on under laws, or rather in violation of laws, which bore next to no relation to genuine requirements. As the President says with truth and force:

The present coal law, limiting the individual entry to 160 acres, puts a premium on fraud by making it impossible to develop certain types of coal fields and yet comply with the law. It is a scandal to maintain laws which sound well, but which make fraud the key without which great natural resources must remain closed.

What he says here of coal lands applies only in less degree to grazing and timber lands. Without employing a force of agents to make fictitious entries and then turn over their holdings to him, a man could not acquire enough acres of forest to make it profitable for him to equip a sawmill.

What was the result of a policy which would give a citizen no more land for mining coal than for growing cabbages? It did not stop the acquisition of great tracts of land or the supply of those products which required large areas. It did, however, develop in the Western country a thoroughly unhealthy sentiment regarding the public domain. To the already general conviction that there was no moral wrong in cheating the Government, was added a special contempt for this set of laws. Industries in which, for their own sake, the coun-

try took a genuine pride, were paradoxically kept out of the hands of men with scruples.

So long as these underlying conditions exist, it is vain to suppose that any series of prosecutions, even if the whole Senate should be put behind the bars, will scare away the land-thieves once for all. The laws must be liberalized in one direction as they are made stricter in another. The Timber and Stone act, the Desert Land act, and the commutation clause of the Homestead act, are suggested by the President for repeal or modification, as they were by his Land Laws Commission of last year. These suggestions are not new. President Cleveland wrote in his second annual message just twenty years ago:

I recommend the repeal of the preëmption and timber culture acts, and that the homestead laws be so amended as to better secure compliance with their requirements of residence, improvement, and cultivation. . . . I also recommend the repeal of the desert-land laws unless it shall be the pleasure of the Congress to so amend these laws as to render them less liable to abuses.

But while the need for amending the land laws has long been perfectly well known, this may be a propitious time for President Roosevelt to urge the reform. The prosecutions of the last two years have interested Eastern communities which scarcely realized before that there were any such things as land laws and the public domain. Let another period of apathy ensue, with the laws in their present condition, and the old frauds are certain to reappear. On the other hand, a carefully worked out system of leasing range land, selling standing timber without selling the land, and otherwise permitting effective use of natural resources, will help toward honest administration of the much-abused Land Office.

"COAL FAMINE" AND THE RAILWAYS.

The extraordinary reports which are coming from the Northwest regarding the failure of railways to supply coal, are for the most part a piece with this autumn's whole chapter of incidents in the transportation system. The country hears much of a "fuel famine," because of the actual suffering. It has perhaps heard less of the failure of railways in the Northwest to carry wheat to market fast enough to relieve the country storehouses; yet for weeks the wheat markets have been agog with accounts of great piles of grain actually rotting on the ground because there was neither elevator room nor transportation facilities. In less degree, every producing and distributing industry is affected similarly. Railway men are well aware that the unusual number of railway accidents this season results

directly from the crowding of tracks with freight trains.

The railway manager answers complaints by declaring that existing facilities are overstrained by unprecedentedly large harvests and by the equally unparalleled volume of general trade. President Stickney of the Great Western defends the companies, on the ground that, "if the business were sensibly and properly distributed over the entire year instead of being massed in a few months," there need be no trouble. In such respects, Mr. Stickney proceeded, "the traffic situation on the railroads is like the traction problem in New York." No doubt, the subway and elevated trains would be less crowded if the majority of people did not insist on going downtown between 8 and 9 A. M., and on returning between 5 and 6 P. M.; and no doubt, also, railway freight facilities would be more nearly equal to demand if dealers and consumers would buy their coal in midsummer, and their grain and cotton five or six months after harvest. But people will not do this, for reasons satisfactory to themselves; and so long as they will not, the railways must provide for the actual public requirements.

James J. Hill of the Great Northern was lately moved by the existing situation to extremely pessimistic utterances. He went so far as to declare that the inability of the railways to handle a season's freight signifies commercial paralysis, "which, continued, means slow commercial death." He admitted that the trouble arises largely from actual lack of tracks, arguing that, while business has increased 110 per cent. in the past ten years, railway mileage has increased only 20 per cent.; but he also declared that to build the 115,000 or more miles of track needed at once to take care of the country's business "would cost as much as the Civil War." "There is not," Mr. Hill concluded, "money enough or rails enough in the world to do this thing." Other railway officers have taken issue with Mr. Hill, and have argued, with President Harahan of the Illinois Central, that the freight congestion "is not a question of tracks, but of cars and locomotives and prompt handling by the carriers."

Thus the doctors disagree. But the truth undoubtedly is that all of these causes contribute. In the famous "Pittsburgh blockade" of November, 1902, when failure of the Pennsylvania Railroad to move the freight offered it, caused actual closing of some important iron works, the chief trouble was lack of motive power; but tracks were also inadequate. In the "wheat blockade" of December, 1897, when exporters with "rush orders" from famine-stricken Europe could not get a chance at the great store of wheat in our Northwest, lack of cars was responsible, the real

shortage on Western roads being aggravated by the habit, among Eastern lines, of keeping in use and not returning the cars sent from the grain district.

The problem is anything but simple. As for the "coal famine," there is evidence of bad management. Where the nature and magnitude of the requirement were known, failure so complete is inexcusable. The railway managers should have looked more clearly into the future. The broader question of transportation cannot, however, be so readily dealt with. A great part of the responsibility for the condition of which Mr. Hill complained—slow extension of railway trackage in response to expansion of business—rests upon the railways themselves, through their deliberate choice. The increase in railway mileage in this country, during the past half-dozen years of unprecedented trade activity, has been smaller, both in actual figures and in its ratio to the previous total, than in any corresponding period since the Civil War, excepting times of actual adversity. The well-known cause is the prevention of the old-fashioned competitive railway-building. It may well be asked whether this process has not gone too far; whether, in endeavoring to avoid the "rate wars" and the "speculative paralleling" of a generation ago, the companies have not deprived the country of facilities to which it was entitled. Mr. Harriman is responsible for the assertion that we have railways enough already. If he means trackage enough, he is mistaken, as is sufficiently shown by Monday's announcement of the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul that it is about to raise \$100,000,000 to strike through the far Northwest to the Pacific Coast. The difficulty is complicated by the already overstrained demand for capital. But for that, too, the railway managers are at least in part to blame. How much of the credit of the companies and the resources of investors has been locked up in securities issued to buy up other lines, at the extravagant prices reached in the climax of a Wall Street "boom"?

THE GERMAN ELECTIONS.

The German Government enters the electoral campaign for the new Reichstag with no inconsiderable advantages. Its bold and unexpected defiance of the Centre and dissolution of the Reichstag have impressed the public, and the appeal to patriotism to uphold the honor of the flag is sure to rally some following. Again, by directing the attack upon the Centre, the Government leaders are able to confuse the issues. Were the question merely whether the colonial policy should or should not be sustained, the chances are that the Government would be facing a severe censure.

But the cry, "Down with the Clericals!" now raised by the Government, has already caught the Liberals, who have rightly seen in the past alliance of the Clericalist Centre with the Government a positive menace to political progress in the Empire. The Clerical, that is, Catholic influence has been dominant; in Prussia it was recently strong enough to obtain a reactionary school law. Something of the same spirit of revolt against the alliance of Church and State which is simultaneously making itself felt in England, Spain, France, and even in Italy, may therefore have to be reckoned with in the contest now being waged.

Already three of the minor Radical groups—the German Volkspartei, the Radical Volkspartei, and the Radical Union—have issued a joint manifesto calling attention to the unhappy influence which the Centre has exercised upon public life by reason of its numerical superiority. Naturally, the Clericals retort that the attacks are not upon them, but upon the Catholic Church, and they therefore call upon the faithful to rally to its defence. Just what effect this will have on the Socialist vote, if any, is the puzzle of the campaign. Count Ballestrem, the aged presiding officer of the Reichstag, who has declined to stand for reelection, is quoted as saying jokingly that his place will be filled by Herr Singer, the Social-Democratic leader. This may be one of the true words spoken in jest. Certain it is that the religious issue will affect the middle classes, but whether it will stir the masses from which the Social-Democrats have recruited their three million voters, remains to be seen. Here the enormous rise in the price of meat, which has made it a luxury beyond the means of thousands upon thousands of people, is more likely to be a potent factor. Indeed, the interim elections have afforded no ground for belief that the extraordinary growth of the party of Bebel has really experienced any check. Moreover, the widely expressed popular sympathy with the Russian struggle for liberty is not without significance.

None the less, it is not at all likely that the election will actually return a Socialistic majority in the next Reichstag, and thus precipitate that dread contest upon the outcome of which, many persons think, will depend the future of Parliamentary government in Germany. The antiquated electoral laws work great hardships upon the Social-Democrats, which in Government circles is a weighty reason for the refusal to alter them. Should the Centre, however, lose some seats and the Socialists gain them, the latter might have the largest delegation in the Reichstag. The Clerical representation in the dissolved house was 102, while the Social-Democrats numbered 79 and the Conserva-

tives 72. The National Liberals controlled 52 seats, while the Radicals of all types had dwindled to 36 members, lacking coherence and leadership. It is this group, as well as the National Liberals, which hopes to gain at the expense of both the Centre and the Conservatives. The Government is openly leaning in the direction of the National Liberals; but, since Conservatives and Liberals totalled but 124 in the last Reichstag, it is not quite clear where Von Bülow expects to get the other 75 votes he needs for a working majority. Possibly, he looks to see the Clericals so severely rebuked as to make their diminished numbers reënter the Reichstag in a wholly submissive frame of mind and ready to do the Chancellor's will.

That the colonial errors, cruelties, and extravagances will play a great part in the campaign, remains true. For these the Centre has to share a good deal of the responsibility, since its influence upon the conduct of the Colonial Bureau has been particularly unhappy. Germany is a nation of able and progressive business men, and as such it has not found much satisfaction in the colonial balance sheet submitted by the new director, Herr Dernburg, asserting that \$250,000,000, or a "milliard of marks," represents the German capital actually invested in the colonies. Careful examination has shown that \$75,000,000 would be a more accurate figure, which is a small sum, indeed, when one considers the hundred millions of marks which have been spent in the course of the Southwest African war alone. This poor showing is not wholly counterbalanced by Herr Dernburg's promise to prosecute all guilty officials and put the whole colonial administration on a business basis, just as he has already terminated the monopolies of the Wörmann Steamship Line and the firm of Tippelskirch, the army contractors. The glory of colonial acquisition has faded only a little less quickly than that enthusiasm which marked the American expansion in the Philippines. There, as here, the realization that colonies are a source of grave military weakness has become widespread. And when a people in the midst of great national prosperity is crying out for less taxation, cheaper food, more liberal laws, the decrease of exhausting army and navy burdens, and social reforms of every kind, the call to waste more treasure and more lives in far distant lands ought to need something more than an appeal to patriotism to make it effective, or even palatable.

ITALIANS IN PARIS.

The course of lectures just given by Guglielmo Ferrero at the Collège de France, had a prodigious success, both academic and social. In addition to the

usual frequenters of the room, public men and many well-known women flocked to applaud the Italian *conférencier*. His lecture became almost a fashionable event: the Rue Saint-Jacques was blocked with carriages and automobiles. The course was also given an international significance, educationally. At Ferrero's fifth lecture, a telegram reached him from the Italian Minister of Public Instruction, congratulating him in the name of his country. At his last, the French Minister of Public Instruction was present, to bestow upon him the cross of the Legion of Honor. And M. Levasseur, in bidding farewell to Ferrero, deftly spoke up for the needs of the college, while complimenting its guest, by expressing the hope that, on his return, he would find a lecture-room capacious enough to contain his admirers.

Ferrero is but the latest of talented and learned Italians to make a reputation at Paris. His countryman, Pellegrino Rossi, early in the last century, lectured on political economy in the Collège de France. And further back, of course, the names of Italian professors, philosophers, artists, physicians, who had won a welcome and achieved fame in France, would make a long list. The notable thing is that this intellectual comity has been kept up so continuously. A strong impulse towards an *entente* between the enlightened and aspiring men of France and Italy was naturally given in the days of the *risorgimento*, when so much was hoped and so much was had from France. But the warm and easy friendship had gone on to our own day. Italy sends her strong-armed laborers to all parts of the world; but it is to France that the gravitation of culture draws her educated and studious sons. Their French sympathies lie near the surface. Georges Claretie writes of calling upon Lombroso at Turin one day, to find him in the midst of a family gathering. But Lombroso welcomed him: "You are a Frenchman; hence you belong to the family!"

To return to Ferrero's lectures—they have to do with Roman history. In studying the age of Augustus, he has displayed an engaging ability to reconstruct the ancient time, to correct errors, to revivify, to make real. In all this he has had no such iconoclastic work to do as the great German pioneers in giving the world the true history of Rome; his labor has been, rather, minute correction, the placing of details in a new and juster light. His method, he frankly states, he derived from Gaston Boissier, whom he refers to as his teacher. In one of his Paris *conférences*, for example, he took up the question of the dying Augustus: "Have I played well the comedy of life?" This has been thought of as the essence of cynicism; but Ferrero, by a wide collation of the

evidence showing the contemporary habit of speaking of life in theatrical terms, gave the phrase quite another turn.

It is a favorite thesis of his that modern reproduction of historic conditions enables us to penetrate to their real meaning more successfully than our predecessors in the teaching of history. Thus he contends that our age is best fitted to understand the Augustan epoch. Now, as then, we see empires of vast extent, with freedom of trade prevailing at least within the borders of each, and peace, if not forever assured, at any rate the rule and the expectation. It is for such reasons, asserts Signor Ferrero, that we feel on good terms with Augustus, and can understand him better than we can Charlemagne; so that it is possible to-day to write a history of Augustus that will set right the mistaken ideas of the past. He faces fully the criticism that will be made:

I know very well that the contradiction between my history and tradition will awaken in many minds a sort of hostility. They will ask if it is possible that the whole world has been deceived for twenty centuries, and that we had to wait till 1906 to know the exact truth about the Roman Empire of the year 6. But these twenty centuries really are reduced, in so far as it is a question of comprehending Augustus, to a hundred years, or a little more. As Augustus was the last representative of a world that was disappearing, his figure very quickly became obscure. Tacitus and Suetonius already saw him through the first mists of the new mentality which was, for so many centuries, to deprive mankind of the delightful spectacle of the classic and pagan world. Speedily the mist thickened, until Augustus became only a phantom. But to-day, the full sunlight has returned. I do not profess to be a magician, nor to have a miraculous power of intuition. If I have been able to rectify many errors, it is only because I have been the first one to observe closely, at a moment when it has at last become possible to see and to understand.

In swinging open her academic doors for such suggestive teachers, France takes toll of the nations. She has so much to give because she so freely receives. Such courses as that of Ferrero—and Fogazzaro is soon to follow him—show that free trade in intellect still rules in Paris.

FOSTERING MUSICAL GENIUS.

The complications which have arisen in Washington in regard to the Copyright bill are likely to exclude composers of music from the benefits of the measure. At the same time, it must be admitted that there is no urgent need of legal protection of American composers, so far as prolongation of their copyrights is concerned. There are only three or four American com-

posers whose works are likely to be in the market more than four decades.

The law which, after years of wrangling, was recently passed by the British Parliament, is less in behalf of composers than of publishers. It was intended primarily to put a stop to the selling, for a few pennies, of pirated editions of sheet music by curb hawkers. This object, according to recent reports, has already been practically accomplished. But now the composers are lifting up their voices to point out how little, after all, the new law has done to help them—that is, those of them who pursue serious aims. Sir Charles Stanford, at a dinner given to T. P. O'Connor, who engineered the Copyright bill, intimated that what had been done was to secure the safety of "those works which produce the quickest returns and the largest profits"; and he bluntly intimated that, in return for this benefit, the publishers ought to feel in duty bound to devote a portion of their increased profits to the publishing of music which appeals to a smaller but an earnest circle of music-lovers. He had in mind symphonies, concertos, and other orchestral works, chamber music, sonatas for various instruments, important pianoforte music, and classical songs. By way of emphasizing English shortcomings, he referred to the publisher Belaïeff, who has greatly helped the best Russian music to make its way over two continents.

The publishers, as was to be expected, took up the gauntlet thus flung down. The Novellos, in their monthly periodical, the *Musical Times*, explain that this Belaïeff was an amateur music publisher—a millionaire, in fact, who chose to spend his money for the advancement of his country's music. To make sure that his good work might be continued after his death, he bequeathed a large sum to the Russian composers, Glazounoff, Liadoff, and Rimsky-Korsakoff, to be used in carrying out his propaganda. This music publishing *à la Russe* is therefore quite an exceptional thing. Would Professor Stanford suggest that publishers generally should run their business on these lines? Is there any particular duty imposed upon the publisher exclusively to pull the chestnuts out of the fire which is kindled by the student and fed on manuscripts?

William Boosey, the managing director of Chappell & Co., has also expressed his opinion on the situation in vigorous terms. He thinks the future of young English musicians is "appallingly dark," and he puts the blame for this on the public, the teachers, and the composers themselves. The recent popularity of orchestral music has killed the taste for chamber music; hence that particular market is spoiled, while the demand for orchestral scores is, of course, very limited. Then there are the professors

who, for the most part, "insist upon the students writing in certain forms that have no commercial value." Still another firm, the Messrs. Metzler, have declared that "not one song in a hundred sent in to them is worth a second thought, either as regards its artistic or market value"; yet, they add, "we have some magnificent songs, but can't sell them."

Sir Charles Stanford does not deny that the British publishers of music have done much for the furtherance of the art to which they minister. They have liberally encouraged oratorio and church music; they have produced cheap editions of classical master-works; and they have generously supported the schools of music. But the complaint is that the principal personage, the composer of merit or promise, has been overlooked. For him, little or nothing is done; the battle of life is, for him, as hard as ever. The publishers lack confidence—they do not look ahead, as some of the book publishers do, taking their chances. How, Sir Charles asks, would English literature be rated in Europe if its staple were six-shilling novels, while the works of Tennyson, Browning, Darwin, Huxley, Lecky, and Green remained in manuscript? Yet that is the musical situation in England to-day. If Schubert were alive, and living in England, and sent in his "Erlking," the publishers would return it with the comment that its difficult accompaniment would interfere with its sale.

Possibly, the British publishers, now that the new copyright law has restored to them due profits, will heed these words of reproach. If they do not, the salvation of the English composer must be sought in the person of some British Belaïeff. Indubitably, the munificence of that Mæcenas has done a great deal to make living Russian composers known in Europe and America. The thought suggests itself that perhaps the Belaïeff fund is behind the astonishingly numerous concerts of the Russian Symphony Society in New York. The American composer can only pray for a similar patron. On the whole, however, it cannot be said that the latter has very serious cause for complaint so far as the publishers are concerned. The catalogues of Ditson, Schirmer, Breitkopf & Härtel, Arthur P. Schmidt, the John Church Company, and others, teem with American compositions; and if they are mostly short pieces and songs, it is because the public taste is turning away from sonatas and symphonies; yet when a MacDowell writes a sonata, or a Paine a symphony, the publisher is glad to get it. Publishers, no doubt, have their faults; yet, in surveying the whole situation, one cannot but feel that Sir Charles is barking up the wrong tree. If musical genius is insufficiently fostered, the fault lies less with the publishers than with the pub-

lic, the conductors, the singers, the players, and the critics, most of whom are apt to ignore what is new unless it is also sensational.

HERESY TRIALS IN ENGLAND.

The condemnation of the Rev. Dr. Algonson S. Crapsey for heresy suggests a comparison with the very different fortune which would probably have befallen him if he had been a clergyman of the Established Church in England. There his recent utterances, which have led to his dismissal here, would have caused little comment, and probably no attempt would have been made to discipline him. This comes from the important difference between an established and an independent church. In this country any church which has a creed can discipline its clergy for heresy with no fear of any superior authority which can overrule its action. But in England every clergyman of the Established Church has the right of appeal from the judgment of an ecclesiastical tribunal to the courts of law, especially to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, which is the highest court of appeal in the kingdom. This body has, in several important cases, reversed the judgment of the ecclesiastical courts, and thus established precedents which give the clergy of the English Church a liberty of expressing opinions on matters of doctrine which would be impossible or dangerous in any orthodox church in this country.

The first case of this nature which came before the Judicial Committee on appeal is that of Gorham vs. the Bishop of Exeter. The Rev. George Gorham, some time fellow of Queen's College, Cambridge, who had been ordained as priest in 1812, was in 1846 offered a living in the gift of the Crown by the Lord Chancellor. The Bishop of Exeter, to whose diocese the living belonged, refused his assent to the appointment on the ground that Mr. Gorham was "of unsound doctrine concerning that great and fundamental point, the efficacy of the Sacrament of Baptism, . . . contrary to the plain teachings of the Church of England in her Articles and Liturgy." The case came before the Court of Arches, in which the Bishop was sustained. Mr. Gorham at once appealed to the Judicial Committee, which heard the case at a meeting at which Lord Campbell was present, while the Archbishops of Canterbury and York and the Bishop of London assisted "by special command of her Majesty the Queen." The judgment, from which one of the Council dissented, declared that "the Lord Bishop of Exeter has not shown sufficient cause why he did not institute Mr. Gorham to the vicarage." This judgment was approved and ordered to be "duly and punctually observed, complied with, and carried into execution" by an Order in Council passed by the Queen, Prince Albert, the Lord Chamberlain, Lord John Russell, Lord Palmerston, and others. The case was afterwards brought before the Court of Queen's Bench by the Bishop, who undertook to question the authority of the Queen in Council, and again in the Courts of Exchequer and Common Pleas, but without success.

The judgment of the Judicial Committee

contains an elaborate historical account of the doctrines held by the Church on the subject of baptism, leading to the conclusion that great latitude has here always prevailed and been permitted. It says:

It appears that opinions, which we cannot in any important particular distinguish from those entertained by Mr. Gorham, have been propounded and maintained, without censure or reproach, by many eminent prelates and divines. . . . We do not affirm that the doctrines and opinions of Jewel, Hooker, Usher, Jeremy Taylor, Whitgift, Pearson, Carlton, Prideaux, and many others, can be received as evidence of the doctrine of the Church of England; but their conduct, unblamed and unquestioned as it was, proves, at least, the liberty which has been allowed of maintaining such doctrine.

The judgment also contains this passage, with reference to the burial service of the Church:

In this service there are absolute expressions implying positive assertions; yet it is admitted that they cannot be literally true in all cases, but must be construed in a qualified or charitable sense. . . . It seems manifest that devotional expressions, involving assertions, must not, as of course, be taken to bear an absolute and unconditional sense.

A much more important case was the process against two of the writers of the celebrated "Essays and Reviews," published in 1860 by seven Oxford theologians, among whom were the late Archbishop Temple (the editor of the volume), Benjamin Jowett, and Mark Pattison. This volume roused a tempest in Oxford and in a great part of the Church, which it is hard to understand now. The views on various religious questions therein expressed though they would not cause much excitement now in England, were bold and radical at that day. The book was severely handled, even by some of the more conservative Unitarians in this country. The *North American Review*, then edited by Dr. Andrew P. Peabody, published a review of it under the title, "The Oxford Clergymen's Attack on Christianity," written by Professor Bowen of Harvard College. In this article the essays of Dr. Temple and Professor Jowett were selected for the severest criticism. It was felt in ecclesiastical circles in England that some serious action must be taken at once to suppress this rebellious spirit in the very heart of the Church, in Oxford itself. Two of the seven writers, Professor Rowland Williams and the Rev. H. B. Wilson, were at once summoned before the Court of Arches, and long passages were quoted from their essays which were believed to contain heretical and forbidden doctrines. Of the articles of charge several were rejected wholly or partially, and only three in each case were included in the judgment. Dr. Williams was charged with quoting with approval a passage from Chevalier Bunsen's "Gott in der Geschichte" (which he was reviewing), referring to the Bible as "an expression of devout reason, and therefore to be read with freedom."

Dr. Williams was further charged with using the following language:

Why may not justification by faith have meant the peace of mind or sense of Divine approval which comes of trust in a righteous God, rather than a fiction of merit by transfer?

The prosecutor held that all this was inconsistent with the articles of religion, which "impose the

obligation of acknowledging that the Bible, in matters essential to salvation, is the written Word of God; that it was written by the interposition of the Almighty, supernaturally brought to operate." Mr. Wilson was charged with declaring and affirming in effect that "the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament were not written under the inspiration of the Holy Spirit." He was also accused of declaring that "after this life and at the end of the existing order of things on this earth there will be no judgment of God, awarding to those men whom he shall then approve everlasting life or eternal happiness, and to those men whom he shall then condemn everlasting death or eternal misery," whereas the Creed of St. Athanasius contains the following words: "And they that have done good shall go into life everlasting, and they that have done evil into everlasting fire."

The Court of Arches condemned both of the accused clergymen, and the Dean of Arches sentenced each of them to suspension for one year. Both appealed without delay to the Queen in Council. The Judicial Committee revised the cases with great care, and after more than a year, the Lord Chancellor gave judgment in February, 1864, rejecting the articles of charge and reversing the sentences imposed by the Court of Arches, and adding the comforting words:

Inasmuch as the Appellants have been obliged to come to this Court, their Lordships think it right that they should have the costs of this Appeal.

Besides the Lord Chancellor and three other learned lords, there were present at the hearing the Archbishops of Canterbury and York and the Bishop of London. The two Archbishops dissented from the judgment on two of the six articles of charge. In the official report of this case, the following points are mentioned (among others) as decided or affirmed by the judgment:

- (1.) It is not penal in a clergyman to speak of "merit by transfer" as a fiction.
- (2.) It is not penal in a clergyman to deny the proposition that every part of every book of Holy Scripture was written under the inspiration of the Holy Spirit, and is the Word of God, that proposition not being found in the Articles of Formularies of the Church.
- (3.) There is not found in the three Creeds, the Absolution and the Burial and Communion Services, any such distinct declaration as to require the Court to condemn as penal the expression of hope by a clergyman that even the ultimate pardon of the wicked who are condemned on the day of judgment may be consistent with the will of Almighty God.

These decisions are now a part of the law of England. They naturally put a stop to the plan of next prosecuting Professor Jowett for the heretical doctrines of his essay on the Interpretation of Scripture, which our Unitarian reviewer found so dangerous. His enemies persecuted him for a time by curtailing his emoluments at Oxford, which did him little harm. He was soon made Master of Balliol, and afterwards Vice-Chancellor of the University. He always remained a friend of the most distinguished men in England, in both Church and State, and when he died, the Archbishop of Canterbury, his former companion in heresy, officiated at his funeral.

In 1863, while the case against the "Essays and Reviews" was in court, but before the Lord Chancellor had given his judgment, the Church was again convulsed by the

prosecution of Bishop Colenso at the Cape of Good Hope. Colenso had published a book on the Epistle to the Romans, and another on the Pentateuch and the Book of Joshua, both of which were thought by many to contain heretical and dangerous doctrines. Colenso was Bishop of Natal, and he had been, by letters patent of the Crown, made subject and subordinate to the Metropolitan Bishop of Cape Town, Dr. Gray. In July, 1863, when Colenso was in England, he was summoned to appear before the Bishop of Cape Town "to answer certain charges of false, strange, and erroneous doctrine and teaching," based on the two books above mentioned. In October, after consulting counsel in London, Colenso wrote a formal letter to Dr. Gray, denying the latter's jurisdiction over him, protesting against the proceedings against him, and declaring his intention of resisting the execution of any adverse judgment which might be delivered in his case. He positively refused to appear in person before the Bishop's court, but authorized his attorney to represent him, "not to argue, but simply to protest." To avoid delay, he admitted that he published the passages in question, but denied that this act constituted any offence against the laws of the Church. Dr. Gray, with two other bishops, then held a court and listened to the charges against Colenso, for whom no defence was made. He had probably learned more about the law of the case in London than was suspected at Cape Town. The published proceedings of the trial fill 405 pages. Judgment was given against Colenso; and he was sentenced to be deposed from his office as bishop, and prohibited from the exercise of any divine office in the province of Cape Town. His attorney then protested against the legality of the proceedings and the validity of the judgment, and at the same time gave formal notice that "the Bishop of Natal" would appeal from the judgment and resist its execution by all lawful means. The final result of the proceedings was a decision by the Judicial Committee of the Council that the Bishop of Cape Town had not jurisdiction, and that his judgment against Colenso was "null and void in law."

Colenso returned from England to Natal in 1865, and was warmly welcomed there by his friends. He remained there as bishop until his death in 1883, molested by petty annoyances from Dr. Gray until the death of the latter in 1872. In 1874 he revisited England, where he was warmly welcomed, though some of the unreconciled authorities of the Church still treated him as a proscribed heretic. The Bishop of London ordered that he should not be allowed to preach in his diocese, whereupon the Dean of Westminster invited him to preach in the Abbey whenever he pleased. This invitation was, however, declined by Colenso, in the interests of peace. He was invited to preach in Carfax Church in Oxford, but the Bishop of Oxford forbade this, and Colenso's sermon was read to the congregation by the rector. In the afternoon he preached in the chapel of Balliol College, by invitation of Jowett (then Master of Balliol), whose guest he was at the time. He returned to Natal the same year, where he was troubled by no more persecutions, and devoted himself chiefly to the interests of the native races of South Africa.

It may be thought that the intervention of the courts of law in matters of religion, and the right of a legal tribunal to decide what shall be called heresy in an official of the Church, deprive the Church of one of its natural rights, and make it a mere servant of the common law. But where the Church is established as a part of the State, it is inevitable that the highest judicial court shall be the final interpreter of the law which applies to the action of the Church when it undertakes to impose pains and penalties upon its officers. And in fact such controversies as I have described serve a good purpose in clearing the air. We hear little or nothing now in England of such prosecutions for heresy as that of the "Essays and Reviews." The Church of England as a whole appears to have acquiesced in the interpretation of the law as it was settled forty years ago. The single sentence quoted above from one of the Lord Chancellor's decisions:—"It seems manifest that devotional expressions, involving assertions, must not, as of course, be taken to bear an absolute and unconditional sense"—covers a large part of what ecclesiastical tribunals would call heresy if there were no authority to revise their action. Where there is no such authority, as in this country, it becomes a most important and necessary duty of the leaders in our orthodox churches to recognize the cases in which the literal meaning of "devotional expressions involving assertions" has become so far outgrown through the advance of knowledge that it is no longer accepted by large and increasing numbers of those who use them.

W. W. GOODWIN.

Cambridge, Mass.

BOOK NOTES FROM PARIS.

PARIS, December 5.

Among the more notable of recent books is a volume from Albert Lumbruso, the Italian collector, who publishes in French some new letters, medical notes, and other curious "Souvenirs de Maupassant" of the last unhappy period. The first volume of Zola's correspondence—for the year 1859, summing up his youth—is to appear at the end of January. It was a year of the peculiarly severe Grub Street of a poor young man, with only his labor and courage to conquer the world. With the announcement of this new book, Madame Zola has also taken definite steps to give to the two illegitimate children of her husband the right to bear his name; her own union had been sterile, and at the funeral she placed the son at the head of the mourners. As the children are doubly orphans, she has adopted them, and is providing for their higher education. Léo Claretie publishes the third volume (18th century) of his "Histoire de la Littérature Française (900-1900)"; it is readable, and for the general reader. Professor Haumont of Paris has a very complete historical and critical volume on "Ivan Tourguénief." A book that will interest many is the "Chansons de la vieille France," as gathered and sung by Madame Yvette Guilbert, with full music and illustrations.

Leon Frapié, the unknown city functionary of Paris who won the Goncourt prize, publishes another of his dolorous, minutely

realistic novels of the other half of French society, "La Proscrite." A novel which is creating talk on account of its acrid anti-and pro-Semitism at one and the same time is "La Juive," signed Enacryos, a name which thinly disguises those Belgian brothers Boex, who habitually write under the one signature, J. H. Rosny; their style has lost nothing of the forced violence which brought them into the Goncourt Academy, and their matter shows the same harsh eagerness to unveil souls.

The few love-letters of Gambetta, which have just been published, are but a small part of the all but daily correspondence which for ten years, absent or present, he carried on with his Egeria, the late Madame Léonie Léon. As he confided in her and consulted her about every action of his life, from health and amusement to the gravest affairs of state, with copious outpourings about the persons surrounding him, the importance of such a series to the history of the Third French Republic may be imagined. There are too many persons concerned still living for a publication of such letters to be made as they stand. The Gambetta family, on the death of Madame Léon a few weeks ago, at once took legal measures to prevent any use, without their consent, of the three thousand or more letters known to have been in her possession. The letters already printed are from copies made long ago, which had come into the possession of the ex-deputy, Francis Laur; they may best be compared as literature to Mirabeau's Rousseau-ish letters to his Sophie. The fate of the mass of the letters is doubtful. Madame Léon had drifted far from the free-thinking views which allowed her long *liaison* with Gambetta; and she has left all her papers to a Benedictine nun. It is expected that Government will make a pretext of Gambetta having possibly been in possession of public papers to lay hands on the entire correspondence—if it still exists. M. Hanotaux publishes the third volume of his important "Histoire de la France Contemporaine," concluding the Presidency of MacMahon from the Constitution of 1875 to the fatal 16th of May, when the Conservative Republic forever died in France; these were years very little preceding M. Hanotaux's own entrance into the Foreign Office at the beginning of his political career, which with the Radical Socialist triumph now seems definitively terminated.

A literary movement of young men, which will bear watching, is responsible for four Neo-Monarchist books. The leader, Charles Maurras, takes up the cudgels in a book on "Le Dilemme de Marc Sangnier"—an essay on religious democracy. Marc Sangnier's dilemma, which is worth meditating outside of France, runs: "On a mind without superstition sooner or later an imperious dilemma imposes itself—either Monarchic Positivism or Social Christianity." A still more interesting volume is by Louis Dimler, "the first Newmanist of France," on "Les Maîtres de la Contre-Révolution au XIXe Siècle"—showing the march backward of French serious thought through Joseph de Maistre, Bonald, Rivarol, Balzac, Paul Louis Courier, Sainte-Beuve, Taine, Renan, Fustel de Coulanges, Le Play, Proudhon, the Goncourt brothers, and Veillot. Count Léon de Montesquiou is author of "Le Sys-

tème Politique d'Auguste Comte"—the father of this mental reaction; and Georges Valois, converted by Carlyle and Nietzsche to Force and Faith, gives the philosophy of Authority in "L'Homme qui Vient," the coming master of democracy. Professor Dejob of the Sorbonne escapes into times less confused in "La Foi Religieuse en Italie au XI^e Siècle"—a work of erudition. Professor Gazier publishes "Études sur l'Histoire Religieuse de la Révolution Française."

"Le journal de Bord de la Belgica," by Philippe, Duc d'Orléans, is another book of royalties using their enforced leisure under democratic rule to explore Polar regions. The chief interest of the book is in its showing the Pretender to a defunct French throne as a man of action.

S. D.

Correspondence.

SCOPE OF THE NATIONAL MUSEUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your observations in your issue of December 6 regarding the scheme of development of the National Museum are of great interest, for on that scheme hangs the future success or failure of that institution. I think that thirty years of trial have fully and fairly demonstrated the futility of the effort that has persistently been made to combine an interstate exposition, requiring usually about sixty acres of ground, with a modern museum of science. Consider for a moment the nightmare exhibit of "mining and metallurgy," the hall of "materia medica," which even medical men regard with utter indifference—and the "textile fabrics" which fairly cumber the ground. I have personally conducted through the National Museum many intelligent visitors, and my knowledge of their opinions of the industrial side of the museum is not a matter of conjecture.

What people want in the National Museum is not commerce, nor manufactures, nor department-store materials. All those fields are covered in the great (and interminable) expositions; and it may be added that nothing less than a five-million-dollar exposition can handle properly a national fair. With all due respect and loyalty to the memories of Spencer F. Baird and G. Brown Goode, I think the commercial and industrial features in the plan of the National Museum are now entirely out of place, and the sooner they are relegated to the background the better for the institution, and the better for the public. I am quite certain that the American people expect in the National Museum a great museum of science—a field which surely is broad enough for any one establishment. They expect it to cover geology, paleontology, mineralogy, botany, zoölogy, anthropology, and astronomy, and cover them well. To accomplish such results, the plan of development should not be handicapped by commerce, the industries, or art. The national capital needs and should have a genuine national art gallery, as a great independent institution, and not as a side issue to the National Museum.

The future of the National Museum should be regarded with the calm and cold eye of business. It is folly to attempt the impossible, and it is not wise to persist in travelling a road that leads to failure. Even as far back as 1882, I had not been in the National Museum six months when I heard it contemptuously spoken of as a "national junk-shop"; and during the succeeding seven years I heard that term many times.

W. T. HORNADAY.

New York, December 13.

GRILLPARZER'S PROPHETIC DESCRIPTION OF ARCHDUKE OTTO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent death of the profligate Archduke Otto has sorely tried the loyal sentiments of the Austrian press. The newspapers have published columns upon columns of the gushing effusions usually called forth by the demise of princes, and but few have had more than veiled allusions to the scandals that made the name of the archduke during his life a byword and a hissing even in the court circles of Vienna. The *Neue Freie Presse* was one of the few papers which, while doing justice to the attractive personal traits the archduke undoubtedly possessed—he was a clever draughtsman and painter, and combined with a splendid physique a superficially engaging, easy good-nature—improved the occasion to speak of the temptations that beset princes from the days of their childhood, and of the flatterers that make it so hard for them to hear the voice of truth. These general remarks of the Vienna paper were long ago anticipated in that striking passage in Grillparzer's "Ein treuer Diener seines Herrn" (A faithful servant of his master), where Archduke Otto's prototype, Duke Otto von Meran, says of himself:

You call me bad, and bad I was and am,
Born on that hapless height where slaves abide
And sycophants, and men are never seen.
By flattery surrounded and upheld,
The toy of whim, tossed back and forth at will,
I plunged into the maddening whirl of life.
If bad I was, I might have been still worse,
If bad was all I taught, who taught me good?

It is interesting to recall that these mainly words were spoken in the Vienna of Metternich nearly eighty years ago ("Ein treuer Diener seines Herrn" was first performed in 1828), and that even the direct pressure brought to bear upon Grillparzer by the Emperor Francis was unable to force the poet to suppress the play. The characteristic incident is related at length in Grillparzer's "Autobiography," and is worthy of brief mention here. The day after the first performance of the tragedy, the president of the police, Count Sedlnitzky, sent for Grillparzer, and told him, with some embarrassment, that the Emperor had enjoyed his play so much that he wished to become exclusive owner of the manuscript. His Majesty was willing to compensate him for any pecuniary loss resulting to him from the withdrawal of the play from the stage. Grillparzer replied without hesitation that he was not contemptible enough to allow his work to vanish from the earth for any pecuniary inducement the Emperor could offer. The result of the interview was that the play, after a few performances, was withdrawn

from the Burgtheater, not to be revived until thirty years later.

GUSTAV POLLAK.

New York, December 10.

GREEK IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the recent discussion in your columns of Greek studies in the secondary schools I wish to emphasize the financial side of the matter. During 1902-4 the rules of the Chicago Board of Education provided that every class in the high schools must contain at least twenty pupils. Two years ago it was enacted that the smaller schools should be entitled to one teacher for every twenty-seven pupils in attendance and the larger schools one for every thirty-five. Inasmuch as every pupil has sixteen recitations per week and every teacher twenty-four, it will be seen that practically the size of classes was not much affected, varying from an average of eighteen in the smaller schools to twenty-three in the larger ones. The present rule is more complicated, but does not materially change the result.

Thus, a principal would rarely feel justified in giving so large a proportion of a teacher's time to third-year Greek, unless there were at least eighteen in the class. But to insure that many pupils for the "Iliad," the first and second-year classes must be considerably larger, so that at any one time the Greek enrolment would have to approximate seventy-five. Since the pupils are scattered in fifteen comparatively small schools, only a small percentage of them go to college at all; and since not all of these take the classical course, not a single high school in the city is normally in a position to offer instruction in Greek! Occasionally (a) some teacher is willing to teach Greek outside of school hours—but not even all of those wishing to study Greek are willing to take the subject under these conditions; (b) the pupil waits until he gets to college for his Greek; (c) if his parents can afford it, he attends a private school; (d) he changes from the classical to the Latin-scientific course. If this can happen in a city of the size, wealth, and importance of Chicago, no wonder that classical studies suffer elsewhere.

You may be interested in our experience with the "cheaper degree." Northwestern demands two languages from candidates for the B. A. degree, and at least one of these must be either Latin or Greek. While nearly as many continue to take both Latin and Greek as would do so with a stricter requirement, there has been a large increase in those taking these languages singly (especially Greek). It must be added, however, that there is also a resulting deterioration, for we do not find the modern language students so well equipped for studying Greek as are the Latin students. So there are things to be said both for and against the present system.

ROY C. FLICKINGER.

Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., December 11.

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish almost immediately the following: "The Tower of London," by Canon Benham, with colored plates from illuminated manuscripts, and other illustrations; "Stories of the Italian Artists," from Vasari, arranged and translated by E. L. Seeley; "Vittoria Colonna," with some account of her friends and her times, by Maud F. Jerrold; "Westminster Abbey, The King's Craftsmen": a Study of Mediæval Building, by N. R. Lethaby.

John Lane Company will soon publish "A Queen of Indiscretions," translated by Frederick Chapman from the Italian of Graziano Paolo Clerici. It is the story of Caroline of Brunswick, the unwise and unfortunate wife of George IV.

Henry Frowde is about to publish the Oxford edition of the "Dramatic Works of Sheridan," with an Introduction by Joseph Knight.

Taking advantage of the revived interest in Lafcadio Hearn and his works, Little, Brown & Co. have issued a reprint of his "Some Chinese Ghosts," written in 1886, when Hearn was in New Orleans.

The Oxford University Press publishes "The Complete Works of William Shakespeare," edited by W. J. Craig, in a single volume. The type, as in the Cambridge Shakspeare, is necessarily small; indeed, a one-volume Shakspeare should be used only for reference. The present issue contains a Glossary and Index of Names, but no notes.

Two new volumes in Crowell's First Folio Shakspeare contain "Henry the Fifth" and "As You Like It." We have more than once pointed out the usefulness of this cheap reprint of the Folio text, and commended the work of the editors, Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke.

No little ingenuity has been displayed by Paul Elder in making his "Mosaic Essays" (Paul Elder & Co.). By weaving together a series of brief quotations from every source he has constructed a series of fairly consecutive pages on friendship, love, happiness, nature, and success. By a clever device of printing, the authors of the quotations are inserted without breaking the flow of sentences too harshly. The book itself, of the holiday variety, is unique and attractive.

The American Unitarian Association issues four addresses by President Eliot on Franklin, Washington, Channing, and Emerson, in a single volume, entitled "Four American Leaders."

"It was the sight of the numerous English travellers following in the footsteps of 'Childe Harold' with Murray's handbook under their arms that suggested the first Baedeker," wrote Herr Baedeker himself to the London *Times*, in 1889. There is, thus, some reason for such a volume as Anna Benneson McMahan's "With Byron in Italy" (A. C. McClurg & Co.), which brings together the poems and letters which have to do with his life in Italy from 1816 to 1823. The photographic illustrations give added force to many of Byron's descriptions.

There are many different kinds of travel-books, and one of the most pleasing is the

garrulous, fanciful, idealizing, yet schematic chronicle of personality which Washington Irving and Longfellow taught us to savor. And of all knacks, that light yet satisfyingly absolute touch—that first fine careless rapture—is the hardest to catch. Most secrets of style are open nowadays, and everything can be attained by a method, but no one has written a second "Alhambra" or created a new "Hyperion." Yet that there are attempts we may be glad; they may lead us for brief moments in the old faery lands, though the gate to a disastrous and absurd bathos of reality is always too near. "Algiers," by M. Elizabeth Crouse (New York: James Pott & Co.) just misses this success. It has the whimsicality of preferring to know the East through Algiers, of all towns, and from a hotel villa, of all places. It has a healthy trust in very personal impressions and the courage to narrow much observation to simple, separate pictures. It has frequent felicity of phrase and sentence, pointed with individual insistence and caprice. But it explains, and the explanations are not convincing, either as art, or as learning. The art lacks the last touch, and the learning is painfully borrowed. That preliminary labor and carefully veiled scholarship which bottom the work of even the lightest of the great descriptive travellers do not show here. Charming as this book often is, it does not bring assurance with its interpretations. But it is often very charming.

The *Annales de Géographie* for November begins with a discussion of Friedrich Ratzel's theory of the geography of circulation given in his *Politische Geographie*. In the course of it many interesting and suggestive historical facts in regard to the great commercial highways of the world are brought in. How a country may be affected by the opening of a new avenue of trade is illustrated by the statement "that the construction of the Suez Canal has menaced so evidently the Turkish Empire that the development of the ways of communication in Asiatic Turkey, in the regions which have the fewest, has become the only means for preserving the empire." The editor, Vidal de la Blache, in the second and concluding article on the people of India as they appear in the census reports, treats of the movement of the population, the ethnography, languages, and religions. He does not believe that there is a great transformation of society going on through Western influences. The railroads far from dissolving the prejudices of caste have contributed to extend enormously their rule, and by the rendering pilgrimages easy have added to the ascendancy of the orthodox religion. That which the Indians owe above all to their present rulers is a clearer conviction of their rights. A sketch of the Geographical features of Cape Cod is contributed by Maurice Allorge, who suggests that in time Provincetown and Brest will be the two great Atlantic ports for passengers and mail. A resident of fourteen years in the basin of the Amazon, M. Le Cointe, says, as the result of his observations, that "the climate is warm, but not torrid, debilitating and enervating, but not essentially unhealthy, the notorious insalubrity of some regions being due to local and removable causes."

The popularity of even established names

comes and goes, and just now Blake is on the crest. But recently we had Mr. Sampson's accurate text of the lyric poems; next came a much-desired reprint of Swinburne's monograph; after that was the handsomely illustrated edition of Gilchrist's Life. The most recent work is "The Letters of William Blake, together with His Life by F. Tatham" (Scribners), edited by A. G. B. Russell. Tatham, sculptor and miniature-painter, knew Blake in his last years most intimately, and his account of the poet is the best contemporary document we have. He has been the object of much contumely because from religious scruples he was led to burn the greater part of the Blake MSS. that passed into his hands after the death of Mrs. Blake. Mr. Russell vindicates Tatham's honesty, and the Life certainly has the ring of sincerity. It does not add much to our knowledge of Blake derived from Gilchrist, and it is not particularly well written, but so far as it goes it strengthens the growing opinion that Blake was at bottom eminently sane beneath all his visionary excesses. The most striking paragraph in the book is the account of Blake's ecstatic death, of which Tatham was apparently an eye-witness. The best of the letters, especially the extraordinary reports of the writer's spiritual moods while in the service of Hayley at Felpham, are already familiar from Gilchrist's Life, but the present collection, as complete as the editor could make it, is highly welcome. Again the effect is to confirm the notion of Blake's sanity and scrupulous honesty. It must be added that Mr. Russell's Introduction is written from large knowledge, and is a really valuable essay on Blake as an artist. From careful investigation he accepts as substantially correct the account given by Tatham of Blake's method of painting, which Linnell and others after him have disputed.

In "Friends on the Shelf" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) Bradford Torrey writes a very pretty style. It is lithe and simple. Within its own limits it is resourceful, too, and full of variety; but its bounds are narrow. Or rather, it is the thought which lacks compass. There is a general sameness about Mr. Torrey's subjects; at least he sees them all in much the same light. It is his way to take an author to himself, rather than to give himself up to the author. Fairly characteristic of his usual attitude, or point of view, is the paper on FitzGerald. It is neatly done. The theme is evidently "sympathetic." But he has over-refined upon the original, subduing and "toning" away whatever ruggedness or saliency it ever possessed. His handling is all in the interest of "favor and prettiness." But in this particular case, as the effect is more or less suitable, the result is not unhappy. The essay on Anatole France, however, is much less successful. With respect to the subject the tone is altogether false. To his author's malice, irony, and lubricity he seems, on the whole, insensible; or if crossed occasionally by an uneasy suspicion, he dismisses it immediately. The kindly, indulgent visionary, the gentle dweller in dream and illusion whom he sketches, has little resemblance to the skeptic and licentious reality. It is not so very difficult, after all, to make a character en-

tertaining; but to make it like, that's the difficulty. Among all Mr. Torrey's portraits, FitzGerald and Anatole France, Thoreau and Stevenson, there is a remarkable family likeness. They all contain apparently certain features which are favorites of Mr. Torrey's and which he likes to trace in the world of letters. They are admirable and engaging traits, and they are pleasant to read about. Alas that in reality they should occur so seldom!

"Orthography," the address on the question of spelling reform, delivered September 15, at the annual commencement of Leland Stanford Junior University, by President Benjamin Ide Wheeler of the University of California, is issued in pamphlet by the trustees of Stanford. The address, with a brief introduction by Louis Dyer of Oxford, has also been printed as a six-penny pamphlet in England. President Wheeler urges, among other propositions, the following:

The establishment for the United States of a standard of written English different from that recognized elsewhere in the English-speaking territory is an isolating and divisive movement promising loss and waste to intercourse and culture; and introducing consciousness of contrariety where the opposite is desired. The needless irritation caused by the minor differences already existing points ominously to what would result from greater.

The English language is not the property of the people of the United States, still less of its Government; it is a precious possession of the English-speaking world, and the moral authority to interfere in its regulation must arise out of the entire body, and not from a segment thereof.

In regard to the changes proposed by the Simplified Spelling Board, President Wheeler says:

The interests here involved are too serious to be treated craftily or on the principle of the entering wedge. If these are all the changes to be made, they lack system and are unworthy. If more are to be exacted, let us know what we are doing.

In "The Power to Regulate Corporations and Commerce" (G. P. Putnam's Sons) Frank Hendrick contends that there is a national common law, and that this, in combination with the Constitution as it now stands, gives to the Federal Government adequate power to regulate corporations and commerce. The opening chapter (pp. 1-51), entitled "Historical Introduction—the Unwritten Constitution," fails to demonstrate its connection with the general subject. The remainder of the volume, though more pertinent, is still more disappointing. The text is composed largely of extracts from treatises and judicial opinions, usually with proper marks of quotation; but the treatises are chosen with little discrimination, and in selecting extracts from opinions the author fails to profit by one of his own quotations (p. 482) to the effect that an opinion "cannot be relied upon as binding authority unless the case called for its expression." The author's discussions are, it must be said, not always intelligible. Examples of unconvincing treatment of well-known topics may be found in the comments upon the Dartmouth College Case (pp. 74-78) and the Dred Scott Case (pp. 83, 84); and a sufficient example of the frequent indistinctness of the author's language may be found in the conclusion (especially pp. 498, 499).

In a recent issue of the Copenhagen

Tilskueren ("Spectator") Holger Pedersen compares the work of Kristoffer Nyrop, best known outside his native country through his monumental "Grammaire historique de la langue française," and Otto Jespersen, author of "Growth and Structure of the English Language." Both are professors at the University of Copenhagen, Nyrop holding the chair of Romance languages, while Jespersen devotes himself to English alone. Mr. Pedersen sees in Nyrop primarily the historian, while Jespersen is the philosopher of language. Nyrop has published books and pamphlets and articles on the most diverging subjects, and has made a study of a wide group of related languages. Yet the scope of his achievement is deemed more narrow than that of his less versatile colleague, who, though familiar with a dozen languages lying so far apart as Danish and Chinese, Finnish and Bantu, traces the law of growth almost exclusively in the two tongues that he has mastered completely, namely, Danish and English. Nyrop follows the development of some twenty varieties of the Romance group back to the common mother tongue in order to outline the history of the most important among them. Jespersen is culling instances from every language and dialect coming within his ken in order that he may find and formulate the general laws of human speech. Thus, the two scholars complement each other. The red thread running through all Jespersen's writings is the idea that the comparative perfection of a language must be measured not by the variety and the completeness of its forms but by practical usefulness. And as simplicity makes for usefulness, Jespersen holds that the process of simplification noticed, for instance, in the English language, is a sign of growth, and not, as some German philologists have held, of degeneration.

The translation of Paul Gruyer's "Napoleon, King of Elba" (J. B. Lippincott Co.), to use the English title of the book, fails to convey any literary value that the French may have. Apart from this, the subject is decidedly barren. At Elba Napoleon did nothing but mark time and keep his own counsel, so that there is little enough to be extracted from the episode. The author sets out a good part, though not by any means all, that is known, in adequate fashion. The illustrations are of moderate interest.

An introductory note by Dr. J. H. Rose and a number of illustrations serve for the republication of "Napoleon's Last Voyages" (Scribners). The text contains Ussher's and Glover's (Cockburn) journals of the journeys to Elba and St. Helena. Dr. Rose's introduction is of no particular importance, but several of the illustrations are new and interesting.

Miss Grace Norton has followed up her "Studies in Montaigne" with "Le Plutarque de Montaigne: Selections from Amyot's Translation of Plutarch Arranged to Illustrate Montaigne's Essays" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Her main purpose is essentially scholarly, and has been executed in scholarly fashion. She prefixes Montaigne's cue to the several passages in Amyot on which he drew; and in regular progression we thus have, in Amyot's swinging Boccaccian style, those stories from the "Lives" and, more extensively, from the "Moral

Treaties" which have become commonplace. We are shown how Montaigne often took bodily from Amyot with or without slight variations; how he carelessly and sometimes perversely reports Plutarch's content, alters his names, embodies him ("stole" is Miss Norton's phrase) without the usual acknowledgment, ascribes to him what the Frenchman borrowed from another, not seldom improves the Greek relation. In this houndlike pursuit of leads, often very obscure, Miss Norton has surpassed her predecessors, and pushes research even to satisfying herself that Plutarch's quotation of Cicero's remark on Cæsar (p. 128) is not to be found in the orator's extant writings. In her judicious footnotes and prefaces she helps clear up the sense of Amyot's sixteenth-century French, which presents few difficulties in spite of the untouched punctuation. So much said (and it is too little by way of suggesting Miss Norton's admirable painstaking), we recommend her delectable anthology to all who read modern French with ease. Let us cite Amyot's version of "War is hell" in Camillus's rejection of a proffered betrayal of the besieged Falerians (p. 6): "—que la guerre estoit bien chose mauvaise, et où il se faisoit beaucoup de violence et d'oultrages; mais toutefois qu'encore y avoit il entre gens de bien quelques loix," etc. Or again, compare Xerxes's menace to Mount Athos (p. 4), "merveilleux, qui de ta cyme touches au ciel, garde toy bien, . . . autrement je te denonce que je te couperay toy-mesme, et te jeteray dedans la mer," with that grander Orientalism, "Who art thou, O great Mountain? Before Zerubbabel thou shalt become a plain!" An Athenian boycott of the murderers of Socrates is familiarly described at page 172. The book is handsomely printed, but the division of words is not always *à la française*, as (p. 67), pub-lique, (p. 69) mag-nificquement, (102) re-spirer, (129) re-spondit.

Prof. A. Guyot Cameron has issued, through Henry Holt & Co., a volume of selections from Zola, with a biographical and critical introduction of fifty-nine pages. The bibliography, if not so complete as Vizetelly's, nevertheless bristles with French, English, and American criticism. There are also useful notes. Some of the more notable selections are "L'Île du Diable"—the prison of the unfortunate Dreyfus—"L'Émeute," from the mine story; "La Défense de Bazeilles," a touch of the Franco-Prussian war, and the "Lettre à la France," in defence of the outraged Jew. In several instances the date of first-production of the essays is lacking.

Herbert C. Sanborn has edited Von Scheffel's "Trompeter von Säckingen" for Ginn & Co. The entire poem is given—287 pages; there is a fair portrait of the author, and a twenty-six-page introduction, biographical in nature. The text is heroically annotated, Greek mythology and other subjects that one would expect to find in a good book of reference being explained in detail. This contributes to make the book too large, too unwieldy, and too expensive for an average high school or college text.

A monograph on "The Stress Accent in Latin Poetry," by Elizabeth H. du Bois (Columbia University Press, the Macmillan Company, agents), is commended by Prof.

Harry Thurston Peck in a prefatory note as containing "a condensed and careful summing up of the most authoritative evidence" on the subject and "an ingenious and plausible theory of the Saturnian verse," with an endeavor to reconcile the opposing views as to the apparent clash between word-accent and ictus in the classical meters. The little book of ninety-six pages fairly justifies Professor Peck's imprimatur, notwithstanding a too frequent looseness of statement, careless proof-reading, and the small ratio of original discussion to mere summarizing of the views of others.

Jeremiah Curtin, well known as a translator of Russian novels, died at Burlington, Vt., last Friday. He was said to be proficient in seventy languages and dialects. Born in Milwaukee in 1840, Mr. Curtin early acquired a rudimentary knowledge of German, Norwegian, and Polish by talking to the emigrant settlers of the neighborhood. Later, when he went to Harvard, his skill as a linguist was further developed. After his graduation in 1863, he was appointed by President Lincoln secretary of the legation at St. Petersburg. While there he met Sienkiewicz, and it was the Polish author himself who suggested that Mr. Curtin undertake the translation of his works. Later Mr. Curtin became consul-general at St. Petersburg. He travelled extensively, and wrote entertainingly of his journeys. For many years he lived among the Indians in remote parts of California; and he was engaged for a time in work for the Bureau of Ethnology of the Smithsonian Institution. He was author of a number of books relating to folk literature, among them "Myths and Folk Tales of Ireland," "Western Slavs and Mongols," "Hero Tales of Ireland," "Creation Myths of Primitive America and Their Religious and Mental Relation to the History of Mankind," and "The Mongols." His best-known translation is that of Henryk Sienkiewicz's "Quo Vadis."

We read that Mrs. John La Touche has died in Dublin at the age of eighty-one. She was the mother of the "Rosie" of the "Praeterita," whose death in 1872 affected Ruskin so profoundly. He had first met her in Florence in 1858, when she was a child of ten, and had given her lessons in drawing.

One of the small questions of literature is why Charlotte Brontë married the Rev. Arthur Bell Nicholls. A correspondent of the London *Times*, writing of his recent death, gives a picture of the man which quite explains the act. Nicholls, it is well known, was the curate of Charlotte's father at Haworth, and was taken off by her in "Shirley" under the thin veil of Mr. Macarthey. He accepted the satire hilariously, and read the account of the curate aloud to Mr. Brontë, roaring with laughter, and positively triumphing in his own character. On first offering his hand he was rejected by Mr. Brontë with some scorn, and left the parish. But he corresponded with Charlotte, and after a while was recalled by the vicar, who needed his earnest, honest support in the parish work. She was thirty-eight at the time of the engagement; he was thirty-seven, "a broad-shouldered and strong-framed man, with a premature passion for fresh-air and open windows, extremely in earnest in regard to

the prosecution of his work, and secretly determined to make an ideal clergyman's wife of Charlotte Brontë." The character seems attractive enough. After her death, he devoted himself to her father, and his implicit disapproval of Mrs. Gaskell's Life was because he thought that work undervalued the old vicar. Some time after Mr. Brontë's death he returned to Ireland and settled on a farm.

Vladimir Stassow, the well-known Russian essayist in the field of art, music, literature, and archæology, has died in St. Petersburg at the age of eighty-two. He was best known for his studies of the Russian sagas. Of late years he had been employed in the Imperial Public Library, where he devoted much time to the study of early literary sources.

Julian Klaczko, whose death in his seventy-ninth year is reported from Cracow, was the son of a Jewish clockmaker. He studied at Königsberg and Heidelberg, assisted Gervinus in literary undertakings, and held a position in the Austro-Hungarian Foreign Office. He wrote a number of books on Polish literature. His "Causeries Florentines" won him a prize from the Académie Française.

"Minerva" for 1906-1907 (Lemcke & Buechner) comes to us thicker by a number of pages, the increase being due to a complete revision and extension of the part dealing with France. The frontispiece is an excellent photogravure of President Nicholas Murray Butler.

A list of books useful for teachers and students of the kindergarten is published in the December Bulletin of the Boston Public Library. It includes works on the history of education, child and nature study, the kindergarten theory and practice, with a selection of stories, poems, songs, and games.

The Bureau of Education at Washington has just issued, in Bulletin No. 2, 1906, a summary of the report of the Royal Prussian Commission which visited this country in 1904 to examine our educational system. One of the most striking passages in the bulletin is a comparison between German schools and American, written by Dr. Dunker of Berlin:

While with us the school frequently points out to the children the inadequacy of their work, holds them to the perfect solution of minor tasks with painful attention to all difficulties, and overwhelms them with difficulties and exceptions, the opposite practice prevails in the American school. Difficulties are avoided, mistakes passed by; frequently the pupils are given great tasks whose performance would exceed their power, and the school is satisfied with a childish treatment of the subject and makes the impression upon the children that the problem has been fully solved. This results in quickness of judgment, self-confidence, superficiality, and dilettantism (*Lünnhaftigkeit*).

The twenty-fourth annual meeting of the Modern Language Association will be held at Yale University, December 27 to 29. Those who will speak or present papers are W. L. Cross, A. S. Cook, Kenneth McKenzie, C. C. Glascock, G. M. Baker, J. M. Berdan, C. C. Clark, and Rudolph Schevill of Yale; Albert Schinz and P. W. Long, Bryn Mawr; Camillo von Klenze, Brown; N. E. Griffin, G. H. Gerould, R. K. Root, and J. P. Hoskins, Princeton; H. A. Todd, Brander Matthews, J. E. Spingarn, J. L.

Gerig, and G. P. Krapp, Columbia; Charles Harris, Western Reserve; C. P. G. Scott, New York city; Lane Cooper, Cornell; E. C. Roedder, University of Wisconsin; C. A. Smith and J. D. Bruner, University of North Carolina; W. W. Newell and Dr. Lucy Allen Paton, Cambridge, Mass.; J. B. Henneman, University of the South; J. W. Cunliffe, McGill; C. A. Eggert, New Haven; P. A. Hutchison, Harvard; T. S. Baker, Jacob Tome Institute; E. C. Adler, William Penn Charter School; W. E. Bohn, University of Michigan; Miss Gertrude Buck and Miss L. J. Wylie, Vassar; P. G. A. Busse, Ohio State University; Joseph Dunn, Catholic University; A. A. Kern, Millsaps College; C. J. Kullmer, Syracuse University; R. A. Law, University of Texas; R. L. Ramsay, Johns Hopkins; O. M. Johnston, Leland Stanford. The American Dialect Society will hold its meeting at New Haven on December 28.

The twelfth annual meeting of the Central Division of the Modern Language Association of America will be held at the buildings of the University of Chicago December 27 to 29.

The programme of the third annual meeting of the American Political Science Association at Providence, December 26 to 29, includes addresses and papers by President W. H. P. Faunce, J. Q. Dealey, and L. F. Ward, Brown University; the Hon. Simeon E. Baldwin, New Haven; J. W. Jenks, Cornell; Rear-Admirals C. S. Sperry and F. E. Chadwick, Newport; C. N. Gregory and F. E. Horack, State University of Iowa; P. S. Reinsch, University of Wisconsin; G. H. Haynes, Worcester Polytechnic Institute; W. B. Weeden, Providence; Albert Shaw, W. C. Johnson, and Poultney Bigelow, New York; M. H. Robinson and J. W. Garner, University of Illinois; Senator W. W. Armstrong, Rochester; W. G. L. Taylor, University of Nebraska; C. E. Merriam, University of Chicago; J. E. Shea and Alleyne Ireland, Boston; Charles Johnson, Flushing, N. Y.; Stephen Leacock, McGill; C. L. Jones, University of Pennsylvania; H. C. Morris, Chicago; the Hon. W. F. Willoughby, San Juan, Porto Rico; A. H. Snow and O. P. Austin, Washington, D. C.

The Supplement (1902-05) of "The United States Catalog" is something more than a mere reprint of the "Cumulative Book Index" for those years, as published by the H. W. Wilson Co. More than two thousand books have been entered which were omitted from the "Index" because the price or publisher could not then be found. And in all cases there has been complete revision of prices and other data furnished by the publishers.

The librarian of the University of Munich, H. Schnorr von Carolsfeld, remarks in the November *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* on the growing interest which the public is taking in the management and affairs of libraries. He points out that favorable and unfavorable comment alike should receive careful attention by librarians. Dr. Schnorr selects one desideratum which has lately been put forward from many quarters; namely, that less time should be required in getting books that have been called for. He suggests as a remedy the selection of a special collection of the books and periodicals that are most frequently called for, as an in-

termediary between the reference collection and the general collection in the stacks. These books might be given out with somewhat less formality than those in the stack. Such an arrangement would be of great advantage, not only to the users of the libraries, but to the library authorities as well, in doing away with a large amount of wasteful routine.

The movement inaugurated by W. P. Cutter of the Forbes Library to consolidate the library interests of the country in opposition to the proposed change in the copyright law, whereby libraries would be deprived of their present privilege of the free importation of foreign editions of American books, has secured wide support.

At the auction rooms of Hodgson & Co., London, in the week ending December 1, the following prices were obtained: Shakspeare's "Poems," with portrait by Marshall, first edition, 1640, £220; "The Whole Contention between the Two Famous Houses of Lancaster and York," 1619, £75; "The Tragedy of Hamlet," 1637, £107; "The Merchant of Venice," 1637, £237; "Sir John Oldcastle," 1600, £64; Kelmscott Press Chaucer, £48, and Doves Press Bible, 5v., £10.

At the sale of books and manuscripts of L. W. Hodson of Wolverhampton, by Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge, London, December 3, 4, and 5, Caxton's Chaucer, 1475, 65 leaves only, brought £105, and another fragment of 32 leaves £62; the Kelmscott Press publications, on vellum, 25 works, including the Chaucer, £744. The original manuscripts of William Morris's published works, 24 in all, sold for £1,239 5s. Manuscripts on vellum brought the following prices: St. Augustine's "Sermones Super Psalmos," twelfth century, £48; Bede's "Historia Ecclesiastica," twelfth century, £76; Biblia Latina Vulgata, northern French, illuminated, thirteenth, £390; another, finely illuminated, fourteenth, £630; Legenda St. Catherinae de Siena, circa 1450, £240; Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales," fifteenth century, £180; Gratianus, "Decretales," illuminated, fourteenth, £440; Horae, richly illuminated, fifteenth, £660; Missale Romanum, Italian, finely illuminated, fifteenth, £135; Psalter, decorated, fifteenth, £104; another, ad Usum Sarum, fourteenth, £210; Testamentum Latinum Vulgatum, with miniatures, twelfth, £670.

Feill a' Chomuinn Ghaidhealaich (Highland Association Bazaar) will be held in St. Andrew's Halls, Glasgow, October 31 and November 1 and 2, 1907, to raise money in order to promote the teaching of Gaelic; to develop Gaelic literature, music, and art; and to encourage home industries among the Gaels. The movement, under the presidency of the Duchess of Argyll, has already secured the support of many influential Scots.

STUDIES IN HISTORY.

The Purchase of Florida, its History and Diplomacy, 1776-1819. By Hubert Bruce Fuller. With Maps. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company.

Scholarly work in the field of American diplomacy is so rare as to merit cordial approval when it appears; and this book of Mr. Fuller's on the diplomacy attending the purchase of Florida from Spain is so far superior to the majority of essays on

the foreign relations of the United States which have appeared in recent years, that it is welcome alike to the student and the general reader. The work is well-proportioned, judicial, and eminently readable, and in it we have the only treatment of a controversy, vexatious to all concerned and far from creditable to American diplomacy, that can be considered even approximately thorough.

Passing rapidly over the early history of the Floridas, Mr. Fuller begins his narrative proper with Gardoqui's letters to Jay, secretary of foreign affairs under the Confederation in 1786, regarding the western boundaries between Spain and the United States. With admirable skill he traces the course of an intricate, tortuous, and exasperating governmental policy, based on doubtful, and even false, claims, and shaped by a public opinion that was inflamed by hatred of the dilatory and diplomatic Spaniard and by the aggressions of Jackson before and during the Seminole war. The situation was often one of great confusion; on one side was the United States Government, confronted by the schemes of separatists in the Southwest, the intrigues of filibusters, the unrestrained license of frontier settlers, the savage forays of Indians maddened by unjust treatment, and the widespread popular suspicion of England and Spain; on the other was Spain, reduced to powerlessness by the machinations of Godoy and the pitiless policy of Napoleon, yet proudly endeavoring to save something from the wreck of her colonies, and to maintain the appearance at least of an independent power. Through the mazes of this complicated labyrinth Mr. Fuller threads his way with caution and self-restraint. He adheres closely to the purpose in hand, and refuses to be drawn aside into a discussion of related events, such as the Louisiana Purchase, the Burr Expedition, and the war of 1812, except so far as they throw light on the subject under consideration.

Mr. Fuller has the courage to believe that he can be truthful and yet not unpatriotic, and refuses to be influenced by the unproved assertions of those who charge Spain with duplicity, and England with aggression. He finds little to commend in the attitude of Jefferson, Monroe, John Quincy Adams, and Andrew Jackson, who shaped the policy of the administration toward Spain during this period. He believes that the diplomacy employed to win Florida from the hands of impotent Spain was born of might, not of right; that it was cradled in casuistry, and that it can be justified only by reference to the fetish of manifest destiny. That he is right, no one who reads his narrative can doubt, and the conclusion is irresistible that in the case of Florida, as later of Mexico, the United States won success at the expense of honor.

Excellent as is Mr. Fuller's book and valuable as are the new facts that it contains, it is open to two serious criticisms. The material upon which it is based is inadequate, and the knowledge which it displays of European diplomatic situations is insufficient. Mr. Fuller has been content with the foreign correspondence in print in the American state papers and in manuscript in the diplomatic archives of the Department of State, and has taken no account of the material in Spanish archives

at Simancas, in the archives of the Indies at Seville, and in the Archivo Histórico-Nacional at Madrid. There is scarcely a point touched upon in this book that would not have been better treated had the writer studied the more complete evidence for the Spanish side of the case. Mr. Fuller can hardly have been ignorant of the existence of this material, inasmuch as a careful review of its character was printed in the report of the American Historical Association two years ago. Whether further research on his part would have altered his general conclusions may be doubted, but that it would have strengthened his presentation of many minor and some major issues is certain. For example, there is a large number of documents arranged under the *negociado* of the United States in the archives at Madrid, which throw light on the strained relations between Spain and the United States in the years from 1817 to 1819, a subject in the treatment of which Mr. Fuller is not at his best.

In the second place, Mr. Fuller does not handle the intricacies of European diplomacy with the sure touch of an expert. We do not refer to the more secret aspects of British and French policy, to discover which a search among the papers of the British Foreign Office or of the Archives des Affaires Étrangères or Archives Coloniales at Paris would be necessary in order to supplement the results of an examination of the Washington archives, to which Mr. Fuller has limited himself. We have in mind the more familiar diplomatic situations which every student of diplomacy ought to have at his finger tips.

For example, Mr. Fuller says that "since the termination of the Napoleonic wars and the second treaty of Paris (1815), England had become isolated and now (1818) stood alone against the Continental Powers" (pp. 253-254). The facts are these: In 1818 was held the conference of Aix-la-Chapelle, at which England, represented by Castlereagh, took a leading part and was so far from isolated or standing alone that Lord Liverpool's government has been severely judged because of its sympathetic coöperation with the other Powers in the work of that conference. Furthermore, the Powers acted in friendly accord at Aix-la-Chapelle, and in discussing the relations between Spain and her colonies agreed that interference by force was undesirable, and that mediation was the wiser and more equitable policy. Mr. Fuller has no right to assume, as he does in the same paragraph, that had England and the United States gone to war in 1818, the Continental Powers would have taken advantage of that event to aid Spain in coercing her rebellious colonies. Metternich's policy of intervention did not triumph till 1820, a year after the close of the negotiations which ended in the purchase of Florida, and it was not until the Congress of Verona, in 1822, that the decision to intervene in the affairs of Spain was actually reached. Therefore, Mr. Fuller's later statement (p. 281) that in 1815 "Continental Europe formed the holy alliance to help the Spanish Bourbons, to the extent even of subduing her (*sic*) rebellious colonies" is manifestly incorrect. Though it is true that after 1822 fears of European intervention in Spanish-American affairs were felt in the United States, and gave rise

to Monroe's famous message of 1823, yet it is extremely doubtful if the European Powers, among whom France was the only maritime State, ever seriously considered sending troops across the ocean. It is true that from 1823 to 1826 England seemed for the moment isolated, because of her refusal to accept the decision reached at Verona, but the isolation was more apparent than real, and came to an end in 1826, with her agreement with Russia on the Greek question. Mr. Fuller has made the serious mistake of supposing that the diplomatic situation after 1822 existed also in the years from 1815 to 1819.

Mr. Fuller has written an admirable book, and it is much to be regretted that he has not had a little more patience to extend his researches and to make more sure his grasp upon general diplomatic history that his work might have been exhaustive in treatment and, as near as possible, final in all its judgments.

The Guilds of Florence. By Edgumbe Staley. Illustrated after miniatures in illuminated manuscripts and Florentine woodcuts. With bibliographical and chronological tables. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$5 net.

Among Mr. Staley's numerous disqualifications for the task which he has essayed may be counted an insufficient knowledge of the general history of Tuscany, and a fixed determination to maintain the preëminence of Florence and her people over all her rivals. "This," he says, "I am entitled to hold and to set forth from the nature of the case. She was not only the Head of the Tuscan League, but the Head of Modern Civilization" (p. vii.). Such a position may or may not be tenable, but the attempt to establish it is fatal to the merits of the work before us, since the author embarks upon his enterprise in the spirit of an advocate, and is so blinded by his partisanship that he recklessly tramples on the historical verities and boldly claims for his protégés virtues which they never possessed, and glories which indisputably belong to other nations. Probably the most flagrant instance of such disingenuousness is to be found on page 13, where the Battle of Montaperti becomes a Florentine victory! But this by no means stands alone. "All trade routes converged upon Florence" (p. 23). In direct opposition to all contemporary evidence, the integrity of the Florentine judges is belauded to the skies (p. 91); and we are informed that "liberty of industry was always a distinguishing mark in the political constitutions of the Republic" (p. 50). Everything that is good is of Florentine origin. Even cricket and football must no longer be regarded as English sports, having been borrowed from Florence in the sixteenth century (pp. 481-2). In support of such assertions Mr. Staley can, of course, produce no proof and no authority; and therefore, in direct proportion to the weakness of his case, his asseverations become more positive. "This," he says, speaking of *Palla e Maglio* (*sic*), "was without doubt, the parent of the British national game."

It is, however, only fair to admit that Mr. Staley's inaccuracy is equally conspicuous and all-pervading when it profits

neither him nor his clients anything—inaccuracy of statement, inaccuracy of style. From the preface to the bibliography the book is crammed with mistakes.

As a reason for shirking original research, Mr. Staley informs us that "the early Constitutions and Statutes of many of the Guilds were written in an almost insoluble mixture of abbreviated Latin and vernacular Tuscan—the deciphering of which would easily consume any man's natural lifetime." The worth of such an excuse will be best appreciated by those who have worked in the *archivi* of Italian cities; but we can well believe that, in Mr. Staley's case, the difficulties were indeed insurmountable, since his knowledge even of modern Tuscan appears to be extremely limited. Numerous examples might be cited; it is sufficient to quote his translation of *Macstri d'Abace e Gramatici* as "Rope and Hemp-merchants" (p. 60).

The bibliography is as remarkable for its omissions as for the number of excellent works which it contains, and which, if Mr. Staley had read them intelligently, might have saved him from innumerable errors. Yet the omissions are none the less significant for that. How is it possible to deal adequately with "reprisals" (*rappresaglie*), and especially with Florentine reprisals, without some knowledge of the monumental work of Professors Del Vecchio and Casanova? or with the great struggle between Florence and Siena for commercial supremacy without studying the works of Zdekauer, Mengozzi, and Paoli, and above all the *Lettere Volgari*? The list of important omissions might be increased indefinitely; but enough has probably been said to prove that the work is thoroughly untrustworthy.

TWO VIEWS OF AMERICA.

The Future in America: A Search After Realities. By H. G. Wells. New York: Harper & Bros. \$2 net.

Mr. Wells spent only six or seven weeks in America, and yet he has produced a book to be reckoned with. He has struck some nails on the head that have, perhaps, never been struck before—at least with so emphatic a hammer. Mr. Wells is properly apologetic, and even modestly compares himself to an ant crawling over the carcass of an elephant. An eagle, however, can see more of a country in one short flight than an ant in the whole course of its existence; and if Mr. Wells is not an eagle, he has at least the eye of a hawk.

Those who know Mr. Wells only from one of the least successful of his fantastic romances (such as "The Food of the Gods" or "The First Men in the Moon") must disabuse their mind of the notion that he is merely a sort of superior Jules Verne for adults. They must think of this critic of America as the sociologist (much as he would disclaim the label), who is now beginning to be taken seriously in Great Britain; as the author, translations of whose writings are widely read and highly appreciated in France. They must also recognize that this book is no mere record of the disconnected experiences of a passing traveller, but that it is, so far as it goes, a searching examination of the United States in the light of a definite philosophy of human progress. Like Heraclitus, Mr.

Wells is interested in Becoming rather than in Being. The date that attracts him in regard to America is not 1776, but 1976. He rejects the "scientific" method of marshalling past experiences in favor of the "critical, literary, even, if you will, artistic" methods. It is the "poietic power of exceptional individual men" that counts. His "hero in the confused drama of human life is intelligence inspired by constructive passion." He is seeking an answer to the question, "What are you going to make your future of, for all your airs?" And withal, he believes passionately in the future of mankind.

Mr. Wells obviously came to America with a strong hope that here he would find the nearest approach to Utopia "in the making." The sting of his criticisms lies largely in the fact that they are in many instances patently due to genuine, unlooked for, and even amazed disappointment. He is singularly free from "John Bullish" superciliousness. Indeed his severest word of blame for an American institution is often that it is even worse than in England. At times he comes near having a "passionate love and worship for America" (p. 150). In sociology, pedagogics, and social psychology "America is producing an amount of work, immense in comparison with our own British output."

One of Mr. Wells's chief arraignments of American civilization is its lack of order, discipline, finality, constructiveness, and fixed purpose. Its progress seems to him almost "as something inevitable and inhuman, as a blindly furious energy of growth that must go on." It has "no sense of accomplishment or finality." He feels the urgent need of "a creative assimilation, the cry for synthetic effort, lest all the great being, the splendid promise of a new world, should decay into a vast unprogressive stagnation of unhappiness and disorder." The owners of American wealth are often "too stupid to understand the huge moral burden" it carries. Newport sounds a "note of magnificent irresponsibility." American givers are generous, but "they give individually, incoherently, each pursuing a personal ideal." The men "who are creating the greatest system of correlated private properties in the world . . . seem for the most part to be men with no ulterior dream or aim." Connected with this is what Mr. Wells calls "State Blindness," or "lack of sense of the State." By this he does not mean that the American is not vigorously patriotic, but that he has no compelling sense of his own personal responsibility to the community, no luminous realization of the way in which all his activities, private as well as public, form part of a large constructive process.

The liberty for which the great statue in New York Harbor stands is largely, according to Mr. Wells, the liberty of property, which, as a result of the complete triumph of unrestricted individualism on this side of the Atlantic, has become more absolute than in Europe. This view he substantiates by pointing to the decision of the Supreme Court against the constitutionality of an income tax. Americans resemble the business men of Birmingham and Lancashire. The wealthy are not absorbed into an aristocratic governing class. Here, more than anywhere else, is the im-

mortality of the competitive system taken for granted. The world of individualistic business competition is so elaborately organized as at once to demand and excuse the existence of a series of Rockefellers, big and little. Graft, the inefficiency of Congress, the disgrace of the child-worker, the "delusion" as to the superiority of the American system of public school education, the ineffective and fossilized culture of Boston, the brutality of Chicago—all come under Mr. Wells's lash.

Two of the most serious chapters in the book are those on "The Immigrant" and "The Tragedy of Color," and they are perhaps those with which the American reader will be most inclined to join issue. Mr. Wells believes that this country has now reached a point where it can no longer assimilate or improve the inferior human material it is importing in such enormous quantity, and that a serious lowering of the standard of life and civilization is the inevitable consequence. The fact that this process is concealed by the "protective mimicry" of cheap American clothes and paper collars makes it only the more insidious. "The child of the immigrant is now a worse man than his father." The tragedy of color in the United States affects Mr. Wells as it must affect all visitors of any depth of feeling. He, of course, grants that the British attitude, in (*e.g.*) Natal, is just as crude, unintelligent, and wrong. The colored man seems to have attracted him strongly, and Booker T. Washington stands with President Roosevelt and President Eliot of Harvard as, perhaps, one of the three men who most impressed him in America. Yet he protests vigorously against Mr. Washington's view that it is possible for black and white to live side by side without mingling and without injustice. "No peoples have ever yet endured the tension of intermingled distinctness."

The final attitude in which Mr. Wells is left is one of mingled puzzlement and hope, of admiration and dread, of interrogation. Yet it would be wrong to regard it as merely negative. To thinkers of brilliant imagination, and paramourly to the artist, one order of facts naturally appeals to the practical exclusion of all others. Thus, it is quite conceivable that the salvation of the United States may come from some quite other source than the poiëtic superman whom Mr. Wells desiderates. Yet his very doubt is suggestive. He realizes that America is "thinking"; he sees that "a great awakening, a great disillusionment, is going on in the American mind"; he recognizes that the younger generation is very different in its outlook from that which is passing away, but he doubts its ability to cope with the dangers ahead. While he feels that an illiterate America would be doomed to some such fate as the stagnant commercialism of China or the plutocratic decadence of Rome, he sees clearly the hope lying in the fact that America is not illiterate, but has "unprecedented reservoirs of intelligence and understanding," which make "the problem of the world to-day unique and incalculable," which "provide a cohesive and reasonable and pacifying medium the Old World did not know."

The weaknesses of Mr. Wells's book lie on the face of it. His data will not always

bear out his conclusions; his generalizations are sometimes too sweeping. He often shows a childlike ingenuousness in believing what he is told, and it is obvious that the wrong men have sometimes got hold of his ear. The details which he has portrayed with so masterly a hand do not combine into a quite satisfactory whole. Yet, when all deductions are made, this remains one of the keenest and most brilliant works ever published about the United States. This, be it noted, is not to say that it is one of the most carefully weighed or even that it will be one of the most permanently valuable. It may be unhesitatingly recommended to every one who knows America well enough to supply his own criticisms. But for the foreigner, for the man who does not know America at first hand, this fascinating book would be distinctly misleading, unless its perusal were accompanied by constant reference to some cooler testimony, such as is supplied by James Bryce's "American Commonwealth."

The illustrations are fair. Among the misprints are *Otünsterberg* (for Münsterberg p 121); *"inseln"* (for Pinseln, p. 215).

Industrial America. Berlin Lectures of 1906. By J. Laurence Laughlin. New York: Charles Scribner. \$1.25.

Among the first fruits of the interchange of professors between American and European universities are sundry volumes embodying the lectures by which the academic envoys seek to interpret for foreign hearers the literature, science, or institutions of their native land. "Industrial America" consists of seven lectures, upon a variety of subjects likely to interest the German audience before which they were delivered—in the German language, the preface tells us—early in the present year. In a summary yet interesting and not unprofitable manner, the author canvasses the problems now uppermost in American industry, labor, and finance; and closes with a brief account of the present status of economic thought in the United States.

Beginning with our foreign trade, Professor Laughlin explains the cause of that commercial expansion which has made American competition dreaded in Europe, and prophesies that such competition is likely to increase rather than diminish. This leads to protection and reciprocity, subjects of the keenest interest to his hearers. Our protective system, long since outgrown, if indeed it was ever needed, he describes as an incubus of which the country cannot easily rid itself if it would, on account of the pressure of selfish interests. For genuine reciprocity he can see but little immediate hope, and he allows his audience to indulge in no illusions as to what is likely to happen to reciprocity with Germany at the end of the year of grace which has been allowed the American Government. Upon the moral and political evils wrought by protection he speaks with no uncertain tones, which contrast refreshingly with the halting utterances of some now accepted leaders of economic opinion.

Then follow chapters on the labor problem and upon Trusts and railroads, concerning which the author has little new to say; as well as one upon American banking,

with a strong argument for a rational currency system. It is worth noting that Professor Laughlin sees clearly that a sound asset currency would not rescue our large banks from conditions brought about by their own recklessness in lending the country's cash reserve to speculators, but would merely enable the smaller banking institutions to meet the varying seasonal demands of their customers. For conditions such as have recently existed in New York, he points out, the true remedy is not an "elastic" currency, or aid from the Federal treasury, but rather "a revision of the character of their collateral." Our currency system, he justly says, is in no way responsible for the evils of which great financiers complain:

The banks wish to hold on to existing financial deals, to keep up the values of securities. They could easily meet the demand for legitimate loans if they took in sail and reduced their expanded discounts on favorite promotions.

If more of the advocates of an elastic currency showed the same good sense, their cause might progress more rapidly than it has done in the past.

To describe, much more to appraise, the tendencies and achievements of contemporary thinking, even in one's chosen field, is notoriously a difficult task; but Professor Laughlin does not come off without credit in his last chapter, upon the present position of economic science in the United States. He explains, with insight, the various influences—English, German, and American—which have affected the progress of the science since the great awakening in the seventies and early eighties; and then passes on to present-day writers who are wrestling with the difficult problems of value and distribution. Here and there, perhaps, we detect an amiable tendency to distribute agreeable personal puffs among confrères in academic circles; but upon the whole the author's conclusion is the eminently sane one that "with obvious exceptions, there is a great deal of mediocre work." Promise for the future rather than important actual achievement is still the most that can be claimed for American economics.

Of the value of discursive volumes like "Industrial America," which aim to interpret for the general reader current movements in a number of large and important fields, there may be differences of opinion. But for our part we believe that an occasional effort of this character, by a competent hand, is well worth while; and that the specialist as well as the general reader may profit thereby. In the specialization of study, which in this country is likely to begin too early, if not to be carried too far, it is helpful to put minute investigation aside once in a while, and to endeavor to interpret and correlate the work done in a number of related fields. In the present instance Professor Laughlin has acquitted himself creditably, and we trust that his successors may be equally fortunate in their diplomatic missions.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Secret of the Moor Cottage. By H. Ripley Crommarsh. Boston: Small, Maynard & Company.

A boy critic once described a Shakspeare play as being not so funny as "The Geisha"

and not so exciting as "Secret Service." Mrs. Cromarsh's novel is less exciting than "The Leavenworth Case" and less original than "The House on the Marsh," but it is a good mystery story for all that, with a motive by no means commonplace. A young English gentleman goes to work on a Yorkshire farm to acquire practical knowledge in the management of his own estates. He falls into friendship with the inmates of a neighboring cottage, surrounded by mystery and suspicion, in which he presently becomes embarrassingly implicated. The telling of even the darkest doings is in a subdued but not spiritless key, and this serves to bring the book into the desirable category of the comfortable-dreadful. A really stirring piece of writing is to be found in the chapter which describes the search for lost sheep among the "pot-holes" of the Yorkshire fells. The dense fog, the sudden cliffs and caverns, the terrifying sound of mysterious waters deep down beyond the sight, make fine shuddering settings for the catastrophe which shatters the secret. In the final disposition of the characters there is a negative surprise which is unnoyous but perhaps only the more natural.

I Will Repay. By Baroness Orczy. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

In romance the spell of the French Revolution never weakens. Blessed as Mesopotamia to the ears of the pious are the very words National Convention, Citizen-Deputy, Quatorze Juillet, Fructidor, Ça ira, Sans-Culottes, Tricoteuses. They may all be found profusely flourishing in this volume, and if they do not claim to be exact history, they assuredly serve to lend atmosphere. A prologue announces the motive. In 1783 a young vicomte is killed by a man of bourgeois ancestry in a duel which the aristocrat had insisted upon, to the grief of his older antagonist. The boy's father, too old to avenge himself, binds his young daughter by a most solemn oath, to seek out the slayer, Paul Déroutède, and encompass his death, his ruin, or dishonor. In Paris in 1793, when the story itself begins, any one of the three forms of revenge was the most easily obtained gratification in the world. Juliette Marny, watching for her opportunity, finds it more readily than she desires. The inhuman vow forced upon her as a mere child has lost what little hold it ever had upon her own feeling, for she has found in her victim, first, a chivalrous protector from mob insult, then a kindly friend. Now the story becomes a record of the struggle between her faith to her oath and her gratitude to Déroutède. She betrays him, then makes a supreme sacrifice to undo the betrayal, while he, in his turn, makes counter-sacrifices to save her, and, of course, they are by now fallen fathoms deep in love. The Scarlet Pimpernel reappears from an earlier volume to enact the English dandy rescuer; all the above-mentioned French Terror properties are in ample evidence, and at last there is a happy issue out of all afflictions.

Baroness Orczy's style is of the kind that the old-fashioned novel-reader takes to comfortably; pleasantly dotted with questions addressed to nobody; advancing in a well-bred tone of elaborate leisureliness. It is, in truth, a very fair story of its semi-historic, wholly respectable sort. It may be

captious to find fault with Anne Mie—since this is avowedly a romance—for singing in 1793 "an old ditty," "De ta tige détachée," which was written in 1815 in lament for Napoleon. But we have a right to expect consistency in fiction, however indulgent we may be to fact.

J. P. Dunbar. by William Cadwalader Hudson. New York: B. W. Dodge & Co.

There are books and books, and this one belongs to the latter class. It hears the relation to the book of the library that a trolley car does to a gondola, a telephone to a harp, the broker's ticker to the "Jane! Jane! Jane!" of Rochester. We concede that it is a book, a book which is the logical outcome of the ugly age—conceived seriously, made skilfully, carefully, quite possibly with a purpose.

The especial ugliness it pictures, and pictures with fidelity worthy of a table of weights and measures, is the War of Wall Street. For hero, Mr. Hudson takes a capitalist with a passion for accumulation, a talent for skating on thin ice, and an unaccounted-for hold on a few personal friends. For heroine, there is a lady stock-jobber nurtured on speculation from infancy by a careful father; for lesser lights there are financial magnates and undergraduate investors, with a croaking chorus in the hero's uncle, a man of caustic humor and illusion-dispelling tongue. The hero, early in the book, acquires three millions, a few pages later lays himself open to four or five, progresses to the height of twelvefold millionairehood, then passes into the valley of threatened State's prison, and glanced-at suicide, to emerge triumphant, bride on arm, and goes on, cutting bread and butter. The details of operations on the floor of the Stock Exchange are as minute as real share manipulation, and as picturesque as financial columns of the daily journals; a good Christmas hook for hulls and bears. Holiday shoppers may be grateful for a specimen paragraph:

It is not like Edgar to accept defeat so easily. I am watchful, and yet I am buying. I have hypothecated holdings of 36,000 shares, and bought 30,000 more. These I have hypothecated and with the proceeds bought 25,000. To-day I hold 91,000 shares of Universal, on which I owe \$4,250,000. The present market value is \$7,280,000. They cost me in actual cash payments, \$6,050,000. Before the end of the year they will be worth all of 96 and the price will hold. But were I to sell 47,250 shares, at, say, 90, I could pay my hypothecations and should have left in my hands 43,750 shares, of the value of \$4,200,000.

Which goes to show that it is a story pre-eminently adapted to its lovers.

Patricia at the Inn. By J. C. Snaith. New York: B. W. Dodge & Co.

This is romance founded on fiction, which, in its turn, is based upon what might have been one of the many adventures befalling Charles the Second, after the battle of Worcester, when he was escaping to France, a price upon his head. At an inn on a lonely coast the rascally landlord entertains unawares the King and two of his loyal subjects, man and wife. The vacillation of the Merry Monarch between his safety and his attraction to the Lady Patsy (although he had seen women "younger and more lyrical"), the Stuart witchcraft that held even injured hus-

bands loyal, the cunning escape from the turncoat landlord, whose willingness to betray to the highest bidder led him at last to his horrid deserts, are the main features in a story of perhaps rugged texture than many Stuart tales, but otherwise hardly to be distinguished from the rest of the drops in the Jacobite fiction sea which rolls from pole to pole.

The Face in the Girandole. By William Frederick Dix. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co.

This pretty piece of bookmaking is, as it declares itself, a romance of old furniture. Not sure at first which is to be the principal and which the accessory interest, romance or furniture, the reader is so pleasantly dealt with on both counts as to feel no desire in the end to quarrel with the author for having used his romance to gild his furniture withal; rather, let us say, since gilding would hurt his feelings, he rolls his tables and chairs about on the smooth running casters of a tiny love-story. But for this minute affair of the heart to coax the reader on there might be those who would burst in ignorance of how to tell a Chippendale from a Hepplewhite or him from a Sheraton. It is rather a pity that the girandole which plays the title rôle, should not be faithfully drawn on the cover since the outward dress constitutes so much of the volume.

A Maid in Arcady. By Ralph Henry Barbour. Philadelphia: J. P. Lippincott Co.

This is yet one more of the season's stories which are fitted to be seen quite as much as to be heard. Perhaps even, the fragile little tale is almost overdressed with its lordly garments of wide margins, heavy paper, and its photographs in delicate tints. These, by Frederick J. von Rapp, appear and even reappear in whole pages, as vignettes, tail-pieces, and side garnishes, most charmingly picturing a variety of woodland scenes and two very human figures. The story is graceful and more spirited than one would expect from the emphasis given to its externals.

The Garter Mission to Japan. By Lord Redesdale. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.75.

Since the charming personality of the author of that imperishable classic, "Tales of Old Japan," A. B. F. Mitford, was lost in the crowd of British noblemen, he has been little heard of in the literary world, except to reprint in 1900 his papers and letters under the title "The Attaché at Peking." But in all the important functions of the recent celebrations in Tokio of the renewed Anglo-Japanese Alliance, the dignified figure of Lord Redesdale was a centre of attraction. Entering as a young man, in the sixties of the last century, the newly opened country, when Japan was feudal, and imperialism was but a coming shadow discernible only to keen students of history, Lord Redesdale, then Mr. Mitford, student-interpreter at the British legation, collected the now world-famous "Tales." Returning homeward, he became the favorite of sovereigns, held lucrative offices, and emerged into view again when dispatched to carry from King Edward the

paraphernalia of silk, gold, and brilliants of the Order of the Garter.

This book, consisting of matter selected chiefly from Lord Redesdale's letters to his wife, has all the charm of a fairy tale. Rather it is the report of a very much delighted Rip Van Winkle returning to the scene of his former haunts. Despite the tender melancholy which change induces, he enjoyed richly his new experiences. The old world of daimios and feudal processions, of castles in the provinces and clan caravanseries in Yedo, of odd and strange classes, masses, and characters, has been replaced by a new world, which throbs with steam, electricity, machinery, and which has new outlooks and ideals. Instead of the camp city Yedo, is the imperial and modern metropolis of Tokio, and in place of a hermit nation is a world power. Happily the mountains and rivers have not changed. The visitor inquires of the Emperor's generals, fresh from the victorious fields of Manchuria, whether the Mikado's soldiers will fraternize with the men whose fathers were pariahs, when Mitford was young. He finds that though they will fight shoulder to shoulder in the ranks, they will not mess or eat with these sons of the once accursed. Yet as there is no color line in Japan's case, Gen. Kuroki thinks that even this difficulty will disappear in time. To show how the commoners are mounting the spiral pathways of promotion, it is stated that of 668 military cadets, 12 were sons of noblemen, 257 of samurai or the old gentry class, while 299 were from the heimin, or common people.

Throughout the book "it is the sad memories that are most ahiding," yet sad though they might have been to the author, his charm of style makes every page delightful with an autumn-like richness. He hears among the Japanese no boasting over the late war. Of the Emperor he has the true idea, held by all who know the secret of that nation-leader's life—"the strength which was written in his face is his great characteristic"; and of his record he says "never a deed in his public or his private life of which either he or his people can be ashamed." He meets the old Tycoon, who laid down his power in 1868, but is still hale and hearty, with plenty of daughters and bicycles. With such companions as Kuroki, Togo, and Asano, and with sport, travel, and novel experiences with people, country gentlemen, and palace occupants, all told so pleasantly, one must call this little hook a garden of delights.

En Lisant: Réflexions Critiques. Par Léon Blum. Paris: Librairie Ollendorff.

It is seldom that a critic commits himself to a downright statement of his likes and dislikes without reserve or extenuation. To do so is not only to provoke contradiction, but also to furnish too easy a measure of his taste and discrimination. He prefers, if he is experienced and wary, to qualify his opinion with reasons and distinctions; very likely, if he is conscientious as well, he will distrust the accuracy of so bald a statement of preferences. But M. Blum is too frank or too confident to hesitate even for this elementary axiom of critical prudence:

"War and Peace" is the finest (*le plus beau*) novel in existence, finer than "l'Edu-

cation Sentimentale," and for me that means everything. But Tolstol aside, I see two novelists whom I incline to place above our own. One is an Italian, Gabriele d'Annunzio. . . . The other is an Englishman, Thomas Hardy. . . . "Jude the Obscure" of Hardy is one of the most profound, poignant, and original books I know.

After such a statement it will probably be difficult for the English reader to feel any great confidence in M. Léon Blum. And there is, it must be confessed, a good deal in his volume to justify this first impression, hasty as it may seem. M. Blum is intelligent, clever, wide-awake, and amusing enough to put the general run of English reviewers to shame. But like too many of his contemporaries, French and English for that matter, he is so thoroughly immersed in his time as to be incapable of judging it with detachment and impartiality. In spite of the historical method, there has probably never been another period in which the past counted for so little as a standard of comparison for writers and readers alike. As far as M. Blum is concerned, it might just as well be non-existent and literature have begun the day before yesterday. He is thoroughly subjugated by the present, "suhdued to what he works in," and so much so that it appears impossible for him to conceive that the particular momentary current or eddy in which he happens to be caught, may not, after all, be a permanent or even a desirable tendency. Progress he seems to have identified with movement, and is quite content to be in motion, no matter in what direction he may happen to be drifting. In this way he is humanitarian and socialistic by unconscious impulsion and praises Anatole France's recent conversion without measure, and to all appearance without reserve.

Like the great French philosophers of the eighteenth century, with whom posterity will place him, he has shown that special intellectual courage in the following out of a thought to its conclusion, which is one of the purest beauties of humanity. To-day he unites in himself all that is noble in the human spirit. He was a great writer. He is a great man.

And the next moment he is with equal ingenuousness registering his profound admiration for the same writer's unregenerate "Lys Rouge"—that is for what is libertine, neurotic, and individualistic. "And yet if I were forced to indicate what single volume I prefer, I should name 'Lys Rouge.'"

On the whole, however, his conception of fiction, and to some extent of all literature, is, as might be expected of a spirit so thoroughly "current," sociological. Not only is the novel a phenomenon purely social in its origins, but it should apparently devote itself to the discussion and solution of social problems—at all events to the awakening of the social conscience; or in his own rather vague and pompous phrase, it ought "to provoke the sentiment which is the cause and condition of all social reflection." On this ground he objects to foreign subjects, to such "exotic" themes as those of Loti, for example, because they have no "social value" and indeed lack the strict *actualité*, the practical applicability of topics which are thoroughly indigenous. This is, of course, very "scientific," very modern. But does it not, as a matter of fact, introduce a dangerous

prejudice into criticism—a pure *à priori*ism hostile to that spirit of comparison and inference which ought to guide and control the critic?

At the same time, however, all this *parti pris*, this eclecticism, this sensitiveness to every current of air, unsettling as it may be, makes entertaining reading. There is a sprightliness about it, a responsiveness to ideas, which is unfortunately rare in current English criticism. Nor is there lacking the grain of mockery, the slight flavor of disillusion and skepticism necessary to make the dish appetizing for those finer and more sophisticated palates that might fail to relish the other ingredients without some such racy seasoning:

And then, when it will be no longer possible for any one to make a living by writing novels, no one will write had novels any longer to make a living. I confess that I long for that day. It is not that literature will then become an amusement of the wealthy. Not at all. But every one will have a business to live by, and will write, if imperious instinct urges him, in the leisure left him by his business. No one man needs to write so many books, and greater men than we have lived without doing so. Everybody knows that the majority of "literary vocations" to-day are half vanity, half idleness.

The Æneid of Virgil. Translated by E. Fairfax Taylor. With an Introduction and Notes by E. M. Forster. 2 vols. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.

It has been a matter of wonder that no publisher has recently made provision for that respectable body of readers who have no pretensions to classical scholarship, but who would still like to turn over a favorite author with proper assistance. Now it is for just such readers the Dent-Putnam series of Temple Greek and Latin Classics is planned. On one page is the clean text of the author, opposite is a translation (not a "crib," but a literary version), and at the back are notes explanatory of what historical and mythical difficulties may occur. The only criticism we feel inclined to make upon the volumes so far published is that the type is rather small and the binding flimsy. As a compensation, the price is low.

Of the two recent volumes, containing the "Æneid," there is little to say. Mr. Taylor has performed the fairly audacious feat of rendering the whole poem into Spenserian stanzas, managing the intricate rhymes and long-drawn cadences with considerable ease. On the whole, as in the case of Worseley's "Odyssey," this stanza reproduces the movement, and, more particularly, the romantic qualities of the original, better than blank verse or heroic couplets; and in general the English reader seems to be more amenable to a long poem in stanza form than in continuous lines. Instinctively, in testing such a work, one turns first to the famous verses, and a few of these, as specimens of Mr. Taylor's translation, we may give:

Even here
Worth wins her due, and there are tears to flow,
And human hearts to feel for human woe.

'Tis here,
The final end of all the Dardan power,
The last, sad day has come, the inevitable hour.

Ah, child of tears! can'st thou again be free
And burst Fate's cruel bondage, Rome shall know
Her own Marcellus, reappeared in thee.

In all these examples (the last is much the weakest) one sees the fault inevitable in such an attempt—the use of too many words; but it is fair to add that such a weakness is less apparent in reading large tracts of the poem than in these brief excerpts where the original is too importunately present in memory. A fairer test would be to take one of the average passages of narration or description, as, for example, these opening verses of the seventh book:

Thou too, Caleta, dying, to our shore,
Æneas' nurse, hast given a deathless fame,
E'en now thine honor guards it, as of yore,
Still doth thy tomb in great Hesperia frame
Glory—if that be glory—for thy name.
Here good Æneas paid his dues aright,
And raised a mound, and now, as evening came,
Sails forth; the faint winds whisper to the night;
Clear shines the Moon, and tips the trembling
waves with light.

Here, it is first to be observed, that the nine lines of the Spenserian stanza represent exactly nine verses of the original, and even reproduce to some extent the cadence of the Latin. Thus "if that be glory" corresponds in position and tone to "si qua est ea gloria"; and the last clause, "and tips the trembling waves with light," admirably gives the feeling of the Latin, "splendet tremulo sub lumine pontus." To preserve the quality of the original is the hardest and most important task of the translator, and on the whole Mr. Taylor has succeeded here better than any of his predecessors with whom we are acquainted.

Sidelights on the Home Rule Movement. By Sir Robert Anderson. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.

"In the course of a country walk with some Irish friends who were not unversed in public affairs," writes Sir Robert Anderson in his introductory chapter, "the Parnell movement and the Special Commission which dealt with the *Times* charges against the Irish leader became the subject of our conversation. Certain remarks of mine led my friends to urge upon me that I should write my reminiscences." It is to be hoped that these intimate friends of Sir Robert Anderson find some usefulness in the book which he has produced; for it will be difficult for most readers who are not of his immediate social or political circle to see any advantage that can result from the publication. It is a book comparable with Fitzpatrick's "Secret Service Under Pitt." It deals with the Irish secret service from the early sixties to the end of the nineteenth century; but it has none of the value of Fitzpatrick's book, because while Fitzpatrick bases his work on documentary evidence, there is scarcely a page of documentary evidence in these "Sidelights on the Home Rule Movement." In many instances there is no authority for the statements that are made except the *ipse dixit* of Sir Robert Anderson, who on almost every page gives the impression that he is a man of enormous conceit and of some disagreeable characteristics—in fact, just the type of Irishman who might be expected in the underground service in which he was so long engaged. Sir Robert Anderson is a Unionist of the Ulster school, and as bitter towards all Home Rulers as the bitterest of Ulster Tories. Nevertheless, he has done a service for the Home Rule cause by making good the long-

standing complaints of the Nationalists as to the kind of Irishmen who can count on promotion when once on the pay roll of Dublin Castle.

Drama.

"*A Game at Love,*" and *Other Plays.* By George Sylvester Viereck. New York: Brentano.

Not long ago, Mr. Viereck, while still in boyhood, attracted serious and favorable attention by his "Gedichte," a volume of poems in German and English, remarkable for melody, imagery, eloquence, and paganistic spirit. His most fervent admirers compared him with Catullus, Swinburne and—a much more dubious compliment—Oscar Wilde. He now publishes a series of short prose dramatic studies under the quoted title which are marked by similar characteristics. In a brief preface, he says that "they point out no moral, they teach no lesson, and the reader may feel assured that the obvious interpretation is in no case the author's own." This disclaimer is prudent, for no sane or healthy person could endure to be suspected of entertaining the theories professed in them; but why put such matter into print? Of the six subjects treated, four are simply the inspirations of a perverted eroticism, suggestive of a lamentable precocity in vicious knowledge, if not in degrading experience, and of a contempt for all the restrictions which prevent human society from relapsing into barbaric animalism. The fact that these ideas are disguised, in a literary form of uncommon grace and seductiveness, and with an affectation of philosophic purpose, does not render them less foolish or abominable. The last two pieces, grouped under the single title, "The Butterfly," are cast in the shape of the old moralities, and are happily free from taint, although, like the others, they enforce no moral and teach no lesson. In the one, a righteous man, dying, curses the folly that kept him from indulging in the pleasant sins, whose roseate visions haunt his pillow; in the other, an unrighteous man, with his last breath, finds the sweet memories of forbidden pleasures turning to gall and bitterness. Both scenes are depicted with eloquence and imaginative power, but are full of a dreary pessimism, unrelieved by hint of the higher thinking of which the older pagans set an example for the modern imitators.

What Mr. Viereck may achieve in the future, if ever his rankly luxuriant boyish fancies acquire the ballast of solid learning and common sense, it would be hazardous to predict. At present, he is devoting precious gifts to futile and unworthy ends.

Heinrich Conried, manager of the Metropolitan Opera House, has been chosen general administrator of the New Theatre, founded by a number of wealthy men, and to be erected in Central Park West, between Sixty-second and Sixty-third Streets. Mr. Conried is to have for his assistant a Frenchman to superintend the production of *opéra comique*, and either an Englishman or an American to superintend the productions of drama. The announcement is further made that "on account of the 'purely artistic and non-commercial' spirit of the enterprise, Mr. Conried will serve

without salary and without sharing in the profits of the enterprise."

"The Needle's Eye" is the name of a new play written by Rudolf Besier, author of "The Virgin Goddess," which achieved so great an artistic success at the London Adelphi Theatre. This latest venture is a modern play in three acts, and the text is, "What would happen to a man of Socialist ideas were he suddenly endowed with an ample fortune?" The central figure of the play is the son of a wealthy colliery owner, who has watched his father crush the tired workers, and, watching, has become a Socialist.

"Les Mouettes" of Paul Adam was the most noteworthy new piece of November at the Comédie Française. The title ("Seagulls") is in the metaphor which, in the mouth of the heroine, winds up the play: "Oh, Monsieur Cbambalot, there are seagulls that you wound, and yet they take their flight toward the sea, toward the sun." Her Christian spirit has won back the husband whom Chambalot's Nietzscheism had almost persuaded to be a superman and sacrifice his wife to his own lawless desire. The story of the play was told in the author's romance of last year, "Le Serpent Noir"; the play is easier reading, though a trifle recondite, even for the intellectual public of the Théâtre Français.

Music.

Giacomo Puccini. By Wakeling Dry. John Lane Co. \$1.

The Heart of Music. By Anna Alice Chapin. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.60 net.

Puccini is operatically the man of the moment, in England and America even more than in Italy. When his latest opera, "Madam Butterfly," failed in Milan, London came to the rescue, giving it a welcome which created a sensation and helped to make it the biggest operatic success of the new century. In New York it will have had, by the end of this week, fifty consecutive performances in English. Later, it will be produced in Italian at the Metropolitan Opera House, with Geraldine Farrar and Caruso. One phase of the grand-opera war is that Mr. Conried of the Metropolitan claims to have the exclusive American rights to all the Puccini operas in the original tongue—a claim which Mr. Hammerstein of the Manhattan is contesting in the courts. In January the composer himself is to visit America, to attend a sort of festival performance of four of his operas at the Metropolitan.

Obviously Mr. Dry could not have chosen a more opportune moment for launching his little book on Puccini—the first in any language. He has enjoyed special advantages, having repeatedly met the composer, whom he describes as "a big, broad man, with a frank, open countenance, dark kindly eyes, of a lazy lustrous depth, and a shy, retiring manner." Of pictures, there are no fewer than seventeen in this little volume of 114 pages, besides four facsimiles of manuscript scores—extraordinary scrawls and blotches which would have baffled even such lightning score-readers as Liszt or Saint-Saëns. Puccini is here pictured in his study, in peasant costume,

shooting ducks at Torre del Lago, snowballing in Sicily, descending Etna on a mule, and in diverse other fashions. The author supplies plenty of gossip about his habits, his fondness for the chase and sport, his travels, his method of working, his preferences and opinions. His last three operas have made him rich, and he has built an elegant lake-shore villa on the secluded Torre del Lago, near Lucca, which empties into the sea at the spot where Shelley's body was washed ashore and afterwards burned.

It is but historic justice that Puccini should now be the most prominent composer of the new Italian school, for it was he who founded it. Mr. Dry refers to this briefly:

With his first opera, Puccini started something of a new form in the short opera; and two remarkable works of the kind in "Cavalleria Rusticana," by Mascagni, and "I Pagliacci," by Leoncavallo, which came very soon after, clearly indicate that he had founded a school, as it were.

This fact was worth dwelling on with greater emphasis and detail; for Mascagni, a mere imitator, has generally been regarded as the founder of the new school. But it is perhaps no great honor to be the founder of this particular school, as it has not yet done anything of lasting value. We doubt whether Puccini has, as his biographer claims, made for himself "a distinct place in the history of the progress and development of the art and science of music-making." He has made his orchestral scores more interesting than those of most Italians, without, however, in the least equalling Verdi. For that, his faculty of melodic invention is too weak. Nor can we discover the "spontaneous vocal melody" with which Mr. Dry credits him. The real secret of his success lies in two things—his selecting popular plays as basis for his librettos, and his writing effectively for singers. Other Italian composers before him—Rossini, Donizetti, and Bellini—owed their vogue largely to their skill in catering to the great singers; but each of these had a much more original melodic vein than Puccini.

Miss Chapin's book on the violin does not purport to be more than a gossipy Christmas book for lovers of that instrument. She confesses that she is "violin-mad," and her pages are certainly aglow with the ardor of an enthusiast. She has read much and wisely for her special purpose, diving into deep seas of research and bringing up an occasional pearl that interests even experts. It is not only the history of the violin, as we know it, that is traced; much is said, too, about its ancestors and relatives in various countries, beginning with the humble locust, which is a true fiddler. After visiting Egypt, Assyria, Greece, Rome, and China, Miss Chapin takes her readers through the dark ages and Troubadour days to the great makers of lutes, viols, and the perfected modern instrument. Her book is good of its kind, replete with curious information, and well written.

Never before has New York had so many performances of grand opera as this winter. While Henry Savage remains at the Garden Theatre with his English version of "Madam Butterfly," there are sixteen a week altogether. At the Metropolitan

repetitions have ruled since our last record, the only first performance being "Lucia," in which Sembrich and Caruso achieved their usual triumph. The audiences at this house have not been affected in the least, as regards numbers, by the opening of a rival theatre. At the Manhattan Opera House Bonci has become such a favorite that it is only when he sings that the attendance is numerous. Thus, "Don Giovanni" was heard by many more than "Carmen," although Bizet's opera, without Bonci, was much more enjoyable than Mozart's with him. Not that he himself was wanting; on the contrary, he proved to be an almost ideal Mozart singer; but the important feminine rôles were unsatisfactory, with the exception of Zerlina. The hero of the occasion was the conductor, Mr. Campanini, to whom also was chiefly due a remarkably good ensemble in the notable performance of "Carmen." This aroused unbounded enthusiasm, though there were no vocalists of the first rank in it. The advent of a conductor who, like Mr. Campanini, has discovered the subtlest secrets of German and French as well as of Italian operatic score, is an event of the first importance in our musical world. The Saturday evening repetition of "Carmen," at popular prices, drew an audience which filled the house.

Wassily Safonoff will present himself as an interpreter of Wagner's music at the next two concerts of the Philharmonic Society, Friday afternoon and Saturday evening at Carnegie Hall. Among the numbers selected are the overture to "Tannhäuser," Siegmund's love song, the introduction to the third act of "Meistersinger," and "The Ride of the Valkyries." Aloys Burgstaller, the popular Wagnerian tenor, will make his first appearance in New York this year in these Wagner excerpts.

Art.

Noteworthy Paintings in American Private Collections. Edited by John LaFarge and August F. Jacacci. Vol. I., large folio. New York: The August F. Jacacci Company. \$1,000 a volume.

This massive and beautifully made folio is the earnest of a unique enterprise. The editors, John LaFarge and August F. Jacacci, offer it as the first of a series to include all noteworthy pictures in American private possessions. They have tried—and we feel have succeeded—to make the book a standard of typographical beauty, and its contents a model of modern processes of photo-engraving and contemporary criticism and connoisseurship. The volume, of which one hundred and twenty-one copies are offered for sale, is necessarily expensive, appealing chiefly to the class whose pictures are its topic. But it has absolutely nothing of the claptrap *édition de luxe*. The page is 15x20 inches, the presswork admirably done by the Gilliss Press; the ornamental head-pieces are designed by Kenyon Cox, taking his inspiration from the "Hypneratomachia," and cut in wood by Henry Wolf; the photogravures are of uncommon excellence, being

made by John Andrew & Son. In bindings there is a choice between a morocco cover in the early French taste, designed by John LaFarge, and an embossed vellum cover adapted from an Aldus binding by Kenyon Cox; the latter seems the more appropriate to the massiveness of the book itself. Over every detail of bookmaking the most scrupulous care has presided. To mention but an incident, the page of text opposite each photogravure is ruled in black to the measure of the print, and the descriptive note arranged to fill the ruled space to the eye. Thus a balance between text and illustration is created, and the disagreeable, spotty effect of the average large book of plates entirely avoided. Indeed, the great folio is so well done in every way that, despite its cost, a bibliophile might well buy it, as he does the Kelmscott Chaucer or the Montaigne of the Riverside Press.

It is a thoroughly serious work, too, so far as the text is concerned. Mr. LaFarge, in a general introduction, suggests the human interests involved. In America, as in Rome of the Augustan age, we see the sudden aspiration of wealth towards the larger life typified by art—an attempt of financial prowess, often, to take a kingdom of the mind by storm. Short of so violent a proceeding, the earliest collecting of fine works of art constitutes a landmark in the history of a nation's culture. Mr. LaFarge, whose implications we have followed rather than his statements, justly points out how valuable would be a record of, say, the first Roman collections. Speaking of our American case, he says:

It might be important, and it certainly would be very interesting, to note the forms of these collections or gatherings at the moment of their first taking shape. Later, the possible changes of manner of life, the displacements of fortune or of inheritance are likely to alter these conditions and to make these collections lose their personal character, to destroy the record of first origins, and to mass all together in a more commonplace appearance.

Coming more narrowly to the subject of the present volume, no one can question the personal, almost romantic, interest of such collections as Mrs. John L. Gardner's, in her Venetian gallery at Boston; the late John Hay's, in the house that Richardson built for him at Washington; the remarkable ingathering of Impressionist canvases at A. A. Pope's country-place near Farmington, Conn. Such things are documentary, and deserve to be commemorated. The editors have planned their work in the following novel manner: Each collection is described in an essay of a general sort which carries also a kind of running catalogue of selected pictures. Thus Mr. LaFarge characterizes the Gardner collection; Kenyon Cox the A. A. Pope collection and that of A. A. Sprague at Chicago; Samuel Isham treats the H. L. Terrell collection at New York; and Sir Martin Conway that of the late John Hay. These essays are interspersed by photogravures, with a succinct note, historical and descriptive, on the opposite page. For the essays, it will be noted, American writers have been chosen, as most fully understanding the motives that underlie these collections. Sir Martin Conway can hardly be called an exception, his travels and associations fully en-

titling him to a sort of honorary citizenship among us.

When we approach the critical portion of the volume, however, the work becomes cosmopolitan with a vengeance. A certain number of pictures are the subject of short critical essays by many hands. For example, Mrs. Gardner's splendid Titian, "The Rape of Europa," formerly at Cobham, Kent, receives a fourfold elucidation. Georges Lafenestre, the veteran biographer of Titian, dwells upon the history of this famous canvas; Georg Gronau notes its contemporary popularity as evinced by copies and imitations; Roger E. Fry discusses the æsthetic balance of the composition, and C. Lewis Hind analyzes the color schemes from a painter's point of view. Such essays really supplement each other and enrich the total impression. To bring them into converging relations must have cost the editors infinite labor and tact. For a more modern instance we may take Daumier's "Les Avocats" in the Pope collection. D. S. MacColl takes it as an example of "caricature drawing," of that emphasis which lies near the roots of art itself; Arsène Alexandre contributes interesting personal reminiscences of the painter; Royal Cortissoz dwells upon the technical side of Daumier's draughtsmanship—its tangibility and ponderosity; finally, Camille Mauclair remarks upon the seeming paradox of a caricaturist in possession of the grand style.

Enough has been said to illustrate a feature of the work questionable *à priori*, but actually most interesting and valuable. These groups of short essays on great pictures form a record of the best contemporary opinion on matters of art such as has never before been attempted. And this ambitious scheme has been carried through with notable success. The connoisseurs and critics of England, France, Italy, Germany, the Low Countries, and America have given more than a perfunctory adherence. They are represented *en masse* and often by their best work. The result is such a concentration of the best opinions of the art-loving world of to-day as posterity will perhaps know better how to value than we. Only imagine how a similar anthology from Lorenzo's Florence or even from Louis XIV.'s Paris would be welcomed by the student of this year of grace!

One is tempted to enumerate the contributors—men of the stamp of Herbert P. Horne, Sir Walter Armstrong, André Michel, Drs. Bode, Bredius, and Friedländer, not to mention Frizzoni, Ricci, Venturi, and others as notable—but it is simpler to say that either by its advice or its actual contributions practically all of modern connoisseurship and criticism is here represented. Apart from these famous names the editors have been fortunate in getting excellent papers from less prominent contributors. Such a note as that of Marcia Oakes Woodhury on Whistler's "Blue Wave" is a valuable bit of criticism, illustrating a "possession by the subject" that is at once psychologically true and rare in a conscious artist of Whistler's sort. The humane side of antiquarianism appears in such a note as Gustav Glück's on Van Dyck's "Virgin and St. Catherine," in the Sprague collection. It appears that this is the replica which

was brought to England in 1631, only to be repudiated by its painter as a "copy." In the ensuing discussion Rubens authenticated it as a consummate work of his best pupil. Everywhere the book is easy to read, and since it will be given to several public libraries, its educational import merits the attention we have paid to it. In this connection we should mention the bibliography in double columns, which is furnished as a companion volume. It is purposely kept apart from the book in order that additions may readily be made. It is very much more than a bibliography, containing with slight condensation extracts from all writing respecting each picture—from the sales catalogues, through the special journals, to the general literature of the subject. Such a bibliography is truly a variorum commentary on the finest paintings in America, and we wish it might be published in popular form. Our notice may well close with this appanage of a work throughout characterized by the same taste, scholarship, and breadth of view.

One of the most important reforms proposed by Corrado Ricci, recently appointed general director of antiquities and fine arts in Italy, is the reorganization of the so-called *Uffici regionali per la conservazione dei monumenti*, or local societies for the preservation of ancient monuments and objects of art. Already the budget for this purpose has been considerably increased, so that we may soon see results. More men will be appointed to do the work, and only the best young archæologists and art historians of the country will be chosen. A scientific inventory of all objects of art and monuments is to be published. An illustrated monthly bulletin, called *Bullettino delle belle arti*, is to be issued by the Ministry, giving news of all new finds and of accessions to the various Italian museums and galleries; of this the first number is to appear in January. Moreover, in the near future a new law for the protection of antiquities and objects of art is to be laid before Parliament.

The archæologist F. Noack, supported by the German Archæological Institute, has made an investigation of the city wall of Athens. The work was begun at the Dipy-lon. The Athenian branch of the Institute has issued the following provisional report on the results of this examination:

The original foundation consists of limestone blocks, which must have belonged to an older building. At two different places in the wall were found pieces of two archaic grave-reliefs, which were at once separated from the wall. Of one relief only the upper part is preserved, showing the top of a head, but on the other is represented a youth, standing with a lowered spear in his left hand. In style it resembles the famous disk-thrower. Beneath the youth is a flying Gorgon. In two other places marble blocks were discovered, one with a scarcely distinguishable figure of Hermes of archaic type. These finds thoroughly confirm what Thucydides says about the walls built by Themistocles, and what other evidence has already pointed to—that they were erected in great haste, and that parts of older constructions were used as building material.

The National Society of Craftsmen is holding through December its first annual exhibition in the National Arts Club, of this city. The exhibits are various, including carved wood, weaving, lace, jewelry, and artistic work in silver, work in copper and

bronze colored plaster, porcelain pottery, and leather.

In the galleries of the same club also an exhibition of hooks and hookbindings, representing the output of various publishing houses, hook-hinderies, and individual binders, is now on view. The bindings include the pictorial cloth covers of current fiction and other hooks, and finely tooled and decorated leather work. The leather bindings are as a rule of excellent workmanship and design.

An exhibition of water colors by members of the Salmagundi Club of this city is to be open in the clubhouse, No. 14 West Twelfth Street, till December 22. The pictures include good work and had, but the average is rather higher than in some of the club's previous exhibitions. Many of the pictures have already been exhibited elsewhere. The Alexander C. Morgan prize was awarded to "The Henna Market," by Arthur Schneider. Among the exhibits worthy of note are pictures by C. C. Cooper, Robert David Gauley, Gifford Beal, M. Petersen, W. Ritschel, C. Myles Collier, J. Lauher, M. Fromkes, Charles Warren Eaton, Addison T. Millar, F. Luis Mora, Genjiro Yeto, P. Schmaus, P. McIntosh Arnold, A. R. Freedlander, Harry Roseland, W. H. Drake, Cullen Yates, James H. Moser, R. F. Bloodgood, Will S. Robinson, and C. W. Furlong.

An exhibition of oils, pastels, and etchings by Mary Cassatt is now open at the Durand-Ruel gallery in this city. These pictures, many of which have been seen before, include early and recent work, and record the steps by which this American artist assimilated the spirit and methods of the French impressionists. The work is French through and through, and through and through, equally, it is the personal expression of Miss Cassatt, who, during long years of residence in France, has made herself a part of what she saw there. Her interest is supremely in babies and young mothers. She paints them lovingly, but without sentimentality. The technique of this work is not always impeccable, but the expressions are always fresh and real.

Charles Caryl Coleman is holding an exhibition of pastels and oil paintings at Noé's gallery, open until December 22. The pastels have a lyric delicacy which justifies the title the artist has given them, "Songs of Vesuvius." They are pictures of the eruption of Vesuvius last spring, as seen from Mr. Coleman's studio on the island of Capri.

The Art Association of Montreal is holding a loan exhibition of examples of Rembrandt's work, and of the work of his Dutch contemporaries.

A feature of the Irish International Exhibition, to be held next year in Dublin, will be the collection of modern pictures and sculpture which A. G. Temple is organizing with the help of Sir Charles Holroyd, Lionel Cust, Whitworth Wallis, and other experts. The exhibition will be representative of all the modern schools of art, Continental as well as British, and will be the most important held in Ireland since that of 1853, out of which the National Gallery of Ireland took its rise.

Ernst Josephson, the Swedish painter-poet, who died at Stockholm November 22,

might in some ways have been the model of Osvald in Ibsen's "Ghosts." He belonged to the group of young Swedish impressionists who revolted against the tutelage of the Royal Academy of Free Arts at Stockholm and turned to France for a wider and more authentic inspiration. Together with Carl Larson, Björck, Nordström, Pauli, and others of less note, he headed the secession which, in the eighties, rent the Swedish art world as, still later, that of Germany was divided. By a series of paintings combining rare mastery of color and line with poetry of thought Josephson established a reputation not only in his native country, but in France, England, and Germany as well. Then from being a reveller in sunshine and the joy of life, he grew melancholy and brooding. The signs of the change became first evident in three collections of poetry which he published, the most highly valued bearing the title "Black Roses." His poetry was not less exquisite than his work with the brush, but it was even more morbid than "The Neck" and other specimens of the latest period of his career as painter. At last the catastrophe came, and for the closing eighteen years of his life he remained confined to an asylum.

At an auction at Christie's in London, on December 1, the following prices were paid for paintings: De Hooghe, An Interior, with two gentlemen playing and singing, £189; Rubens, "Atalanta," £105; J. Ruysdael, Landscape, £183; G. Terburg, A Lady, in yellow jacket with black hood, £304; Watteau, A Fête Champêtre, £241; D. Teniers, Card-Players, £210; W. van de Velde, A Sea-Piece, £117; F. Hals, A Man, in brown dress, playing a flute, £1,575; Romney, Head of Lady Hamilton, £252; D. van Delen, The Interior of a Palace, with a party of cavaliers and ladies, £157; Le Brun, Portrait of a Lady, in gray dress, £131; S. Ruysdael, A River Scene, £252; F. Boucher, A Shepherd and Shepherdess, £136; J. Cornelisz, The Madonna and Child Enthroned, £168; G. David, St. Ambrose, £126; Giorgione, Head of a Youth, £120; Van Romerswale, "The Misers," £131. The same firm sold on December 4 the following engravings: After Lawrence: Lady Peel, by S. Cousins, £26; Miss Farren, by Bartolozzi, £63. After Roslin: Empress Marie Christine, by Bartolozzi, £30. After Reynolds: Mrs. Sheridan as St. Cecilia, by W. Dickinson, £31; Lady Caroline Montagu, by J. R. Smith, £37; The Ladies Waldegrave, by V. Green, £71; Hon. Miss Bingham, by Bartolozzi, £58; Mrs. Williams Hope, of Amsterdam, by C. Hodges, £61; Lady Jane Halliday, by V. Green, £48; Lady Louisa Manners, by the same, £105; Master Crewe as Henry VIII., by J. R. Smith, £39. After Constable: Salisbury Cathedral, by D. Ducas, £43. After J. R. Smith: "Retirement," by W. Ward, £43. After Romney: Edmund Burke, by J. Jones, £29; Lady Hamilton as the Spinster, by T. Chesman, £28. After Coates: Frances, Lady Bridges, by J. Watson, £26. After Lely: James, Duke of Monmouth, by Blooteling, £80. After Gainsborough: Mrs. Elliot, by J. Dean, £60; Signora Bacelli, by J. Jones, £71. After Hoppner: The Setting Sun (The Godsal Children), by J. Young, £110. After Huet Villiers; Mrs. Q., by W. Blake, £31. After Morland: Guinea-Pigs and Dancing Dogs, by T. Gaugain (a pair), £126; The Farmer's Door, by B.

Duterrau, £54. After Gardner: A Child with Flowers, by J. Baldrey, £31.

The art collection of Alexandre Blanc was offered at auction in Paris at the Galerie Georges Petit on December 3 and 4. There were seventy-eight pictures by Jongkind. The highest price for his work was 14,000 fr., given for *Crépuscule d'Été au bord de la Merwede à Dordrecht*, 14,000 fr.; two other pieces brought 10,000 fr. each—a view of the Meuse near Rotterdam, and *La Partie de Patinage*.

Science.

PRIMITIVE MAN IN NEBRASKA.

LINCOLN, Neb., December 15.

The human remains discovered near Omaha by Robert F. Gilder and reported briefly in the *Nation* of November 1 (p. 380), have been the object of careful investigation during the intervening time both by local students and by scientists from other parts of the country. These criticisms have served to bring out the great importance of the find and to establish an even greater antiquity for the remains than was held at first. Prof. Edwin Hinckley Barbour and his assistants in geology in the University of Nebraska have made an extended and minute examination of the locality. It is the top of a loess hill some 200 feet above the Missouri River; and it presents 150 feet of typical, undisturbed loess formation. The bones from the upper level came from an intrusive burial and were surrounded by a mixture of loess and surface soil. They are clearly very much younger than the hill itself.

The other remains are scattered widely through the loess and evidently were deposited with it. Abundant evidence has been obtained in detail of their transport by water and deposit in fragments as the loess was being laid down. As these bones are thus shown to be synchronous with the formation, they antedate the hill, and the two series of remains are associated purely by accident.

These facts indicate the existence of man on this continent before the formation of the loess. It is well known that not only the method of deposit of the loess but also its age are at present matters of sharp controversy. This discovery goes far to disprove the view that the loess is an æolian deposit and to establish it as aqueous.

Furthermore all previous evidence of the occurrence of human remains in the loess has been rejected as incomplete. The evidence accumulated in this case cannot be set aside in such manner; and even supposing this hill to be of the latest date assigned by any one to the loess formation, the earliest record of man in North America which it would seem to establish antedates by far any yet accepted in connection with other discoveries. It places man on an equal footing geologically with the most primitive records of the European continent.

Side-Lights on Astronomy and Kindred Fields of Popular Science: Essays and Addresses. By Simon Newcomb. New York: Harper & Brothers. \$2 net.

Simon Newcomb is not only the most

eminent astronomer now living, according to the judgment of the French Academy, expressed in making him one of its five carefully selected Foreign Associates, a judgment supported by the opinion of the scientific world, but he is also a remarkable reasoner; and a good dozen of the twenty-one chapters of the present volume afford valuable lessons in *logica utens*. In addition to that, he has, for a scientific man, a surprising command of language, not of phrases *recherchées*, but of that eloquence which comes from turning the tap of thoroughly filtered thought and allowing it to run crystal-clear and copious. His "Reminiscences" show (unconsciously, no doubt) how well adapted the circumstances of his boyhood were to making him a conversationalist; and this volume is conversational, in the sense of being at once light and serious. It would be hard to find a serious book more entertaining, or a light book that affords better exercise in reasoning.

Perhaps it is a critic's perversity that disposes us to note the kind of reflections that so distinguished a mind either overlooks or suppresses. In a chapter on the "World's Debt to Astronomy," after showing how valuable the services of that science have been to navigation, surveying, and geography, the author very truly says that, great as that debt is, man owes less to the stars on that score than for the tremendous message of their awesome reality. Very true; but does the science of astronomy add to that lesson more than it deducts from it? Professor Newcomb will hardly contend that lying on one's back of a summer night contemplating the poetry of the heavens is science; and if Goethe was right, the scientific view is that the smallest smoke-ring is, in itself considered, as vast and as sublime as the Galaxy. The lesson of devoutness seems to have put the veritably greatest debt of man to astronomy quite out of the head that should be the last to forget it. For Professor Newcomb ought, at any rate, to have mentioned that in the common view it was astronomy that actually taught men to reason scientifically.

The volume is divided into a smaller part discussing those questions in which the astronomer almost becomes a metaphysician, and a larger part devoted mostly to consideration of the methods of astronomical and other scientific research. The smaller part, in accordance with the turn of the author's genius, seems to have received more of his care. It is true that he has discussed such questions as the limits of the universe with more elaboration in another book; but the presentation here is captivating. We confess we cannot understand how the promise of the preface, conveyed in the words, "it became incumbent to do what he [the author] could . . . by revising the material and bringing it up to date," can be reconciled with a number of statements in the larger fraction of the volume. For instance, on p. 213, we are given to understand that the computations of the American "Ephemeris," so far as they concern Venus, are derived from the tables of Dr. George W. Hill, and so far as they relate to Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn from old tables corrected on account of

more recent observations. But every recent volume of the almanac in question states that the places of Venus and Mars are derived from Newcomb's own tables, and those of Jupiter and Saturn from Hill's.

The most valuable chapters are those in which Professor Newcomb definitely limits himself to the needs of science at the present day and in this country. He repeatedly alludes with great force to the disadvantages of personal isolation, from which investigators in this country have often suffered. Think of the momentous consequences to science of that little accidental chat between De Vries and van't Hof, which led to the proof of ionization and to much else. Professor Newcomb sanely preaches a greater consolidation and unification of scientific research. He rightly says that this need not stand at all in the way of the individualism which is also requisite.

If we have conveyed the idea that the book deals wholly with generalizations and generalities, we beg to say that such an impression would be entirely false. The interest is largely derived from its explanations of details; and some of the chapters are almost entirely of such matter. The whole process of making an astronomical objective, according to Alvan Clark's method, is described, with prices, etc.; and in other chapters there are details, though not always the very latest items. But the work is not a treatise; it is a collection of addresses and of magazine articles, and as such treats mainly of broad questions. The dress of the work is most agreeable. The uncut folds of the paper are at the bottoms of the leaves, which are gilt at the top, thus preserving the volume from dust.

"A Text-Book of Fungi," by George Masee (London: Duckworth & Co.), gives a succinct account of this marvellous group of plants. Mr. Masee is the principal assistant in charge of cryptogams at the herbarium of the Royal Botanic Garden, Kew, and is well known as the author of other works on fungi. Our cryptogams, or flowerless plants, comprise far more types of structure than do all of our flowering plants taken together. Of these flowerless plants the fungi rank among the most difficult objects of study. Considerable diversity exists among the investigators of fungi as to the true relationships of many of the groups, and hence it would not be possible for any one student to prepare a text-book which could prove wholly satisfactory to all of his associates. Mr. Masee has not accomplished the impossible. But he has presented to general botanists a handy work of reference which is likely to prove useful. He has given, moreover, an interesting account of certain biological relations of fungi, such as their luminosity, their sensitiveness to chemical agents, etc., and he has dealt at considerable length with the very puzzling subject of hologic forms. Mr. Masee's reference to one of our American investigators is well worth quoting. Speaking of a large group of minute fungi, the Laboulbeniaceæ, the author says, p. 307:

Our knowledge of this group is, with the exception of some few misinterpreted European specimens, entirely due to the admir-

able investigations of one person, Dr. R. Thaxter of Harvard University.

Some time ago the Mercers' Company gave a considerable sum of money to University College, London, in aid of the department of physiology. This has led to the establishment of a course of lectures in which the researches of the department are to be made more widely known. The first series of ten lectures given last year by Prof. E. H. Starling has now appeared in print (W. T. Keener, Chicago). They treat of "Recent Advances in the Physiology of Digestion," including a chapter on the newer knowledge of the movements of the intestine. Naturally much stress, perhaps a little too much, is laid upon the work done at University College, but the subject is presented with much clearness and such simplicity that the general reader, with a very moderate knowledge of the subject, may follow the lectures without difficulty and obtain a good view of the remarkable changes now developing in our ideas concerning ferments and their action.

In the summer of 1905 Prof. William H. Pickering of Harvard made a trip to the Hawaiian Islands for the purpose of studying their volcanic features with special reference to comparison with craters on the moon. The results of his observations were presented to the American Academy early in 1906, and this report now comes as a memoir of that institution, illustrated by thirty-nine plates, representing terrestrial and lunar features. The Hawaiian Islands exhibit an entirely different class of phenomena from those of our more frequently visited and studied volcanic regions; and in some respects they bear striking resemblances to those upon our satellite. Our best-known craters are of what is known as the explosive type—as Vesuvius and Krakatoa. None of this sort appear upon the moon, but only what may be termed in distinction the engulfment type. Of this variety Hawaii offers many examples, showing little steam, often without exterior cones, and enlarging their craters quietly by the cracking off and falling in of their walls. Although considering lunar craters, these island volcanoes are on a very small scale, the likeness is striking. A comparison of Kilauea Iki with the lunar Clavius seems to give indirect evidence of the existence of lava cones as the source of "streams" upon the moon. Final suggestions as to the similarity of valleys behind Honolulu (as seen from Tantalus) and those on the central peak of the lunar Eratosthenes and Copernicus are suggestive as implying erosion in both cases.

Finance.

NEW BORROWINGS BY THE RAILWAYS.

Traditionally, a tight money market is a bad time for great corporations to issue new stocks or bonds. Subscribers for the bulk of such issues are likely to borrow the greater part of the money, because few capitalists keep large sums available for a sudden call. But if, as has been the case this week, borrowers must pay 15 or 25 per cent. per annum for Wall Street demand loans, and 7 to 10 per cent., allowing for the so-called "commission," for loans running one to five months, there is

little inducement to borrow on such terms and invest in new securities, even with a high dividend. Moreover, if the capitalist has outstanding, in demand loans of his own, money which could be utilized for the investment, he is apt to keep it out on loan. Such a situation, in a shape acutely embarrassing, arose in the summer of 1903, when the "rich men's panic" made money for new investments almost non-procurable, and when, nevertheless, a dozen great corporations had already committed themselves to expensive schemes for which they had to raise funds.

On that occasion, railways which had prepared for issue hundreds of millions in 4 per cent. bonds, designed to be sold at par or thereabouts, were driven to the humiliating recourse of borrowing in Europe, on six months or one year notes-of-hand, at 6 per cent. or higher. When money began to grow tight this season, a number of important railways were in the same position. They were preparing to issue, not bonds, as in 1903, but stocks—an interesting change of policy, which shows how a corporation adapts itself to the prevailing fashion. During the famous Stock Exchange "boom" of 1901, when shares of all kinds of companies seemed to have no limit set to their advance, new stocks were, in the language of another industry, "all the rage." In 1900, there were "listed" on the New York Stock Exchange, \$443,700,000 new bonds and \$620,900,000 new stocks. In 1901, the new bond listings were \$923,000,000, and the new stocks \$1,642,000,000. After the collapse of the market, May 9, 1901, the craze abated; after the prolonged decline in stocks during 1903, the public's taste abruptly changed. In 1904, only \$175,800,000 stocks were listed, as against \$535,000,000 bonds. Even last year, listing of bonds exceeded by \$446,000,000 that of stocks. With 1906, and its persistent increase in price of stocks, the public is deemed once more in a mood for stocks.

But whether stocks or bonds, the market for new securities, for the reasons already set forth, was at the beginning of the present season precarious. To ask for \$250,000,000 new capital—which was the sum required by three railways alone—and to ask for subscription on the spot, was out of the question. The money, however, had to be assured; not less, according to common belief, because legislation hostile to certain practices of borrowing railways was expected when the Western State legislatures should convene next month. The solving of this problem introduced another new contrivance in security issues, namely, the extension of payment by instalments, the last of which would not fall due for two years or more. The plan may have been suggested by last April's \$440,000,000 loan raised by the Russian Government, of which the final instalment (\$88,000,000) will not be paid until next February, when another Russian loan will probably be upon the carpet.

Last week, the Northern Pacific Railway announced a new stock issue of \$95,000,000; of which subscribers were to pay 5 per cent. next February, 7½ per cent. next April, and 12½ per cent. each at the opening of January, April, July, and October, 1908, and January, 1909. Great Northern followed with an offer of \$60,000,000 stock, to be paid

for at intervals extending from January, 1907, to April, 1908. This week the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul followed with an offer of \$100,000,000, the payments beginning with \$10,000,000 this month and ending with \$15,000,000 on March 1, 1909. The St. Paul's quick call for ten millions, in the face of this month's extremely disordered money market, excited angry criticism; nor indeed did the profitable subscription privileges offered to existing shareholders make the arrangements popular. Shareholders have the right to subscribe *pro rata* to these new stocks at par, and as Northern Pacific stock at the time the new issue was announced, was selling at 224, Great Northern at 231, and St. Paul at 199, an apparently great profit would accrue to them.

But the mass of investors have never reasoned out, satisfactorily to themselves, just what the net result of such bargains is, when the "rights" have been anticipated by an extravagant rise in the price of the old stock, and when the true value of the shares is certain to be affected by so enormous an increase in the amount outstanding. The experience of the Pennsylvania Railroad in 1903 may have made the market uneasy. At that time, when Pennsylvania had been selling at 151, the railway offered \$75,000,000 new stock to shareholders at 120; but the old stock broke to 118½ before the subscription day arrived. At all events, since the several announcements, Northern Pacific stock has declined 24 points, Great Northern 31, and St. Paul 16, and with them the general market became completely demoralized.

The further application of borrowing corporations for capital will be quite as useful a test of the situation as it was in 1903. Looking ahead, one necessarily asks how future months and years are to be financially affected by the spreading of payments over a long period.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baldwin, James Mark. Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development. Macmillan Co. \$2.60 net.

Beazley, C. Raymond. The Dawn of Modern Geography. Vol. III. Henry Frowde. \$6.75.
 Bédoulière's La Mère Michel et De Son Chat. Edited by Freeman M. Josselyn, Jr. Henry Frowde.
 Bisland, Elizabeth. The Life and Letters of Lafcadio Hearn. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$6 net.
 Blake, William. The Marriage of Heaven and Hell. Boston: John W. Luce & Co.
 Borle, Virginia Frazer. Love Songs and Bugle Calls. A. S. Barnes & Co.
 Brunot, Ferdinand. Histoire de la Langue Française. Tome II. Paris: Armand Collin.
 Burkitt, F. Crawford. The Gospel History and Its Transmission. Imported by Scribners. \$2 net.
 Burton, Theodore E. John Sherman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25 net.
 Butler, W. F. The Lombard Communes. Imported by Scribners. \$3.75 net.
 Canterville Gbost, The. Boston: John W. Luce & Co.
 Charles, R. H. Anecdota Oxoniensia; Book of Enoch. Henry Frowde.
 Charles, Marguerite. Leather Work. Translated by C. T. Mason. F. W. Devoe & Co. 35 cents.
 Chase, Wilfrid Earl. Jonathan Uplade. Published by the author. \$1.25.
 Davison, Alvin. Practical Zoology. American Book Co.
 Dismore, Charles Allen. Atonement in Literature and Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50 net.
 Eiton, Oliver. Frederick York Powell. 2 vols. Henry Frowde. \$7.
 Evelyn's Sculptura. Edited by C. F. Bell. Henry Frowde.
 Faversham, Julie Opp. The Squaw Man. Harpers.
 Fea, Allan. Some Beauties of the Seventeenth Century. Brentano's.
 Fitchett, W. H. Ithuriel's Spear. Eaton & Mains. \$1.60.
 Foolish Almanak. Boston: John W. Luce & Co.
 Gibbs, J. Willard. The Scientific Papers of. 2 vols. Longmans. \$9 net.
 Gilchrist, Edward. Tiles from the Porcelain Tower. Cambridge: Riverside Press. \$1.25 net.
 Goldsmith's Poetical Works. Edited by Austin Dobson. Henry Frowde.
 Goodell, Charles L. The Old Darnman. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
 Hall, Charles Cuthbert. Christ and the Human Race. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25 net.
 Haumont, Emile. Ivan Tourguénief. Paris: Armand Collin.
 Heywood's Royal King and Loyal Subject. Edited by Kate W. Tibbals. Philadelphia: John O. Winston & Co.
 Hints and Helps for the School-Room. Arranged by Caroline S. Griffin. A. S. Barnes & Co.
 Hood's Complete Poetical Works. Edited by Walter Jerrold. Henry Frowde.
 Howell's Devises, 1851. Edited by Walter Raleigh. Henry Frowde.
 Humor of Love. Edited by Tom Masson. Moffat, Yard & Co. \$2.50 net.
 James, Henry. Morality of the Perfect Life. Elkhart, Ind.: New Church Educational Association. 50 cents.
 Johnson, Corinne. Mary Kingwood's School. A. S. Barnes & Co.
 Keats's Poetical Works. Edited by H. Buxton Forman. Henry Frowde. \$2.50.
 Kirkup, Thomas. A History of Socialism. Macmillan Co. \$2.25 net.
 Knyvett, Sir Henry. The Defence of the Realm. Henry Frowde.
 La Jeunesse, Ernest, and others. Recollections of Oscar Wilde. Translated by Percival Pollard. Boston: John W. Luce & Co.
 Lang, Elsie M. Literary London. Imported by Scribners. \$1.50 net.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27, 1906.

The Week.

In selecting Charles H. Keep as Superintendent of Banks, Governor-elect Hughes has made an appointment which is not only excellent in itself, but is an earnest of the intention of Mr. Hughes to live up to his campaign pledges. There is especial significance in his dwelling upon Mr. Keep's expertness in financial matters. This can mean only that the new Superintendent will be expected to aid the Governor in that thorough investigation of the Kilburn régime which Mr. Hughes has promised. Apart from this, Mr. Keep's high personal standing, and peculiar competence gained by years of service in the Treasury Department at Washington, emphasize happily the new spirit that is to prevail at Albany. Important offices, it would appear, are not to be regarded as either a means of furnishing out-door relief to indigent politicians, or as rewards to party workers or personal supporters, but, rather, as opportunities for serving the State. It is not to be expected, of course, that Mr. Hughes will be able to find ideal men for all the appointments he will be called upon to make, but his choice of Mr. Keep shows at least that he means to hold the ideal always in view. From Kilburn to Keep is certainly a long step forward.

Happily there is in the Senate one man who will speak out against the further increase of our army and navy burdens. Senator Eugene Hale of Maine has been warmly opposing the bill to enlarge the artillery of the army. To Senator F. E. Warren, the sponsor of the bill, Mr. Hale justly remarked: "The Senator ought to remember that we have no enemies." He then pointed out that the increase of the army is urged now by one corps, now by another. First, having the troops, we are asked to provide defences; and then, having built the defences, we must get more coast guns. Likewise in the navy the cry is first more ships and then more men, and next more ships for the men, and so on world without end. We wish that the following words of Senator Hale might be put into the hands of every business man the country over:

The military establishments are alike. Each is seeking to aggrandize itself, and each sees nothing in the disposition of the revenues of the Government except to increase expenditures. I do not suppose the people appreciate (I do not know that the Senate does) that two-thirds of the revenues of the Government to-day are devoted to the payment of inheritances from past

wars, like pensions, which nobody can stop, and expenditures in view of future wars. Of all the taxes that are laid and all the revenues collected nearly two-thirds are expended for the military in a broad way.

The report of the House Currency Committee on the credit currency plan follows with reasonable closeness the outline agreed upon at the recent Washington conference of bankers. The proposal is that a national bank may issue, without bond security, notes up to 40 per cent. of its existing bond-secured circulation, but that such credit issues shall not exceed one-fourth of its capital, and shall pay a tax of 3 per cent. In addition, it may issue notes up to 12½ per cent. of capital, but this supplementary circulation will be taxed 5 per cent. A cash reserve equal to that already kept against deposits, must be maintained against all this credit currency. A somewhat interesting comment in the report is that the committee "recognizes no difference between this credit currency and deposits subject to check." The security against the notes is ample; the plan dispenses with the tying-up of capital in Government bonds, but introduces, what does not now exist, the safeguarding of notes with a reserve of lawful money. Such an arrangement would certainly facilitate hand-to-hand payments in the busy season; whether it will, as the committee asserts, "almost invariably prevent any panic whatever," is a much more doubtful question. Panics occur because of loss in value of property, loss of confidence in individual credit, and inability to command resources to pay debts. It is therefore difficult to see how any note-issue system ever contrived can prevent such a situation when overconfidence, abuse of credit, and overvaluation of property have brought about the crisis. Nor is it by any means certain that the credit-note plan will do away with absorption of Eastern reserve money for the use of inland communities at the busy season. The West calls for such reserve money at those times because the money belongs to it, having been left with the East at a time of dull interior trade; and because the West needs the "lawful money," both as reserve against its own expanded bank liabilities and for the "small-note circulation" which bank currency cannot provide. We mention these facts, not for the sake of criticism, but because, in our judgment, the worst mistake would be to promise too much with a new system which is at best experimental. For the rest, the passage of this bill in the present short session, amended or unamended, is hardly to be expected, unless the wheels of legisla-

tion move with unwonted rapidity. But the way will at all events be marked out for a future session.

Samuel Gompers's flat charge that forged petitions in favor of the ship subsidy bill have been sent to Congress in the name of the Marine Trades Council of the Port of New York, at least invites attention to the machinery by which pro-subsidy "sentiment" is being worked up in this country. The District Attorney's office is investigating now the story of a man who says he received from one Alexander C. Smith a check for \$2,000, which he was to spend without an accounting, for sending copies of a set of resolutions and a request for their passage to some 14,000 local labor organizations, all this being done on imitated letter paper of the Marine Trades Council, and with the rubber-stamp signature of its secretary. Whether or not any literally criminal act has been committed, the fact remains that the subsidy lobby, liberally supplied with funds, is making every effort to produce the semblance of a popular demand for the "shipping bill."

The producers of doctored and dubious food and drink products, and not the consuming public, are making their wants felt at Washington, where regulations are being drawn for the administration of the Pure Food law. Representatives Longworth of Ohio and Graff of Illinois introduced to Secretary Wilson, the other day, a delegation of "neutral spirit" manufacturers, who entered protest against the tentative ruling of the Department regarding "blended" whiskey. That decision, that the mixture of neutral spirits with rye or bourbon cannot be labelled "blended whiskey," will, so the delegation said, "imperil their business and be a grave injustice." If the drastic ruling stands, these distillers will simply be confronted by the necessity of making a market for their product, alcohol and water flavored with whiskey, under some other name. These injured manufacturers can make something that looks, smells, tastes, and intoxicates like whiskey. It is certainly no less wholesome—according to their own claims it is often more wholesome—and they can undersell the makers of pot-still whiskey by a tremendous percentage. If people will not drink the stuff under these circumstances, why under the sun should the Government be asked to help sell it, by permitting the use of a disingenuous label?

Last spring it was San Francisco's physical ruin which called out the sym-

pathy of the world; this winter it is her subjection to the powers of immorality. Last week, for instance, Rudolf Spreckels revealed Boss Ruef's little scheme for throwing a municipal bond issue into the hands of a special syndicate. To prevent open sale of these securities, the boss actually proposed to order a general strike on all the street railroads, damage the credit of the city, and thus capture the bonds at a low figure. Ruef was quite willing that thousands of workmen should suffer and women and children go short of food that he and his crew might make some money. Did he not control the labor unions, and was San Francisco's government not a government by the labor unions? It is exactly this point to which we would call attention. Champions of labor unions have long proclaimed that if only the laboring men could run a city government, then there would be a paradise on earth. Well, they controlled San Francisco, elected one of their own as Mayor, and the city duly became a paradise—of thieves, of grafters, of the disorderly elements of every kind. The boss, who has hitherto been regarded as the product of corrupt corporations or rich and conscienceless business men, appeared here as the absolute creature of the labor men. We have frequently pointed the political moral of corporation greed and debauchery, but the record of the San Francisco labor-unions shows them to be quite as dangerous to the public interest and morals, when they obtain the upper hand. Government of a class, by a class, and for a class is here, as always, a denial of the basic principle of this republic.

The suit of Missouri against the Standard Oil Company has already brought out evidence extremely damaging to the managers of this Trust. At the hearing in this city last week, Attorney-General Hadley of Missouri extorted from the Standard Oil Company's own witnesses a confession that the company had been setting up dummy organizations which carried on a feigned competition. The marionettes were all operated by wires from the central office, No. 26 Broadway, New York. The legal significance of these facts is a matter for the courts. The moral significance is clear to any one who has the most rudimentary conception of ethical principles. No casuistry from clever lawyers, Baptist clergymen, or complaisant presidents of colleges can cloud the issue. The Standard Oil Company has been guilty of systematic and persistent dishonesty. No other explanation of these pretences at competition is possible. They were deliberately designed to deceive the public. Moreover, this elaborate structure of trickery could not have been erected and sustained without

the knowledge and active interest of the principal officers of the Standard Oil.

"Once an Englishman, always an Englishman," was the British contention a century or so ago. Yet it is to the English law that the commission appointed by the State Department to investigate our naturalization laws points for a precedent, when it recommends that the expatriation of American citizens be assumed when they obtain naturalization in another country, when they engage in the service of another Power, or when they remain domiciled in a foreign country for five years without taking steps to maintain their American citizenship. The adoption of such a rule will at least insure that all the lightnings from Washington will not be let loose again at the behest of an "American citizen" whose real claims upon this country are about as strong as those of the Akhoond of Swat. In Turkey, especially, as the commission recalls, men with American naturalization papers but no real connection with America have been in the habit of demanding and receiving the protection of this Government in the past. This procedure is founded neither in equity nor common sense. The members of the commission, David J. Hill, James B. Scott, and Gaillard Hunt, were selected on account of their special acquaintance with the questions involved, and their conclusions should carry great weight with Congress.

In all the stories about the spiteful tongues and feminine intrigues which led to the recall of Ambassador Durand, it is pleasant to note that there is not the slightest reflection upon him. In capacity and dignity he has been unexceptionable. It was rumored that there was some dissatisfaction about his conduct of the fisheries negotiation; but the merest reference to the Blue Book would show that this business was transacted wholly in London. Sir Mortimer Durand has, for all that appears, discharged his public duties with adequate skill, while in private he has borne himself, under trying circumstances, like a gentleman. If it is true that court influence, set in motion by a *dux femina jacti*, persuaded the Foreign Office to recall Ambassador Durand, it is no credit to the British Ministry, while an obvious wrong to a worthy public servant.

One of the first rulings of Secretary Straus confirms the right of a State to encourage immigration to this country in a manner forbidden to its citizens. South Carolina, through its Agricultural Commissioner, persuaded 475 aliens to migrate to this country, paid their

passage aboard a vessel landing at Charleston, and on arrival distributed them to various points in the State where labor was needed. They were not contract laborers, and the Commissioner did not find them jobs, but they were told that employment was absolutely certain if they would settle in the South. "States and Territories," says Solicitor Earle in his opinion, "may offer inducements or make promises to foreign laborers by advertisements printed and published in foreign countries, and they are not forbidden to 'assist' in the migration of the foreign laborers to whom such offers are addressed." Since intelligent distribution of aliens offers a better solution of the immigration problem than restriction or exclusion, this decision has important bearings. The Western and Southern States which want more immigrants have seen year after year the new arrivals settle in the North and East, where there are already too many. Under the new ruling States in need of foreign labor will be able to help themselves.

A movement for restricting emigration is manifesting itself in those European countries which are generally regarded as sending the least desirable immigrants to the United States and South America. In southern Italy, it is reported, agriculture has suffered severely both from the depletion of farm laborers and the artificial values created by emigrants returning home with their fortunes made, and bent on establishing themselves as landed proprietors. In addition, the constant influx of money remittances from America has tended to discourage industry and given over whole villages to alcoholism. A similar state of affairs is said to exist in Galicia, where the cost of living has been greatly increased by repatriated emigrants accustomed to the higher standards of the New World. In Spain, public opinion is alarmed at the extensive development of emigration during the last few years, a movement which is regarded as all the more formidable, because it is carried on *en masse* and results in the depopulation of towns and districts. Entire villages with their municipal authorities at their head have left for South America. In the city of Bejar, whose population, according to the *Temps*, has been decreased from 20,000 to 9,500 through emigration, more than 700 families have been conducting negotiations with various South American Governments to secure the necessary means for the voyage out and the establishment of a new industrial centre. The Government of Paraguay offered to defray the cost of passage to Asunción, but the would-be emigrants have, according to Wednesday's dispatches, finally accepted offers from Uruguay and Nicaragua to supply ships and funds.

It is an interesting form of auction.

Throughout its insistence upon amending the Education Bill, the House of Lords has taken the position that it is a conscientious "revising body." In that view, its duty is firmly to oppose, or radically to overhaul, any legislation sent to it by the House (except financial) which, in the judgment of the Lords, is improperly drawn and would be bad for the country. So much for the theory. Now for the practice—not in the case of the Education Bill, this time, but the Labor Disputes Bill. That measure is one to give trades unions special immunities under the law, such as exempting their funds from levy, etc. When it was sent to the Lords, the Conservative leader, Lord Lansdowne, spoke of it as "disgraceful," "tyrannical," and "replete with dangerous consequences." The former Lord Chancellor, Lord Halsbury, declared "on his conscience" that "if Parliament passes the bill, it will strike a serious blow against the spirit of freedom which has hitherto reigned throughout our laws." Yet after all these brave words, Lord Lansdowne advised the Tory peers not to reject the bill, and so provoke a conflict with the Commons on "ground that would be unfavorable" to the Lords. This is plainly a complete surrender of the claim that the Lords are a set of conscientious lawmakers, with revisory powers which they will not surrender, and reduces them to a mere register of the will of the Conservative party—and that purely on grounds of political strategy.

The ukase granting concessions to the Jews in Russia will probably be promulgated within a few days. While the exact tenor of the new regulations is unknown, the complete removal of Jewish disabilities is not to be looked for. At the same time, there will be a relaxation along the entire line of anti-Jewish legislation. Without abolishing the Pale, the bill, as discussed in the Council of Ministers, will grant to Jews the right to take up residence in rural districts of the designated provinces, as well as lighten the restrictions imposed on the classes at present privileged to reside without the Pale. The limited right to acquire land, and liberty to improve educational facilities, are among the other concessions expected. Not only has the Government declared its intention of leaving the ultimate disposal of the Jewish question to the Duma, but the interests of the Stolypin Ministry, whose sole object must remain the restoration and maintenance of internal peace, would preclude complete settlement of the Jewish question, followed, as it must be, by violent disapproval among an influential section of the population.

Archbishop Ireland's sermon of Sunday, dealing with the French religious controversy, is marked by a spirit of moderation and just confidence which no pronouncement from the side of the Church has as yet shown. Condemning the course of the French Government, as he was bound to do, he took care to point out that Catholics in France are by no means free from responsibility for the persecution that has come upon them:

The clergy are much to blame. Admirable in teaching the catechism and in administering the sacraments, they have never learned the virtues of public life. French Catholics have been unfortunate in many of their leaders and spokesmen.

Undoubtedly, the Archbishop is right in saying that anti-clericals and infidels have made the preservation of the republic a popular battle cry in order to get into power; but the fact that such an appeal is made with success would argue that the French electorate exercises, though wrongly perhaps, its political judgment in a way that contradicts the Archbishop's estimate of the attitude of the French people. "The masses," he asserts, "are not used in political life. It will require long years to decentralize power in France, to give citizens consciousness of personal independence, to obtain through universal suffrage a true expression of national will."

These are the days when the young aeronauts are seeing visions and the old aeronauts are dreaming dreams. "Human mastery over the air," said Capt. Ferber, the aerostatic expert of the French army, last week, "is virtually achieved. None of the startling achievements of the past, neither steam, electricity, nor the telephone, can compare with what the future now holds in store for us. Not only will the life of individuals be revolutionized, but governments will be compelled to devise, in almost every department, new methods to meet the changed conditions." Never was there an important invention in quite the same status as that of the potential airship. The problem which was originally believed to present the chief if not the sole difficulty—namely, making a machine that would lift itself—was solved long ago. Practically speaking, anybody with mechanical skill can parallel Sir Hiram Maxim's achievement of some ten years since, and construct an aeroplane which will rise from the ground if its balance is only secured. To-day the world is waiting to learn the art of balancing. It may come, as Capt. Ferber expects, by "a coordinating central mechanism which will permit the operator, with an instinctive touch of the helm, to right his machine when it dips to one side or the other, as the bicyclist to-day maintains his

equilibrium by the instinctive inclination of his body." On the other hand, the mere human hand and eye may attain that quickness and dexterity which Lillienthal and Pilcher lost their lives trying to acquire, but which will make possible navigation through atmospheric currents and "blow holes" and whirlpools. Santos-Dumont predicts that airships—as distinguished from dirigible balloons—will be as common within a few years as automobiles are to-day. If the world were full of sailboats, rigged and keeled and cabined, but helpless on the water, because no such thing as a rudder had yet been invented, a similar situation would exist. No one could then be called visionary for saying, "If somebody will only invent some scheme for making these craft go where you want them, people will be sailing on every lake and river before long." It is somewhat the same with the aeroplane to-day.

It will be good news to mountain-climbers and aeronauts that a remedy has been discovered for "mountain sickness." In the *Revue Scientifique*, Professor Aggazzotti discusses the symptoms and causes of this malady, and gives some account of the way in which it can be prevented or cured. Mountain sickness is not to be confounded with fatigue, inflammation of the respiratory tract, irritation of the skin, or effects of strong light. Its sole cause is the rarefaction of the air at great heights. It affects those who make balloon ascensions, and it can be artificially produced at sea-level. The symptoms are fatigue, somnolence, aggravated nausea, dimness of sight, fainting, headache, and palpitation of the heart. The movements of those affected become uncertain and tremulous. The reason is that rarefaction of the air reduces the quantity of oxygen carried by the blood to the tissues. The results of these physiological conditions Professor Aggazzotti explains in detail. In order to counteract these ill effects Professor Aggazzotti administers a mixture of oxygen, 67 per cent.; carbonic gas, 13 per cent.; and azote, 20 per cent. He is able to push the rarefaction of the air as far as permitted by the powerful pumps in the Turin laboratory, without any unpleasant symptoms being noticeable. The importance of this discovery is evident. Mounting to great heights is no longer a mere adventure or amusement. Railways are being carried to the summits of lofty mountains, and a day will come when rails will be laid over the Himalayas and Andes. Professor Aggazzotti's mixture can then be on tap, to give comfort to the traveller. And as progress is made in aerial navigation, with such a remedy at hand, one can rise to far greater altitudes without discomfort or danger.

IRREGULAR DIPLOMACY.

Canadian sentiment is reported to be adverse to the appointment of James Bryce as Ambassador to the United States. The Canadians say that this will put discredit upon diplomacy as a regular career. How can you ask ambitious men to begin with Montevideo, and gradually work their way up through Teheran, Madrid, and Vienna, if at last, just as one of the great diplomatic prizes is within their reach, you go outside and jump over their heads a man without any diplomatic experience whatever? This Canadian argument is, plainly, one for seniority—the argument, as Lord Rosebery says, which Englishmen too often make even when seniority spells senility.

Behind this Canadian insistence upon the technicalities of the *métier*, there doubtless lies an unexpressed feeling. Canada's policy just now is not to make too ostentatiously friendly advances to the United States, and hence she does not like to see England doing it. There are outstanding questions, tariff and other, between this country and Canada, in which Our Lady of Snows would prefer to be stiffly backed up by the British Ambassador at Washington. She has just seen the great anxiety of the London Foreign Office to come to a good understanding with the United States in the fisheries dispute, even going to the point, in arranging the *modus vivendi*, of enraging the Newfoundlanders, and she does not want in her own case any such straining of colonial loyalty in order to retain American friendship. Indeed, it is easy to understand the distastefulness, not alone in Canada, of the plan of treating the United States as a spoiled child among the nations, whom all the others must take particular pains to conciliate. This seems now the general policy among foreign chancelleries. They feel that they must vie with each other in sending rough-riding and tennis-playing diplomats to Washington, lest they fall out of the category of most-favored nation.

There is, of course, nothing of this idea of a chummy athlete-diplomat in the naming of Mr. Bryce. His coming will, no doubt, be a special compliment to this country, but an intellectual compliment. It implies that the English Government perceives that the American people will feel pleased and honored at having sent to them a publicist of rare ability. They have already sat at Mr. Bryce's feet for instruction in the history and working of their own institutions, about which not one American in 10,000 knows as much as he; and they will not care greatly whether his appointment be "irregular" or not, if only they may welcome in high official position the writer whom they have known as a most friendly while

penetrating critic, and discriminating admirer.

Nor can there be any question that Mr. Bryce's peculiar knowledge of this country, and his wide acquaintance here, will be of great advantage to him, both personally and officially. England has no man whom she could send better fitted for that ambassadorship of people to people which counts so much in these days; and also as delegate from his Government to ours, Mr. Bryce will be well equipped. Better than long training in that "art diplomatic" which Coleridge called "stuff," is the intimate understanding of our government, and our popular temper, which he will bring in his equipment. He knows the paper theory, and he also knows the actual practice. Turn, for example, to his pages on the control of our foreign relations—a subject which will instantly become living to him, once in Washington—and his perfect grasp, both of the theoretical and the practical, is immediately perceived. The interplay of President and Senate, in the matter both of treaties and diplomatic appointments, Mr. Bryce accurately explains; and when Europeans ask him how, under such a system, there can be "the celerity and promptitude so often needed to effect a successful *coup* in foreign policy," his sufficient answer is, "America is not Europe." Indeed, he thinks that Europe might well learn something from America in the matter of putting a Parliamentary check upon "the wide discretion of the executive in foreign affairs." This should make Mr. Bryce *persona grata* with the Senate! And his tribute to the power of public opinion with us in restraining a headlong President, bent upon foreign complications, shows the sureness of his touch:

They watch keenly the language held and the acts done by the State Department, and, while determined to support the President in vindicating the rights of American citizens, would be found ready to check any demand or act, going beyond their legal rights, which could tend to embroil them with a foreign Power. There is still a touch of spread-eagleism and an occasional want of courtesy and haste among public speakers and journalists when they refer to other countries . . . but among the ordinary citizens one finds less obtrusive selfishness, less Chauvinism, less cynicism in declaring one's own national interests to be paramount to those of other states, than in any of the great states of Europe.

If it is not "regular" to go outside the diplomatic service to send us such a man as Ambassador, so much the worse for regularity. Mr. Bryce will come to us feeling as strongly as Cowper did that England and America are really "one country"—one "in respect of interest, intercourse, and affinity." Anglo-American diplomacy has no higher function than to exemplify and enforce that

truth; and no Englishman is better equipped to cooperate with Americans in doing it than James Bryce.

THE UNRECOGNIZED REFERENDUM

The British Premier announced last Thursday, in the House of Commons, the Government's decision to withdraw the Education Bill because of the refusal of the Peers to accept the concessions proffered by the Liberals. "Neither the resources of the Constitution nor of the House of Commons," he said, "are yet wholly exhausted, and a way must and will be found whereby the will of the people will be made to prevail." On the same day the French Chamber of Deputies decided to proceed with the discussion of the new religious law, at the urgent demand of Premier Clemenceau. "The Premier insisted upon a rapid solution of the entire question, as the Government was facing a difficult situation in an ineffectual manner, owing to the insufficiency of the present law." The same day thus witnessed the acknowledged break-down of the two most elaborate pieces of legislation of recent years in Great Britain and France.

Yet it would be wrong to declare either the Education Bill or the Separation Law of 1905 a failure in any but a formal sense. As the basis for compromise and amendment, both bills have served the purpose which the more farsighted among their promoters probably had in mind. The two measures were comprehensive, but provisional. And it is in connection with this method of tentative legislation that we see at work a force which we have called the "unrecognized referendum"—the principle, that is, of ultimate appeal to the democracy, whether in the set form of a parliamentary dissolution and election or the more irregular method of stirring up popular opinion in favor of a defeated cause. The referendum is generally regarded as an academic kind of political game, practicable perhaps in little Arcadian Switzerland or Norway, but quite unfitted to the needs and circumstances of a mighty Power. This is measurably true; but it is obvious also that everywhere great legislative measures are enacted nowadays with a view to ascertaining the state of the public pulse with a certainty which mere preliminary discussion can never supply.

Undeniably, this is an expensive way of making laws. Really, the history of the English Education Bill begins with the Act of 1902, which was so bitterly opposed by the Nonconformists. No one doubted that one of the first acts of a Liberal Government would be to wipe the obnoxious act from the statute books, and the Unionist leaders probably felt that the Education Act would be instrumental in bringing the Liberals into power, as in fact it did. But in

politics it is recognized tactics to seize all you can while you have the power, with the object of keeping as much as you can when you have lost power.

In the same way the Liberal Government introduced Mr. Birrell's bill, well knowing that it would be mutilated by the Lords; and the Lords proceeded to cut it to pieces in full expectation of such cries of execration as have come from the Commons. Was it all comedy on the part of both houses? Not comedy, perhaps; but in the background of the statesman's mind there must have been present the consciousness of an impending struggle that would clear the way for final legislation.

The situation is not far different in France. A Separation bill was introduced into the Chamber in December, 1904, by Premier Combes. It was abandoned in committee for a substitute measure, which in turn was abandoned when the Combes Ministry fell in January, 1905. Then came the bill fathered by M. Briand; the protracted discussions in the Chamber, which finally took action on July 3, 1905; and the further discussions in the Senate, which passed the bill on December 6. All along it was evident that the Vatican would not accept defeat without a struggle. But how could the Government tell *what* the Vatican would do, except by delivering its attack? So a Separation law had to be passed and promulgated, and inventories had to be taken, in order that the very situation of to-day might be brought about. And now the Government stands prepared practically to throw over the most important provisions of the Separation Law in arriving at a *modus vivendi*.

An analogy to this principle of costly but tentative law-making may be observed in much of the present-day tariff legislation. Germany's latest tariff law, a wonderfully comprehensive yet minute group of schedules based on years of preliminary investigation, is intended never to come into force except as a punitive measure directed against such nations as refuse to enter into special treaties of commerce. Such treaties of commerce are in turn based on the provisions of the tariff law, and have been negotiated with the principal Powers participating in German commerce. According to Senator Dolliver, who was on the Ways and Means Committee that framed the Dingley tariff, some of the schedules in that measure were made purposely high as a possible basis for the negotiation of favorable reciprocity treaties.

Closely connected with the idea that legislation is neither ultimate nor perfectly sincere, is the tendency of opponents of a law to resort to "passive resistance." This is not a happy phrase, since it does not mean resistance, so much as courting the pains of the law in a spirit of martyrdom, and with the

object of obtaining resubmission of that measure to the people. There is always a minority, and republican institutions have taken for granted that it must submit to the majority. But passive resistance tends to shake one's confidence in the abstract right of the majority, and would substitute for the present rule—the majority to have everything and the minority nothing—a more equitable rule, embodying possibly the privilege of proportional right; so many concessions, say, to the minority for every million voters it can show.

GOOD HATERS IN POLITICS.

A new reminiscence of Bismarck has been published in the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*, in the shape of an extract from forthcoming memoirs written by Ludwig Doczy. He was long an intimate of Andrassy, who was Foreign Minister when Bismarck came to Vienna in 1873, during the German struggle with the Vatican. Andrassy gave to Doczy his impressions of the Chancellor, gained from several long conversations. Andrassy was loud in praise of the German visitor. He had met many clear-sighted public men, but none who seemed to view the world through such achromatic glasses (*farbloße Brille*) as Bismarck. Then he proceeded to compare the German with the great Hungarian statesman, Franz Deak.

One thing, he said, Deak never had which seems to inhere in Bismarck's nature. Bismarck hates what gets in his way, and his hatred sometimes leads him into blind rage. He gave me to-day a proof of this which left me astounded. He was speaking of the *Kulturkampf*, and when he came to touch upon the Pope, the blood flew to his face, his words, which he at other times seemed to choose carefully, came from him in a rush, and sounded like curses. He called the Holy Father a peril to every country and every throne, a revolutionary and anarchist, whom all Europe must withstand if a single prince was to remain safe upon his throne. I could not forbear seeming surprised at his language, but that only drove him on to harsher words.

It is plain that Andrassy regarded this susceptibility to anger and hate as a serious defect in Bismarck's equipment as a statesman. Nor could one, surveying the great Chancellor's career as a whole, well deny it. Too often he assumed a vengeful attitude towards men who differed with him, or whom he disliked personally. The names of Count von Arnim, Geffcken, and Gontaut de Biron suggest the lengths to which his violent temper frequently hurried him. And it prepared many a humiliation for him. After all his fierce denunciations of the Pope, he had finally to go to Canossa; and for years he had to govern by aid of the Clerical party which he abhorred. Hatreds like Bismarck's come home to roost.

His indulgence of that passion was

principally after he had risen to power. As an obstacle to rising to power, hate has a recognized place. It is illustrated in an anecdote of Joseph Chamberlain, given in the "Letters of George Birkbeck Hill." Chamberlain was President of the Board of Trade, and a shipping bill was shown to him late in the session of Parliament. The man who brought it to him said: "If you will bring in the bill without replying to the brutal attacks made on you by the bad shipowners, and will not make a stir, the bill can be got through; if you make a big speech, it will be lost." Chamberlain replied, "I am not like you, who can turn the other cheek when smitten on one. I shall attack those who have attacked me." He made a brilliant speech, and the bill was never carried. X—said to himself, "That man will never be Prime Minister. He hates too well."

It may, of course, be said that a capacity for cordial hate necessarily goes with the great driving qualities which give men like Bismarck and Chamberlain their power. And few will deny that, compared with the politician who swallows all rebuffs, and cherishes no resentment, in order that he may get or keep office, the good hater in politics is a respectable figure. When Dr. Johnson said that he liked a good hater, he probably meant a man who used discrimination in the objects of his hatred. A too universal distributor of vitriol can be admired by none.

A good deal of fun has been poked at the theological distinction between hating the sin and loving the sinner. Something of the sort, however, is a sound rule in politics. It is of the highest importance to the Government of France, just now, for example, that nothing like personal animosity should appear in its dealings with the Pope in regard to the status of Church property in France. Any such violent language as Bismarck fell into would defeat its own end. Fortunately, M. Briand, the Minister directly in charge of the matter, is a man whose great ability goes with good manners. The absence of all heat in his public utterances on the Church question, is, in such a crisis, the sure mark of a statesman.

READING FOR CHILDREN.

We have just been reviewing the annual output of books for children. Of the hundreds of volumes that were sent us, the overwhelming majority were obviously rubbish; and of the comparatively few culled out for notice, not one provoked the reviewer to enthusiasm. At best, the books were scarcely more than innocuous and tolerable. This fact is disquieting to thoughtful parents, who find that each year the problem of providing children with suitable reading becomes more difficult. You may take high ground and refuse to buy the cheap

and trivial, but nevertheless your boys and girls will see it at the houses of neighbors—will see and probably borrow. In such cases, absolutely prohibition, unless the book be clearly demoralizing, is unwise. An *index expurgatorius*, for children as for adults, does little more than provoke curiosity and stimulate interest.

The change which a century has wrought in books for children is forcibly shown in Henry Frowde's reissue of Mary Wollstonecraft's "Original Stories from Real Life; with Conversations Calculated to Regulate the Affections and Form the Mind to Truth and Goodness." The volume, first published in 1791, is characteristic of the author of "A Vindication of the Rights of Woman," and characteristic also of the age. That was the period when Day's "Sandford and Merton," Mrs. Trimmer's "History of the Robins," Holcroft's translation of Madame de Genlis's "Tales of the Castle," and Maria Edgeworth's "Parent's Assistant"—when this solid mass of didacticism was regarded as the very thing to cultivate in young people a taste for literature. These stories contain relatively little incident, and that warranted to soothe the mind rather than excite it. There are long pages of discourse, dull, edifying, not to say priggish. In Mary Wollstonecraft's "Original Stories" a Mrs. Mason is always preaching to her young charges. When a storm is impending she assures the children:

No, certainly, I am not afraid. I walk with the same security as when the sun enlivened the prospect—God is still present and we are safe. Should the flash that passes by us strike me dead, it cannot hurt me, I fear not death! I only fear that Being who can render death terrible, on whose providence I calmly rest; and my confidence earthly sorrows cannot destroy. A mind is never truly great till the love of virtue overcomes the fear of death.

Such a passage as this in "Original Stories," or any of these highly recommended books, is a complete commentary on some often quoted sentences from Hazlitt's essay, "On Reading Old Books." He is speaking of the time when he was "a little, thoughtless child":

"Tom Jones," I remember, was the first work that broke the spell. It came down in numbers once a fortnight, in Cooke's pocket-edition, embellished with cuts. . . . With what eagerness I used to look forward to the next number and open the prints! Ah! never again shall I feel the enthusiastic delight with which I gazed at the figures, and anticipated the story and adventures of Major Bath and Commodore Trunnion, of Trim and my Uncle Toby, of Don Quixote and Sancho and Dapple, of Gil Blas and Dame Lorenzo Sephora, whose lips open and shut like buds of roses.

We must not be understood as urging upon children such books as "Tom Jones," "Peregrine Pickle," "Tristram Shandy," and "Gil Blas." They are

not milk for babes. But we have not the slightest fear that our heirs of all the ages will turn to Fielding, Smollett, or Sterne while they have Henty and his fellow-craftsmen, large and small. Boys who vote Scott and Cooper stupid and long-winded, boys who are used to such highly spiced food that they find Dickens flat and insipid, will never be tempted by any of the eighteenth-century novelists—barring Defoe. Some English journalists, apparently unaware of developments in juvenile literature since 1860, have been gravely discussing the question whether children should be allowed to read Shakspeare. *Allowed* to read Shakspeare? How can we possibly persuade them to read Shakspeare? It is all very well to assure us that the guileless mind of the child can receive no contamination from the grossest scenes in Elizabethan drama, that "innocence has a panoply of its own"; more impenetrable than the panoply of innocence is that of indifference. The child who classes "The Merchant of Venice" with Blair's sermon "On the Duties and Consolations of the Aged" will assuredly gain neither benefit nor harm from either work.

Yet time was when even children thought Shakspeare entertaining. A glimpse of that irrevocable golden age is given us in one of Eugene Wood's delightful sketches, "The Drama in Our Town," in *McClure's* for January. In *Our Town* it was bad enough to read that book whose title bore those "black and shameless words, 'Adam Bede, a Novel.'" There was, however, a lower depth of depravity. "You had borrowed from a neighbor Shakspeare's Plays. You heard what Brother Longenecker said about that only last Sunday. He said 'Shakspeare is the Devil's Bible!' And you had borrowed that book, *borrowed* it, when you had Butler's 'Analogy of Revealed Religion,' Nelson's 'Cause and Cure of Infidelity,' 'The Autobiography of Hester Ann Rogers,' and other good books about the house, scarcely opened." This is an echo from an antediluvian world—the world as it was before the flood of books for children overwhelmed it. Few children of to-day would dream of borrowing George Eliot or Shakspeare for the mere pleasure of reading. George Eliot and Shakspeare are part of our school courses in literature and as such are manifestly beyond the pale of human interest.

And what is the remedy for this evil? We do not, we confess, know exactly what to do for our own children. Librarians, a multiplying and a zealous race, proceed on the theory that the thing to do is to cultivate in the young a taste for reading and trust to time and growth to improve that taste. What with children's rooms and story hours, the librarians are making a high bid for the attention of our youth. Indeed, schoolmasters are beginning to com-

plain of the superior attractions of the library. When the very latest thing in adventure and fiction invites, arithmetic and grammar may seem almost as tiresome as George Elliot and Shakspeare; and the opening of a new public library may result in lower marks in the prescribed studies. But we cannot wholly sympathize with those fathers who lament because the new librarians are making boys too fond of books. In this matter we must trust to the uncovenanted mercies of that providence which watches over every rising generation. A lad who reads widely and omnivorously is likely, sooner or later, to discover his way to the best; and even if he never rises above second-rate books, he may at least be saved from recreations that are vulgar and debasing.

AN AUSTRALIAN ANTHOLOGY.*

SYDNEY, December 2.

"How are your poets?" asked a consul-general for the United States, when he first set foot in Sydney. "They are dead, I thank you," was the reply. It was almost literally true. Australia is a stony-hearted stepmother, who slays the sons of Apollo, and only one of the more eminent of her poets was then alive, although most of them, had fortune dealt more kindly by them, might be living at this hour. The history of Australian poetry, brief as it is, affords a lamentable retrospect. Three of our best writers—including the greatest of all—died by their own hands. Others, including one only less great, sank untimely into their graves, after checkered lives that recall the early Elizabethan dramatists. Only a few months ago the last of that school was appropriately laid to rest, where the Pacific breaks at his feet. The new generation has been washed, combed, dressed, and made presentable, and it has ceased to cultivate poetry, as the first Edinburgh reviewers cultivated literature, "on a little oatmeal." The new Australian poet is the editor of influential journals, stands high in the teaching or other professions, or has been provided with a comfortable post in the civil service or the libraries. Poetry has not always gained by the change. It was simple and sincere, powerful and passionate, faithfully reflecting the melancholy moods of its composers, and the agitated circumstances of their ill-starred existences; it is now elegant, ambitious, affecting high themes, but destitute of the power to stir or move.

By common consent, the strongest of Australian poets was Adam Lindsey Gordon, whose name the editor of the new anthology misspells, *Lindsay*, although the true orthography was definitely ascertained by Douglas Sladen, the editor of an anthology published ten or twelve years ago. Like many of his elder poetic brethren, Gordon was an immigrant. Born at the Azores, but reared in England, he came out to Australia in his hot youth, and his "Exile's Farewell," if it does not rank with Byron's or Hugo's parallel

*"An Anthology of Australian Verse." Edited by Bertram Stevens. Sydney: Angus & Robertson, 1906.

poems, may pair off with Edward Bliss Emerson's "Last Farewell." The emigrant's wretch from home—so little lacerating in these days of easy intercommunication—in the old days was terrific, and has inspired many a poem. Gordon's powers came to maturity when he settled down as a sheep-farmer on the heights between Victoria and South Australia. He found a still more fitting environment when he deserted this ideal—but in his hands unprofitable—pursuit, and took to horse-breaking. Then he won a cheap fame as a steeplechase rider in the country of horse-racing par excellence. A wild life he led. He did not drop his acquirements, and he translated from Greek and Latin, German and Spanish; but it was in phonographing the experiences of the English gentleman sunk to the level of a station hand that his genius won its triumphs. "The Sick Stockrider" (reprinted in the volume under review) is perhaps the solitary Australian poem that has a chance of immortality. The stockman has come to the end of his tether, and recalls, as his comrade lifts him down from the saddle, the ineffable joys of past days:

'Twas merry in the glowing morn, among the gleaming grass,
To wander as we've wandered many a mtle,
And blow the cool tobacco cloud, and watch the white wreaths pass,
Sitting loosely in the saddle all the while,
'Twas merry 'mid the blackwoods, when we splod the station roofs,
To wheel the wild scrub cattle at the yard,
With a running fire of stockwhips and a fiery run of hoofs;
Oh! the hardest day was never then too hard!

Oh rebel to the last, as Gordon was, he feels no remorse:

This I know—
I should live the same life over, if I had to live again;
And the chances are I go where most men go.

Gordon's masters were Shelley, Browning, and above all Swinburne, whose unmistakable accents he borrows to describe his adopted country in the "Dedication" to another sportsman—the author of "Holmby House." Seventeen years ago, in the *New Review*, the master entered into rivalry with his disciple. "The Swimmer's Dream" shows Swinburne at his best and his worst. Not even Tennyson's "horns of elfland" wakes such echoes as those unapproachable lines; but the volume of meaning in them is inappreciable. Twenty years earlier Gordon had dreamed the same dream in "The Swimmer" (unfortunately, not included in the present selection), but while the slender-bodied English poet, with the fair face, the shrill voice, and the eloquent tongue that enchanted the listener, seems to melt passively into the waves, the shaggy-breasted Australian athlete, with bass pipe and the thews and sinews of a man, contends with them and wins a victory over them.

With Gordon's tragic death by a gunshot wound on the scrub near Melbourne, at the death-age of genius—thirty-seven—Henry Kendall passed into the first place as an Australian singer. He was of mingled English and Irish origin, and thus "the German paste in his composition" was kneaded with Celtic fire. He is another son of Swinburne, who acknowledged the beauty of his verses with his ungrudging and unflinching recognition of the merits of his brother poets. Kendall was well

aware of the derivative character of much of his inspiration, and he admitted that there were

Some notes that unto other lyres belong,
Stray echoes from the elder sons of song.

But if he borrowed the lilt of the English masters, he adapted it to a new environment. None has more felicitously rendered the magic tones and wonderful effects of the Australian atmosphere, which inspires its lovers to use swelling epithets. The keyword of Australian prelates and statesmen is "magnificent," and the keyword of its poets is "splendid." The gloomier aspects of nature, with such a sun to light them up, they hardly know. Kendall's life was one of the saddest in the annals of poetry, but his lyrics are bright and fairylike, and his rare blank verse is nobly ethical. Like Tasso, Nat Lee, William Collins, and many another of his race, he made the acquaintance of the madhouse, and though Sir Henry Parkes, Premier of New South Wales, always generous to struggling men of letters, honorably came to the rescue with a Government appointment, the broken-hearted bard "fretted himself to death." "His wound was deep; he fain would sleep."

A successful poet, who was at the same time conspicuously prosperous in public life, is a jewel in the beauro of misfortune. Alfred Domett will live as the original of Browning's "Waring" in a poem where the modern Shakspeare took some liberties with his model. Waring really left for New Zealand, but not surreptitiously, as hinted, and Browning, who long corresponded regularly with his distant friend, well knew where the new avatar of Vishnu had been revealed. Domett became colonial secretary of his province, and after representative institutions had been granted to the young colony, he rose to be its Premier. In the Premier's office (so one of his successors informed your correspondent), or, more fittingly, at Sir George Grey's romantic island-home at Kawau (as Grey asserts), was composed the only considerable poem yet produced at the Antipodes. The publication of "Ranolf and Amohia" in London, when Domett came back from thirty years' exile in the South Seas "with this to show for it," aroused general curiosity. What new message had the seer from the cannibal islands brought, what new truths had he to communicate as the fruits of his long residence in alien scenes? Tennyson was cordially appreciative: the poem revealed "intellectual subtlety, great powers of delineating delicious scenery, and imaginative fire." Domett's old and unchanged friend, Browning, was enthusiastically eulogistic: he ranked it under nothing "for subtle, yet clear writing about subjects of all others the most urgent for expression, and the least easy in treatment." It is a long philosophico-descriptive poem of 14,000 lines, where the unique scenery of the wonderful Hot Lakes district of New Zealand was perpetuated only a few years before its most striking features were obliterated by a volcanic eruption. The poem no less glorifies the dying Maori race, caught just at the moment when its nobler attributes were at the point of vanishing, by linking the fortunes of the hero (Ranolf) with a ro-

mantic Maori maid (Amohia). Two brief excerpts from it are given in the present selection. Should not the editor have included the stirring elegy on Capt. Cook, which might well be (if, indeed, it has not already been) incised on the monument to the old navigator in St. Paul's Cathedral, London?

Domett was connected with Browning by still other poetical ties. He was the "Alfred, dear friend" of "The Guardian Angel." He was the "friend, over the sea" of "Time's Revenges" who had championed the drama, "Pippa Passes." And when he returned to England Browning was among the first to welcome him. Longfellow reprinted his "Christmas Hymn" in 1845, and thirty years later he wrote to the author: "I have lost none of my old admiration for it." American periodicals reprinted it year by year; and over 1,300 American artists competed for a prize of \$3,000 offered by Harper & Brothers for the best illustrations of the poem.

Add to these the late Charles Harpur, preëminently the poet of the bush, who alone has finely rendered its atmosphere of "weird melancholy"; and also the late James Brunton Stephens, author of "Convict Once," whom the Prime Minister of the Commonwealth dubbed "the poet laureate of Australia," and we have all the *dei majores* of Australian song. They are as giants among the pygmies of the present generation, and yet much of the verse produced in recent years is both strong and of high quality. Judged by the circulation of their works, the two leading versifiers are Henry Lawson, author of "While the Billy Boils," and A. B. Patterson, "the Man from Snowy River." Their vigorous stanzas are redolent of the drover's track and the swagman's wanderings. Lawson, the son of a Norwegian, is really Larsen by name, and his racy verses show how completely he has assimilated bush life. His is not the only example of the æsthetic advantage of a foreign strain. Johannes Karl Andersen, of Danish origin, furnishes a New Zealand parallel to H. H. Boyesen, and in his polished lines we detect the same blended note of culture and—what shall we call it?—Scandinavianism so audible in the Norsk American. Very radical Australianization is no less observable in the poetesses. Miss Werner was for the time and Miss Castilla is for always a thorough Australian; and Ethel Turner, though of English birth, has made herself the unsurpassed poet and novelist of "the little Australian." A child-poem of hers, happily given by Mr. Stevens—"A Trembling Star"—is (in Carlylean phrase) "written as in starfire and immortal tears," withal so perfect in form and compact in structure that not a line of it can be detached from its context. But the Australian and New Zealand women (numbering between a fourth and a fifth of the total poets of the new anthology) come honorably out of the contest with their brothers for Parnassian bays, as they do for academic laurels. Miss Jessie Mackay's lofty threnody, through which the bagpipes scream, is instinct with the grief of a whole people for the Highland shepherd who inaugurated the nationalization of the land in New Zealand. Broken with heroic toil and, alas! bitter strife, the tribune crept from his home to the wayside railway

station, where the Prince of Wales arrested his progress through these colonies to bestow on the dying man the *accolade* of knighthood. It had been nobly earned.

He found her a land of many domains,
Maiden forest and fallow plains—
He left her a land of many homes,
The pearl of the world where the sea wind roams.

J. C.

Correspondence.

THE EXAMPLE OF BRUNETIÈRE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Brunetière stood for two ideals: One in politics, namely, that, in order to get out of the confused state of affairs which has prevailed in France for many years, and in order to restore lasting peace and stability, an authority was necessary above the people; and for this authority he looked towards Rome.

The other in literature, namely, that the really great literature in France, the one most in accordance with the glorious traditions of the country, was the classical literature of the seventeenth century. Its ideal was high, its philosophy was wise, its style was great. As other influences prevailed—be it England in the eighteenth century, or Germany at the beginning, Scandinavia in the middle, cosmopolitanism at the end of the nineteenth century—France was no longer keeping its rank as the nation representative of original, strong, and refined civilization. France was no longer France.

Brunetière wrote not a line without fighting directly or indirectly for his convictions. Read his famous article on "Classicism and Romanticism," or read his "Discours de Combat," or read even his papers on the proposed spelling reform in France: you will find always the same man fighting for the same ideals.

His philosophy may have been all wrong. I think it was. But he had a philosophy; and this has come to be a rare thing in our days, even in the class of scholars who ought to keep more intimately in touch with the world at large, *i. e.*, in literary men. Beside Brunetière, can you name a literary critic of some fame who has any philosophy of his own, or who is not, indeed, proud of having none? They say it is not "scientific" to have one. This word has become ridiculous, so much has it been misused. To fall on one's knees before a scrap of paper containing an unpublished line of some obscure poet; to speak of the "sacrosanctity" of the commas of the world geniuses; to bless an editor who gives us the chance to enjoy to-day even the "misprints" of an original edition of the sixteenth or seventeenth century; or, again, to pile up documents in order to ascertain whether Lamartine had kissed Elvire, whether certain scenes of D'Annunzio were plagiarisms or reminiscences—this is what we call science.

Brunetière owned the very rare gift called in his own language *le sens de la perspective*; he scorned this sort of research, and he has often expressed very boldly his opinions in such matters. Did he not, in the last article that came from his pen (*Revue des Deux Mondes*, November 1, 1906) use the word *fatras* with ref-

erence to some volumes of the *Société des Anciens Textes*, a collection generally regarded as a triumph of modern scholarship and editorship?

Even if we reject his political and literary theories, in one thing Brunetière will remain an example to us all: he would always know which problem was of vital interest and importance, and he laid stress on that. We sometimes complain that our contemporaries do not pay attention to our efforts and our work. Is it surprising that they should turn their backs on those who so often are mere hairsplitters? No, it is legitimate. As long as we make it a point to bury ourselves in our own specialties, like a rat in his cheese, how can we expect the world to be benefited by us? How can we expect the world to pay any attention to us, if we do not pay any attention to the world? Brunetière understood it, and he adopted another method: he stepped to the front; he had something to say, and he spoke. His fellow-critics often tried to ridicule him, but his fellow-men respected him for it, and he became a real power among his contemporaries.

The Kingdom of Heaven belongs to those who take it by violence!

ALBERT SCHINZ.

Bryn Mawr, Pa., December 19.

THE FOUNDATION OF SCHOLARSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In this week's "Notes" you discuss Miss Crouse's "Algiers," showing wherein it falls short of the "Alhambra" and "Hyperion." Among other things, you say, most truly, "That preliminary labor and carefully veiled scholarship which bottom the work of even the lightest of the great descriptive travellers do not show here," *i. e.*, in "Algiers." Yet, may I grumble? While "Hyperion" was in your mind, why not have quoted the youthful romancer's own words, in the beautiful "Miserere" chapter?

And, to cheer thy solitary labor, remember that the secret studies of an author are the sunken piers upon which is to rest the bridge of his fame, spanning the dark waters of Oblivion. They are out of sight; but without them no superstructure can stand secure.

Words as wise as noble. We need them more than ever in these get-there-quick days.

J. M. HART.

Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., December 22.

Notes.

Juvenal now takes his place in the Temple Greek and Latin Classics issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The translation, printed, as in all the series, on alternate pages with the text, is the vigorous work of William Gifford, Murray's right-hand man in the days of the old *Quarterly*. The text is expurgated by the omission of long passages, which seems to us needless and impertinent. Parts of the sixth satire, especially, cannot be reproduced literally in English, but the Latin here might be given alone or with an *ordo*. The classical languages are not likely to be read for illicit purposes in these days.

Several of the studies in *Hilaire Belloc's*

"Hills and the Sea" (Scribners) were first published in the English dailies, and very much out of place they seemed, in the silly season, in the columns of the *Morning Post*. They are far more effective taken together, and the mood in which to enjoy them is easily summoned now that one is undistracted by the brisker style of the journalism that was their setting. Mr. Belloc is one of those who feel the keenest sense of life when they linger in remote bypaths, eat coarse food, and are, like Antaeus, in close and reassuring contact with earth and the unchanging ways of sailors and hill men. Permanence, whether it show itself in an oaken roof in a Sussex stable, or the habits of the dwellers in the fastnesses of the Pyrenees, is Mr. Belloc's fetish. He need not, however, go very far afield to satisfy his craving for "places that preserve their historic continuity, and satisfy the memories in one's blood." He writes of the town of Lynn on the east coast of England, Lynn with its memories of the Baltic and the Lowlands, in much the same mood of dreamy ecstasy as inspired him at Arles. At Arles, indeed, he has been forestalled by Vernon Lee and Arthur Symons, and many a tourist who has enjoyed there "full communion with antiquity." The desolate fens of East Anglia are described in more than one of these sketches. In "A Family of the Fens" Mr. Belloc tells the strange tale of the draining of the fens by the Russell family in the seventeenth century. All the adventurers who tried that Herculean task were ruined, except the Earls of Bedford. In "The Guns" and "The First Day's March," vivid descriptions of Mr. Belloc's experiences as a French conscript, serving in the artillery, he writes with spirit of human intercourse and action, an effective contrast with the majority of the essays, which are records of solitary sails and rides and walks.

No. 4, vol. xiv., New Series, of the Proceedings of the Modern Language Association of America, covering the twenty-third meeting, held last December at Haverford College and the University of Wisconsin, is just issued. Among the most interesting papers are those by Walter Morris Hart, on "Professor Child and the Ballad," and William Guild Howard, on Goethe's Essay on Laocoön. Professor Hart was stirred to his writing by Professor Gummere's declaration that a collection of Child's critical remarks on the ballad would be valuable in studying the popular ballad as a distinct literary type, and he has undertaken to show the general drift of Child's sentiments, grouping them according to authorship and transmission, subject-matter, technique, a comparison of the "Ballads" of 1857-59 and "The English and Scottish Popular Ballads" of 1882-98, and general comments upon specific ballads. The celebration this year of the 400th anniversary of the finding of the marble group of Laocoön and his sons in Rome probably suggested the paper on Goethe's "Über Laokoon." Examining Goethe's temperament and preparation for the study of the antique, and constantly comparing him with Lessing, Dr. Howard concludes that no man knew better than Goethe the insufficiency of naturalistic methods in the fine arts. He valued the Laocoön because, in his opinion, it was not merely true to nature, and

the presuppositions of his admiration have become, in a large measure at least, the criteria of our judgment.

In the eighth volume of A. H. Smyth's "Writings of Benjamin Franklin" (Macmillan) is given the correspondence for three years, 1780-1782. Franklin is shown at his best. Though suffering bodily, his mind is alert and his patience almost without limit. His masters, Congress, had impressed upon him an unreasonable amount of labor, and a particularly exasperating combination of diplomatic, financial, and commercial details that often threatened him with serious trouble and bankruptcy. The captains of the Continental vessels abused him, their agents (and sometimes themselves) were dishonest, and their jealousies were brought to him for recognition. His colleagues on the Peace Commission did not show discretion in their dealings with the French Court, and their debts came to Franklin for payment. In all these difficulties the old man (he was now seventy-five) proved his abilities and surmounted the obstacles strewn in his path. His letters to Congress and to Vergennes are masterpieces of simple directness, wise in warning and in gratitude, and awakening a confidence in him on both sides of the water which few men, if any, have since enjoyed under more favorable conditions. The volume contains little outside of his correspondence. The dialogue with the gout, the supplement to the *Boston Chronicle*, the hints to emigrants to America, and an apologue sum up those features, pointing to a decreased activity. But the journal of the peace negotiation and his letters prove that there is no decay of mind. The editing is exact and the text is clearly an improvement on previous editions, though the novelties are few in number.

When the "Arabian Nights" reached the standard haven of "Bohn's Libraries" it was only fitting that it should be in the form of Lane's translation. Whatever exception may be taken to the style and method of that rendering—and both can as easily be defended as attacked—there does not exist in any European language a publishable version which can compete with it. Mr. Payne's might, if it could be put into household form; but from such a modification honorable adherence to a promise given to his original subscribers has restrained him. The present edition of Lane has been recast by Professor Lane-Poole, and it is to be completed in four volumes, three of which have now appeared. The text is given entire and untouched, save for some reform of the spelling of the proper names, but the commentary has been almost entirely cut away. A few absolutely essential notes come at the foot of the pages, and at the end of each volume are three or four pages of critical notes for the student of the Arabic original. This abbreviation is supposed to be in the interests of popularity, but those who grew up with Lane's notes and gradually soaked themselves through these in the ideas and life of the Muslim East will view the loss with something like consternation. The same holds of the Harvey illustrations—here also vanished. With all their *gaucherie* and even inaccuracy, they had become as integral a part of the work as the text. In their stead comes a picture of Lane himself, in Orien-

tal dress, from a drawing made in 1838. This is most striking. Lane's type of face must have been a passport in itself to Muslim society. As is known, one of his Cairene friends could never be persuaded that he did not belong to a prominent Meccan family. "Aladdin" and "Ali Baba" are to be added to the last volume, with an index and glossary and a review of the history and sources of the "Nights." Than Professor Lane-Poole no one is better fitted to write such an account; may he take the space to do it thoroughly and completely.

Henry Holt & Co. publish a new edition of Goethe's "Iphigenie auf Tauris," by Prof. Max Winkler of the University of Michigan. Besides a carefully tested text, embodying the main points of vol. x. of the Weimar edition, a bibliography, incomplete and yet giving the more important recent material on the "Iphigenie," including both German and French school editions, there is an introductory essay dealing with the legend of Orestes, the question of blood-guilt among the Greeks, the story of Orestes and Iphigenia in ancient literature—particularly in the period from Homer to Æschylus—and the "Electras" of Sophocles and Euripides, and the same legends in French and German literature before Goethe. The genesis of Goethe's "Iphigenie" is explained in his experience up to the end of 1775, his relation to Frau von Stein, and his labors on the masterpiece, first in Weimar and then in Italy. That which marks this critical essay especially is the discussion of the healing of Orestes, the pivotal point of the play. Professor Winkler agrees with leading critics that "the 'Iphigenie,' like the representative works of Goethe, must be studied from the standpoint of the poet's experience, and that therefore a careful analysis of this experience and the poet's own correspondence are the safest guides for the sound interpretation of the drama." The notes are scholarly and independent.

The present conditions in China are interestingly described by the Hon. T. W. Foster in the *National Geographic Magazine* for December. The efforts towards reform in education, the opium habit, the creation of an army, the establishment of a parliament, the development of the country's resources are well treated. He presents the Chinese side of several important matters. For example, he shows how entirely right the Government was in compelling the surrender of the Canton-Hankow railroad concession. He closes with a reference to the honorable and patriotic feeling towards the payment of that "outrageous imposition," the Boxer indemnity. An appeal for financial aid to meet the semi-annual instalments has been responded to by the offer of the officials of the whole country down to the eighth grade to contribute one-fifth of their salaries till the whole indemnity has been paid. Their example has been followed by the gentry and merchants, guilds, societies, Christian churches, primary schools, and all classes contributing liberally according to their means. The Hon. John Barrett, our minister to Colombia, introduces an illustrated account of that country with a sketch of our present relations to Latin America, emphasizing the great significance of Secretary Root's recent tour. The last great

elephant hunt in Siam given in honor of the Crown Prince on his return from his visit to America, is shown graphically by a series of full-page reproductions of photographs with explanatory text by Miss E. R. Scidmore.

The January issue of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* begins publication of a very intelligent and systematic exploration, for New England names, of the Probate Courts at Peterborough, England. The several select wills are abstracted, and annotated where light can be shed upon them from New England annals. In the same number, with reference to one of the most singular features of modern daily journalism, the *Boston Transcript's* genealogical department, it is stated that a complete index to it from the first has been maintained in the Public Library at Lynn, Mass., and possibly also at Bangor, Me.

McClure's Magazine for January contains the first instalment—and very interesting it is—of one of the features of the new year, "Mary Baker G. Eddy; the Story of Her Life, and the History of Christian Science." The writer, Georgine Milmine, here deals with the first four decades of Mrs. Eddy's career—her hysterical childhood, her first two marriages, and the early influences by which she was surrounded. The facts are set forth dispassionately; and they go to show that Mrs. Eddy's memory as it has dealt with this part of her life, has either played her utterly false, or has extraordinary powers of refraction.

Fresh proof of the range of President Roosevelt's intellectual interests is furnished in his article, "The Ancient Irish Sagas," in the *Century* for January. He does not attempt a critical study, but he merely tells of the things which he has found personally interesting in this ancient poetry.

The December issue of the *Bulletin* of the New York Public Library contains the second and last instalment of the Naval Letters from Capt. Percival Drayton, 1861-1865.

An article of quite unusual interest has appeared in the December number of *La Lettura*, a monthly periodical published in connection with the *Corriere della Sera* of Milan; for in it Prof. Guido Biagi, the well-known author of "La Vita Privata del Fiorentini," has instituted a scholarly comparison between the American merchant of to-day and the Florentine merchant of the Trecento. His article is entitled "Mallzie di Mercanti antichi e moderni," and the two documents upon which he bases his argument are: for the United States, Mr. H. Lorimer's "Old Gorgon Graham"; and, for fourteenth century Florence, a hitherto unpublished codex in the Archivio Riccardiano. The latter, which was written by a certain Paolo di Messer Pace da Certaldo and preserved by his descendants to the fourth generation, professes to be a "Libro di buoni assempli e buoni costumi, e buoni proverbi e buoni amaestramenti," but contains also much practical advice and throws a fresh flood of light upon the every day life of the period. The somewhat bizarre comparison with the methods of the Union Stock Yards does nothing to militate against the value of Professor Biagi's researches, which will be heartily welcomed

by every student of mediæval Italy. The article is illustrated with photographs of miniatures from contemporary codices.

The biography of the late Dean S. R. Hole is in preparation, and a request is made that letters or other pertinent papers be lent to Mrs. Hole, Waterbury, Kent.

On Wednesday of last week W. J. Craig died at the age of sixty-three, Mr. Craig, an English student of Elizabethan literature, was editor of "The Oxford Shakespeare." He was engaged on an elaborate "Shakespeare Lexicon," with illustrations from the literature of the period. It is not yet made known how far toward completion this great work was carried.

Last Friday, at Melbourne, Australia, occurred the death of the Rev. Robert Rainy, principal of New College, Edinburgh, one of the most prominent Presbyterian clergymen of Great Britain. From 1851 to 1854 he was minister of the Free Church, Huntley, Aberdeenshire, and of the Free High Church, Edinburgh, from 1854 to 1862. In the latter year he became professor of church history, holding that chair until 1900. His chief works are: "Life of Principal Cunningham," "Delivery and Development of the Christian Doctrine" (being the Cunningham Lecture). "The Bible and Criticism," "The Ancient Catholic Church."

At the last meeting of the Vorderasiatische Gesellschaft in Berlin, Prof. Hugo Winckler, the Assyriologist, gave a full report of a rich new archaeological field which he has undertaken to investigate under the auspices of the society. This is found at Boghaz-Koi, about five days' march east of Angora and in the heart of Asia Minor. A preliminary investigation had led Professor Winckler to regard these remains as the city of Arzaba, which from 1500 to 1100 B. C. was one of the leading cities of the famous Cheta or Hittite kingdom. Now, however, he has learned that he has found the city of Cheta itself, the central seat of this empire. Among the finds are a large number of letter fragments, tablets, etc., containing among other things treaties with the Kings of Egypt, as also with subordinate potentates. It appears that the Cheta Empire was a federation of States, reaching at that time to the borders of Syria, but with a central power vested in the Great King. The archaeological finds made here amount to more than two thousand items, and furnish material for research for years to come, that may clear up the problems connected with the mysterious Hittite Kingdom.

At the leading German universities there had been for several years associations of women students, and at a meeting of representatives of these lately held in Weimar a national woman's university society was established. While this new organization proposes to advance the cause of the higher education of women in general, its first and foremost object is to inaugurate a movement to secure for women the right of matriculation in the universities of Prussia. As matters now stand, practically all the universities of the smaller States in the German Empire admit women on an equality with men; but Prussia, which is generally credited with having the best institutions of this kind, refuses to enroll women as full university students. This new Verband studierender Frauen Deutschlands

has decided to appeal to the Empress to use her influence for their cause.

JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU.

Jean Jacques Rousseau: A New Criticism. By Frederika Macdonald. 2 vols. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$6.50.

The "new criticism" displayed in these needlessly bulky volumes turns out to be an enlargement and confirmation of the same author's contention in her "Studies in the France of Voltaire and Rousseau," published in 1895, from which one whole chapter is excerpted, with modifications, on the subject of Rousseau's children and his putting away of them (I, 140). While, in the course of her minute argument, she touches almost every phase of Jean Jacques's career, but unevenly, the work is not for those who would seek in it a first acquaintance with the man whose 200th birth anniversary will be celebrated six years hence. Such as are, on the contrary, already more or less familiar with his biography in its broader outlines, will find their profit in Mrs. Macdonald's challenge of the defamers of Rousseau's personality—both among his contemporaries and by too subservient latter-day accepters of the legend invented by them, notably Sainte-Beuve, Saint-Marc Girardin, E. Scherer, John Morley, and Percy and Maugras.

It is upon the decade 1746-1766 that her searchlight is principally directed. In this period were painted the only two authentic likenesses of her hero that have come down to us—the La Tour pastel of 1753, of which one may see a replica in the Musée d'Art at Geneva, and the Ramsay oil painting made at Hume's instance in London in 1766, and now in the National Gallery at Edinburgh. In the interesting group of portraits and views gathered in these volumes we miss the La Tour, a smiling, affable face, surmounted by a peruke, a figure clothed in the upper fashion of the day, whom it is the author's mission to restore as essentially amiable and not misanthropic—least of all, the ingrate, the monster, the savage of the Philosophers who secretly blackened him while alive, and poisoned public and even scholarly opinion regarding him as soon as he was in his grave and before his dreaded "Confessions" appeared. Mrs. Macdonald is up to date with a photographic reproduction from Ramsay's canvas, which she takes over from the current *Annales* of the new Genevan Société J.-J. Rousseau, appending to it, however, Rousseau's opprobrious after-judgment of it as one more proof of Hume's false friendship and malignity. In it, to be sure, we no longer see the world-bright aspect of the famous premiated author of the "Discours sur les Sciences et les Arts," the musician who was delighting the Court with his "Devin du Village," but the outcast seeking on English soil a final refuge from Continental persecution, conscious of the conspiracy to hound and to silence him, over-suspicious, gloomy, clad in Armenian costume of cap and gown. One might fairly say that it is the battle between these two portraits (of which Ramsay's is undeniably the more fascinating) into which Mrs. Macdonald plunges with an ardor that may be thought needless in our time, and with a diligent pursuit of error and false-

hood worthy of all praise. Her method is to nail every lie, principal or subsidiary, as she proceeds; in her own words (II, 314): "The method of testing the truth of this libel is to state the facts, and to give the documents which establish the truth of the statement." The result is an extraordinarily rich assortment of first-hand evidence, most convenient to the use of the student, sometimes in translation, but abundantly in French, often in both languages; and at times Mrs. Macdonald (as if by an unconscious lapse) even connects in French of her own the passages she is transcribing from the original. Is it, for example, the question whether Rousseau committed suicide, by shooting? We have given us in French the official reports to the contrary at the time, of the autopsy (by his own desire), of the burial; the touching account of his last days and natural death by M. le Bègue de Presle; and, finally, the record of the opening in December, 1897, of Rousseau's coffin in the Panthéon (along with Voltaire's) which settled forever the falsity of the charge of suicide. And again: the *Annales* having furnished fresh documents from the *jongleur* Tronchin's papers regarding this "worse than foe, an alienated friend's" machinations against Rousseau, Mrs. Macdonald arranges for the first time in chronological order the letters between the celebrated physician and Rousseau leading up to the breach of friendship and of correspondence.

Mrs. Macdonald is entitled to all that she claims for herself in the way of research. If she sought vainly in the Paris libraries for a copy of A. A. Barbier's alleged analysis of Mme. d'Épinay's posthumous Memoirs prior to Brunet's doctoring of them for publication, she discovered in 1896 the Brunet MS. in the Bibliothèque Historique de la Ville de Paris (by which it was acquired at a sale as late as 1885), and was thus enabled to lay bare the whole history of the printed work which has so imposed its authority on the critics and biographers of the past century. To this discovery we owe the genesis of the present work, which might fairly have been designated "Rousseau and Mme. d'Épinay"; for wide as are the ripples in Mrs. Macdonald's pool, the Memoirs are the pebble from which they all circle out. She was led to scrutinize anew the original MS. (of which Brunet's was a fair copy), curiously divided between the Archives and the Arsenal Library, and styled in the former portion "Lettres de Mme. de Montbrillant." She was able to identify, besides the hand of the amanuensis, that of Mme. d'Épinay herself under duress, and that of Diderot, who by insertions, interlineations, marginal corrections, and especially by a series of curt notes directing alterations, which were slavishly complied with, achieved a deeper denigration of "René" (Rousseau) in the censor's own interest. The proofs of this tampering are afforded by facsimiles which leave no doubt on the subject, and by tracing to the Brunet MS. (proceeding from one of Grimm's secretaries) and the printed Memoirs the interpolations concocted as above. Old cahiers of what the Germans would call an *Ur*-manuscript survived in sufficient numbers to show the patchwork process.

Here was Mrs. Macdonald's touchstone, and she applies it mercilessly and con-

vincingly to Brunet's conscienceless product (which changed the work from its form of a romance to that of serious history, and supplied the real names). No one had done this before her, though MM. Perey and Maugras had the chance, and lost it through dulness or bias. She applies it to Diderot's "Tablet" exhibiting Rousseau's "seven rascalities," all of them embodied in the D'Épinay recension. She applies it with equal effectiveness to the story of the offer of the Hermitage—shown to be not a part of the author's first narration—and quotes copiously from the Memoirs in this critique. She applies it to the problem of the authorship of the anonymous letter apprising St.-Lambert of Rousseau's passion for his mistress, Mme. d'Houdetot (Mme. d'Épinay's cousin and sister-in-law); to the crimes against Grimm with which Rousseau was charged; to Diderot's pseudo-letter to the latter, which Grimm welcomed as a tidbit for his *Correspondance Littéraire*, and which, Mrs. Macdonald discovers, was rejected by the censor of Mme. d'Épinay's relation. She unmasks Grimm in his secret disfigurement of Rousseau in the *Correspondance*; among her minor discoveries being a list of paid subscribers, in Grimm's papers now in the Bibliothèque Nationale. In this section of the nobility is found Horace Walpole, author of the shameless forgery of a letter from Frederick II. to Rousseau which Hume (whether or no he had a hand in it) found a mere "pleasantry"—Frederick, whom Grimm carefully served with the *Correspondance*, and (we have his word for it) hoped to turn against Rousseau by his libels.

For Grimm and Diderot Mrs. Macdonald has no forgiveness, and she is right. Towards Voltaire she shows a leniency derivable from her general admiration for this coworker with the foregoing, though his abuse was more obscene than theirs, and his forgeries worse than Walpole's, and though he stooped to inform the Council of Geneva against Rousseau (and to deny the act), and was not unjustly denominated by his victim as "the chief of my persecutors." The appendix note with which Volume II. concludes is devoted to Voltaire, and is among the most interesting of all. In it is cited an argumentative *pastiche* of Rousseau upon Voltaire, as to his intolerance, fully equal in verisimilitude and mordancy to Voltaire's epigrammatic tirade against Rousseau's paradoxes and inconsistencies. Mrs. Macdonald's apology for Voltaire—virtually that he was under the deceitful influence of Grimm and Diderot—is substantially what she extends to Mme. d'Épinay, finding her never an enemy of Rousseau who sought to do him harm, and essentially a good woman, in spite of her sexual immorality, which was but the character of her time and society. With this view we have no disposition to quarrel: indeed, we may borrow an illustration of its justice from M. Philippe Godet's recent exhaustive and absorbing study of "Mme. de Charrière et ses Amis." This brilliant Dutchwoman (who sat to Latour for her portrait while Rousseau was sitting to Ramsay), when still unmarried, entertained a furious Platonic friendship and correspondence with Constance d'Hermences, uncle of her future lover, Benjamin Constant. D'Hermences, whose

galantries were perfectly well known to her, was ill-mated and chafing for divorce in the interest of new amours. The lady, nevertheless, was quite ready to marry him if he were free. On one occasion she had to reprove him for a piece of petty domestic cruelty. She could overlook, she said, his infidelities, as they were inherent in the frailty of human nature—"but it is so easy to refrain from beating your wife's dog." In truth, these infidelities spoke very little concerning the individual character of the man she was censuring, whereas the incident selected was a veritable index of it.

To return to Grimm & Co., their very language, faithfully reported here, set in comparison with Rousseau's meeting of their perfidious calumnies, should convince any one of his self-restraint and his peace-loving and forgiving disposition. Voltaire shows even worse by contrast to one who ever remained his admirer and contributed to his statue, and whose denunciations were moral judgments, never mere invective and outrage. Heartless, indeed, was the spirit that could write of the poor fugitive from state to state (II., 341): "Jean-Jacques, décrété à Paris et à Genève, convaincu qu'un corps ne peut être en deux lieux à la fois, s'enfuit dans un troisième." Let any reader of Mrs. Macdonald pass direct to the body of Rousseau's correspondence to satisfy himself regarding the loveliness of the born musician, the born lover of nature, the amateur botanist—to mention no other gentle traits.

There remains the vexed question of Rousseau's children sent to the foundling asylum, or "exposed" as Voltaire and his associates would have it. Mrs. Macdonald tries hard not to sophisticate in her judgment of the fact, supposing it to be true, or of Rousseau's vindication of his unnatural behavior. She has claims to research here, also, for she went through the carefully kept registers of the Enfants-Trouvés without finding any entry even in the case of the first child, which Rousseau had provided with a card of recognition. She found a Rousseau of right date, but not to be considered, and she is now inclined to settle down in the not unreasonable faith of Dr. J. Roussel (chap. ix. of John Grand-Carteret's "J.-J. Rousseau jugé par les Français d'aujourd'hui," 1890), that the congenital malady which was Rousseau's lifelong torment and led him to adopt the Armenian dress, was incompatible with procreation. Was he under an illusion regarding there having been any births? This seems incredible. Rousseau steadfastly maintained that he had not left his children in the streets, but assumed full responsibility for transferring them directly to the asylum through the medium of the midwife, and manifested a proper remorse for what he considered a humane deed under the circumstances. There remains another hypothesis suggested by an unsupported story (II., 308) of his having assured Moulou, by all that was sacred, that he had never had any children—meaning that the foundlings were bastards, even if before the world he accepted the rôle of putative father? The mystery will never be solved. A reviewer in the *Athenæum* cites Édouard Rod's revelation (in his "L'Affaire J.-J. Rousseau") of the discovery in the archives of the Enfants-Trouvés of a notarial act

in which, two years after Rousseau's death, or in 1780, the widow Thérèse abandoned her interest in the profits arising from the sale of the folio collection of Rousseau's musical compositions ("Les Consolations des Misères de ma Vie," Paris, 1781), for the eventual benefit of the Enfants-Trouvés. But had M. Rod examined the "Consolations" he would have observed that the profits were expressly designated for the Enfants-Trouvés, with no mention of Thérèse, who may nevertheless have been provided for, and who thus discounted before publication the benefits contemplated in her case. Had Mrs. Macdonald done likewise, she could hardly have failed to moralize on the list of patrons of a work to serve as a monument to a precursor and promoter *par excellence* of the impending Revolution. It begins with the Queen, followed by Madame, the Countess d'Artois, the Duchess de Chartres, the Duchess de Bourbon, the Princess de Lamballe (of dreadful memory); and can we believe our eyes when we find among the subscribing Paris nobility and gentry the mocking signature of "Grimm (M. le Baron de), Ministre Plénipotentiaire de Saxe-Gotha"?

It is no fault of Mrs. Macdonald's if Rousseau's prediction be not verified: "O! quand un jour le voile sera tiré, que la postérité m'aimera! qu'elle bénira ma mémoire!" We believe it will, and could wish that his admirer might have possessed greater literary skill, been less prolix and repetitious, less exasperating in her punctuation, more exacting of her printer in the French extracts, more endowed with typographic sense, though many will thank her for the bold body type, even when long quotations demanded a smaller. She has made some slips in reading her MS., some in translation. The most important source she appears to have neglected is François Meunier's "Madame de Warens et J.-J. Rousseau" (1902?), though she has taken "Maman's" portrait from it, perhaps. At page 125 of Volume I. she accepts Rousseau's account of "summer months spent at Les Charmettes, . . . where Rousseau had only the society of the adored Mme. de Warens and the companionship of his own thoughts and of nature." M. Meunier's researches tend to show that "Maman" made him a convenient exile in that Elysium, and that (p. 358) "l'idylle des Charmettes n'a jamais existé" except in Rousseau's imagination. But this has no relation to Mrs. Macdonald's main purpose. Her work is an honor to her head and heart, and as a repository is indispensable to every Rousseau library.

STUDIES IN HISTORY.

The Great Revolt of 1381. By Charles Oman. New York: Henry Frowde. \$2.90.

On the score of industry as disclosed by output, Professor Oman deserves to make a third with Major Hume and Andrew Lang. His remarkable powers of application are again illustrated by the present volume, which, though not long, represents much work among materials that cannot be handled rapidly. In former times a sketch of Wat Tyler's rising could be prepared with the help of chronicles alone; but now social and economic history cannot be studied in that way. Poll-tax rolls,

inquests, petitions, and records of trials are among the chief materials which the modern historian must use in writing of 1381, and these are not such quick reading as Froissart and Knighton.

In preparing his monograph, Professor Oman has had one great aid. The late André Réville, who wrote a luminous account of the troubles in Norfolk, Suffolk, and Hertfordshire, left numerous transcripts of documents which relate to the Peasants' Revolt in other parts of the country. Had he lived, it would have been unnecessary for any one else to take up the subject, but, like other men who have worked too hard at the *École des Chartes*, he was cut off just when he was on the point of establishing a fine reputation. His transcripts have passed into the hands of Professor Oman, who uses them freely but adds to them materials of value discovered by himself. Both Réville and Powell have dealt in detail with the East Anglian part of the movement, but for the other shires affected there was a gap which Mr. Oman now fills. And not only does he deal with the outbreaks as they affected every district from Somerset to Norfolk and from York to Kent, but he supplies excellent comment concerning the factors which entered into this famous and complicated disturbance.

The Peasants' Revolt had its more general causes in the dislocation of society by the Black Death and the stupid determination of the English Government to continue war with France after the victories of Du Guesclin. With the outbreak of violence Wyclif and Lollardy had nothing whatever to do. The masses were pinched by want, and when the Government insisted on taxing them for wars of ambition, the breaking point was reached. Prior to 1381 there had been numerous manorial revolts in almost every part of southern and eastern England, but two things were needed to render resistance universal. The first of these was an oppressive exaction like the poll-tax of 1381; the second was the resolve of the Government to punish those who evaded the tax. One of the most startling and convincing points in Mr. Oman's argument is that the writ of inquiry dated March 16, 1381, was the immediate cause of the great disturbance rather than any special organization on the part of the malcontents which led to concerted action. The tax was three times as heavy as that of 1377, and levied with less regard to the necessities of the very poor. As a result, fraudulent returns poured in from every shire—almost from every township. The merest novice at the exchequer could detect the deception, but the Government made a grave mistake when in the writ of inquiry it put out a threat of confiscation which, if executed, would have meant disaster to a majority of the population.

It is a prevalent idea, derived mainly from Froissart, that the Great Revolt was purely an insurrection of villeins. As a matter of fact many other classes joined in the disturbance, there being even in the rural districts a clear distinction between the insurgent villeins and the landless men who felt their wages to be tyrannically restricted by the Statute of Laborers. Manorial oppression doubtless was the largest grievance, but the spirit of anarchy once let loose attached itself to antagon-

isms of every kind. In towns like St. Albans, Dunstable, Bury St. Edmunds, and Lynn the citizens rose against their feudal superior. In towns like Winchester, Beverley, and Scarborough the masses turned upon the members of an encroaching oligarchy. In London the mob wiped out an old grudge against the foreign merchants by killing them and wrecking their premises. The most interesting if not the most valuable feature of Professor Oman's book is the diversity of material which it contains. The whole episode assumes new meaning under his skilful analysis of the causes which prompted such a widespread and spontaneous uprising.

This study adds weight to the strictures which have been made by Maitland and Cunningham upon a pet theory of Thorold Rogers. His view was that though the lords seemed to have got the upper hand, "the War of 1381 has as its effect the practical extinction of villeinage." Against this statement it can be urged that manorial records show the lords enforcing their rights with the utmost strictness in the generation which immediately follows the suppression of the revolt. The decline in villeinage is ascribable not to any special event, but to the voluntary relinquishment of demesne land to copyholders. The beginning of this process is observable in the reign of Edward III., and servile status has almost wholly disappeared before the death of Henry VI. But there is abundance of proof to show that Thorold Rogers was wrong in ascribing the eventual emancipation of the villeins to the events of 1381.

The incidents of the revolt are described by Professor Oman with considerable detail, but into this portion of the book we are unable to follow him. The study as a whole is compact, thoughtful, and learned. A useful selection of documents will be found in the appendix.

A History of Egypt from the Earliest Times to the Persian Conquest. - By James Henry Breasted. With 200 illustrations and maps. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Ancient Records of Egypt. Historical documents from the earliest times to the Persian Conquest, collected, edited, and translated, with commentary, by James Henry Breasted. 4 volumes. I., The First to the Seventeenth Dynasties; II., The Eighteenth Dynasty; III., The Nineteenth Dynasty; IV., The Twentieth to the Twenty-sixth Dynasties. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Egypt Through the Stereoscope. A Journey through the Land of the Pharaohs, conducted by James Henry Breasted. New York: Underwood & Underwood.

It is a matter of congratulation that the best and most readable English history of Egypt has been written by an American. The histories of Brugsch and Birch have been superseded; the volumes of Wiedemann and Petrie, with their mass of detail, never were intended for continuous reading; they are books of reference, with exhaustive catalogues of the monuments and documents from which history is derived. Maspero's great work on the early civilizations is monumental, but it is far more inclusive than a mere history, and it is also marred by a dogmatic bias on the part of

the translator, which has rendered the work an object of uncertainty and suspicion.

In contrast with these books, we are now presented with a history which is a model in many respects. A welcome is due to it from those whose special interest centres in Egypt, from those who have the opportunity of spending a winter under the cloudless skies of the Nile-land, and also from those who are coming gradually to realize that the civilization of Europe owes Egypt a debt for material contributions at a formative period. For ages Egypt led in the march, and its line went out through all the earth. A readable history of Egypt makes its appeal also to those students of the Bible who wish to trace the mutual relations of the Israelites and Egyptians, a history which is written from a sympathetic point of view while being at the same time scientific.

Professor Breasted has made the attempt to present a modern history of Egypt. What this involves is not at once patent to the uninitiated. A first-class history must go back to the sources. But the study of the sources in this case means an examination of a multitude of inscriptions in the original, the copying and correcting of many hieroglyphic texts, and the translation and annotation of so many of these that they fill four volumes of "Ancient Records," each containing more than 350 octavo pages. The original texts were scattered through all the museums of Europe, or are still in their original places in Egypt itself, or in the Cairo Museum. The copies found in the older books are unreliable, having been made long before the recent advance in knowledge of Egyptian grammar. Egyptian epigraphy is inherently difficult, but doubly so when hindered by defective knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary.

The results of this vast labor are made readily available to the student in the four volumes of the "Records." These volumes are a sort of by-product of Professor Breasted's labors as agent in the field, for the collection and collation of material for the monumental dictionary of the Egyptian language now in process of preparation under the auspices of the German Emperor. The author says:

If these studies shall be considered to have made any contribution to modern knowledge in this field, it will be in the re-examination of the originals, the collection and focussing of all related materials with each document, and the assembly and translation of these materials complete in convenient form for reference.

How colossal a task this was, one can scarcely realize. Only one similar attempt to translate Egyptian documents had ever been made, viz., in the "Records of the Past" series. But in that series there was a lack of uniformity in rendering and treatment incident to a variety of translators and the absence of controlling editorship. Here we have a careful, uniform, and scientific rendering of all the known and accessible texts bearing on the history of Egypt. These volumes form a monument of the author-translator, which will give his name a permanent place in the literature of the subject.

The "History," based upon these documents, comprises about 600 octavo pages, and is illustrated by a multitude of appropriate and interesting cuts, half-tone, and other. It is not to be expected that the

volume shall be exhaustive of all the details. The method of presentation is that of the ready writer, in whose mind all the facts lie well ordered, only awaiting expression. The narrative moves rapidly, without hitch or break. In a word, the history is a model of its kind and a delight to read.

Professor Breasted has also entered another field in preparing the text of a volume intended to accompany a selected hundred stereoscopic pictures of the most noteworthy scenes and objects in Egypt. This series offers a vivid substitute for an actual trip up the Nile. The comment is that of the experienced observer.

The Story of Old Fort Johnson. By W. Max Reid. Illustrated by John Arthur Maney. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3 net.

A few miles west of Amsterdam, in the Mohawk Valley, stands Old Fort Johnson, one of the most notable colonial mansions that have survived to our day. Here from 1742 until he changed his residence to Johnstown in 1763, was the home of Sir William Johnson, the most important, as he was the most interesting, figure in the colonial history of New York. The old house (it cannot properly be called a fort) came into the market last year in the settlement of an estate, and Gen. John Watts de Peyster purchased and patriotically gave it to the Montgomery County Historical Society. These circumstances appear to have been the immediate occasion for the publication of the present volume. Mr. Reid is a local antiquarian, already the author of an elaborate book, "The Mohawk Valley." He is well versed in early history, but he should have had the guidance of hands more accomplished than his own in the art of putting a book together properly.

Mr. Reid tells us in his preface that his title "indicates the character and purpose of this work." It does almost anything rather than that. Not more than one-quarter of the book relates in any direct way to Sir William's home. The remainder is a miscellaneous collection of romantic traditions and accepted facts, compiled from other histories with additional material collected at first hand by the author, but pertaining chiefly to other subjects than Fort Johnson. Among these are the battle of Lake George, the conspiracy of Pontiac, the interview between Gen. Herkimer and Joseph Brant, the siege of Fort Schuyler, affairs on the Susquehanna and Schoharie Rivers, etc. All of this is thrown together without chronology or any inter-relation and coördination of chapters. While many of the events were taking place, Fort Johnson, it is true, was standing, and for a part of the time Sir William was still alive; but that is all.

Moreover, in Mr. Reid's manuscript many verbal and other corrections should have been made. Sir William is called "the grand old man of frontier literary fame." As he died at fifty-nine, he was scarcely an old man, while his fame, great as it is and greater still as it should be, is in no sense literary. Fort Johnson is called "the first baronial mansion in New York." Erected as late as 1742, it hardly deserves this distinction; at least three of the Hudson valley manors had been half a century in existence when Fort Johnson was built,

and houses had certainly been erected on them. We are informed that in Pontiac's War Sir William and Joseph Brant were "leaders." Brant scarcely had that distinction, being then only twenty-one years of age. He had some part in the war, but it was wholly inconspicuous. Many similar errors might be cited. The index is inadequate. It is devoid of "catch words," lack of which makes page references useless.

Sigismondo Pandolfo Malatesta, Lord of Rimini. A study of a XV. Century Italian Despot. By Edward Hutton. With ten illustrations in photogravure. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$4 net.

This is an excellent book, worthy to be read by every lover of good English, and unquestionably the finest piece of work Mr. Hutton has as yet done. It is, he tells us, "an experiment." He has set himself "to write fact as fiction," endeavoring "to give an impression of the first part of the fifteenth century without using a single incident which is not authenticated." His subject is Sigismondo Malatesta of Rimini, that strangest and yet most typical of Italian despots; and his mouthpiece is a certain Messer Pietro Sanseverino, a wholly imaginary person, but one, nevertheless, who tells the story of his patron's life as seriously as Monsieur Yriarte himself has done, and certainly with greater accuracy. There is here no such confusion between fact and fiction as we find in the so-called historical novel, and the visitor to Rimini and to the tomb and temple *Divae Isottae Ariminensi Sacrum* will find in these pages an amount of perfectly trustworthy information, which it is difficult to obtain elsewhere.

It is, however, the literary achievement which excites our greatest admiration. Sanseverino is no lay-figure. In a way—a subtle and deceptive way—he is the true hero of the book; we are at least as much interested in his character and idiosyncrasies as we are in those of the great personages whose exploits he relates; and when we read, in the epilogue (which purports to have been written by another hand), how he died, full of years and honors, yet, as the astrologer who cast his horoscope had prophesied that he would die, "hand in hand with youth," we almost feel as though we had lost a dear and intimate friend. Nor is this result obtained by illegitimate means. Mr. Hutton has been at infinite pains to create the right atmosphere and environment. Not only does Sanseverino live in the fifteenth century beneath Italian skies and among just such scenery as Flavio Biondo, Leon Battista Alberti, and Pope Pius II. have described for us, but he is himself also a product of that age; so much so, that it would be quite possible to know a good deal more than the average reader is likely to know about the Italian Renaissance without shattering the illusion. It is only when we deliberately force ourselves to be critical and begin to compare the work before us with the literature of the *quattrocento* that we perceive that the intellectual outlook of the writer, and, above all, his modes of expression, are those of our own day. Sanseverino says many beautiful things, and tells his story with a directness and simplicity worthy of all praise; but, regarded from

this, perhaps hypercritical, standpoint, he is, we are compelled to admit, after all, little better than a mask from behind which we hear the voice of his creator.

Thus, for example, the exquisitely beautiful description of Sigismondo's meeting with Isotta and of her influence over him would have been quite incomprehensible to a *quattrocentista*. Let the reader attempt to translate the passage in question (pages 82-84) into Italian of the *bel secolo della lingua*, and he will see why this is so. In like manner, the whole account of Sigismondo's childhood is hopelessly modern, both in feeling and treatment; while of anachronisms in method of expression we might quote innumerable instances. Suffice it to note that, on page 12, we are introduced to "Captain Gil Alvarez Carillo di Albornoz." What *quattrocentista* would have written that? From Matteo Villani to Ser Guerriero da Gubbio, in the chronicles of Perugia, of Rimini, of Orvieto, of Bologna, of Florence, Albornoz is spoken of as plain "Messer Gilio" or "Messer Egidio di Spagna, Cardinale." Indeed, almost as often as not, he is nameless, appearing simply as "a cardinal legate of the Pope," or as "one of those cardinals who crowned the Emperor."

But enough of criticism. The reviewer who can find nothing worse than this to complain of may indeed hold himself fortunate, and if Mr. Hutton's "experiment" is not entirely successful, that is due to the fact that success was practically impossible. Indeed, we sincerely doubt whether there exists in the world to-day a scholar so completely master of the English language, and, at the same time, so profoundly imbued with the spirit of the *quattrocento*, that he could do much better. The book as it stands is not only a useful contribution to Italian history, but also a prose poem of no small merit, finely cadenced, to be "rolled lovingly under the mental tongue," and read, not with captious criticisms, but, as its author would have us read it, "for delight." Our one serious ground of quarrel with Mr. Hutton is the absence of an index—an omission which seriously impairs the usefulness of the book.

Truth and Falschod in Religion. By William Ralph Inge. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50.

This book consists of six lectures delivered, at the invitation of a committee composed of resident graduates in the University of Cambridge, to an audience composed mainly of undergraduates; the author, now vicar of All Saints', Knightsbridge, was lately Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. The object of the lectures is to commend Christianity as a religious system to the attention of thoughtful young men, and this the author's method is well fitted to do. He candidly admits the difficulties of the subject, and recognizes the defects of much of the current Christianity and the value of modern scientific and philosophical thought. Religion, he holds, is not chiefly an affair of the intellect; the necessary postulate, or act of faith, is the belief that "our higher reason is in vital ontological communion with the power which lives and moves in all things, and most chiefly in the spirit of man" (p.

108). He lays no stress on miracles and prophecy, and he values dogma largely as the symbol of spiritual truth. What he emphasizes is the inner life. He deprecates the use of words like "atheism" and "infidelity" to describe the attitude of men like Huxley, Tyndall, and Haeckel. Such men, he thinks, are earnest preachers of a religion which they believe to be both true and precious; to Huxley science seemed to teach the great truth which is embodied in the Christian conception of entire surrender to the will of God. Further, Mr. Inge asserts that the bald hope of immortality, the brute instinct of self-preservation, has no necessary connection with religion; the real life is that which is linked with the whole order of God's thought and purpose, with the eternal existence and character of the man, and our consciousness of immortality consists in our consciousness and expression of this meaning (p. 168).

Mr. Inge thus puts religion in general and Christianity in particular on a high spiritual plane. But he is by no means ready to part with the supernatural. He will admit that belief in the Virgin Birth is not an essential feature of the Christian faith, has theologically no connection with the incarnation; but he says much of the "sacramental value" of this dogma and others. It cannot be said that he is clear on the subject of the supernatural; aware of the unsatisfactoriness of his presentation, he leaves the question with a plea for suspense of judgment (p. 117). On one point, however, he is decided and definite: he holds the doctrine of the divinity of Christ to be an essential element of Christian belief. The Logos doctrine of the Fourth Gospel and the Pauline conception of the mystical union of the believer with Christ he regards not only as Scriptural, but also as logically inevitable. The omission of this doctrine, he says, leaves Christ no place in his own gospel. It is doubtful whether his argument on this point (for he attempts an extra-Scriptural demonstration of his assertion) will satisfy the audience to which he addresses himself. But though we cannot regard his treatment of the Logos idea as convincing, we can heartily commend the spirit of his lectures, and there can be nothing but approval of his closing words: "If you cannot worship Jesus Christ, cannot you reverence and try to imitate Him? . . . Orthodoxy may wait; but the following in the footsteps of Christ must not be deferred."

The Modern Pulpit. By Lewis O. Brastow. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.50.

Despite notable instances of philosophic grasp and genuine human sympathy in the discussion of the principles and methods of preaching, the traditional treatise on homiletics is dull, commonplace, and permeated with a wearying littleness. There are traditions of giants in divinity school chairs of homiletical practice, but for several decades past, both abroad and in this country, lights that were distinctly lesser have shed glow on the preparation and delivery of sermons. Hebrew and New Testament Greek have been taught by men of parts; and students have been enthusiastic over expounders of the his-

tory and doctrines of the Church; while instruction in homiletics has too often been left to teachers of a different calibre. Professor Brastow's volume may be taken as the herald of a better day. Here is at least serious endeavor to correlate preaching with the philosophy and criticism, the spirit and life, of the time. The sermon is regarded, not as a little artistic construction in its own department, but as an integral part of the thought and effort of the age, amenable to the belief and aspirations current in the life to which it speaks. Professor Brastow sees clearly that there can be no understanding of the masters of pulpit oratory without thorough study of the tendencies and leading characteristics of the generation in which they lived.

In expounding, therefore, the Protestant preaching of modern times in Germany, Great Britain, and America, he submits the intellectual movements in those countries for the past two centuries to thoughtful examination, and endeavors to interpret the preaching of each country, and of the more prominent pulpit orators, in the light of the fundamental characteristics of the life to which the preaching was directed and of which it was a part. The result is most instructive and enlightening. The reader is made to see Newman, for example, not as a maker of an abstract thing called a sermon, but as the creator and advocate, through his pulpit work not less than his literary activity, of a great movement in current intellectual and religious life. Our own Beecher stands out, not as a genius apart in the art of public address, but at once the product and the moulder, of certain tendencies in American life.

It should not be understood that in this essay the distinctive personal qualities and merits of Liddon and Channing, Martineau and Brooks, are disregarded. The individual characteristics of each are fairly recorded, perhaps not in a manner to satisfy their partisans, but with sincere attempt at impartial historical judgment. The author has even had the temerity to include characterizations of a number of preachers who are still active, and, while his selection and appraisal show discernment, he is perhaps too near them to preserve the sense of proportion. The notable feature of this volume, however, is not its descriptions of personalities, but its examination of the more general agencies that have wrought upon modern preaching, together with its discrimination of the distinctive qualities in homiletical practice in the various Protestant nationalities and communions.

The Gate of Death. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25 net.

There is no name upon the title-page of this book, but the advance notices of the publisher have given sufficiently clear hints as to its authorship; and its uniformity in appearance with "The Upton Letters" and "From a College Window" leaves no room for guesswork. The intimate nature of the work would certainly excuse a real anonymity, but it is a pity that the shallow pretence of it should be associated with a book of such dignity. One hardly knows where in the literature of English to turn

for an equally ingenious record of the experience of a human soul which has passed through the Valley of the Shadow, and returned to consciousness of its house of flesh. The writer has not attempted a philosophical interpretation of his data, but presents them for what they may be worth as a series of detached impressions: "nothing but the record of the sincere and faltering thoughts of one who was suddenly and unexpectedly confronted with death, and who, in the midst of a very ordinary and commonplace life, with no deep reserves of wisdom, faith, or tenderness, had just to interpret as he best could." In one respect, at least, Arthur Christopher Benson is over-modest; for such a record as his could have come only from one who possessed deep reserves of tenderness.

The disabling accident, rescue from death, and slow convalescence all occur at the country house of a married sister, and among those whom he holds most dear. After the return to consciousness, "the first emotion that came back to me was affection; I felt it mostly in the form of compassion for those who were evidently distressed at what seemed to me a thing of very little moment. I had a sense of gratitude for the care and tenderness that were centred on me; a certain sorrow that I should give so much trouble." And, again and again, in the weeks and months that follow, recurs the note of a sympathy almost over-exquisite: now for a robin dead in the snow; now for a child who suffers by the fault of nobody to no end; now for a sled-dog killed that its fellows may continue to live. This experience at the gate of death leaves to the man his man's mind, while it restores to him the heart of a child. All things interpret themselves to him in a new light—the light of love, human and divine.

But let no reader take up this record with the expectation of finding it a work of conventional piety or sentiment. In the course of his slow withdrawal from the dark gate, the diarist does not feel by precedent or speak by rote. He has many doubts as to the limits of faith, as to the meaning of human suffering, as to immortality—as to everything except the existence of a Divine Power, which in some mysterious way works for good. The result is a work not of didactic effect, but of singularly pure and elevated sentiment; of melancholy in the old sweet sense. Such a mood brings out all the richness in Mr. Benson's voice:

God rests, but ceases not. Through day and night alike beats the vast heart, pulsing in its secret cell. Through me, too, throbs that vital tide. What pain, what silence shall ever avail to bind that mighty impulse, or make animate whatever once has breathed and loved?

A Wanderer in London. By E. V. Lucas. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.75 net.

The description of London, old and new, is usually approached in too solemn a spirit. The task is so gigantic, the faces of London so varied, the historical incidents and associations so overwhelming in number and importance, that the enterprise is likely to sober the most intrepid. Besant's "London," for instance, designs to leave nothing untold—possibly a mistaken

ambition in a guide-book as well as in an epic. Mr. Lucas takes his London lightly, skims the cream, revives the reader with the most modern frivolous bits of information, and never oppresses him under a load of facts. After all, the London that one wants to know thoroughly is not so vast:

London is a country containing many towns, of which a little central area of theatres and music halls, restaurants and shops, historic buildings and hotels, is the capital; . . . the Embankment, Trafalgar Square and Piccadilly, Regent Street and the British Museum, the Strand and Ludgate Hill, the Bank and the Tower. That is London to the ordinary inquisitive traveller.

All that there is in those limits of ancient and modern interest Mr. Lucas describes in a style that is always entertaining, surprisingly like Andrew Lang's, full of unexpected suggestions and points of view, so that one who knows London well will hereafter look on it with changed eyes, and one who has only a bowing acquaintance will feel that he has suddenly become intimate. Many people, however, will think that the illustrations are the best part. Mr. Dawson's colored pictures idealize somewhat the murky gloom that the true Londoner professes to love, and all his illustrations are suffused with a yellow radiance beneath the fog and rain that are often suggested. Besides these there are numerous black-and-white reproductions of masterpieces of the public galleries, all excellent, and of pictures that are not often reproduced.

Though this is emphatically London up to date, London as she greets the American visitor rather than the London of Dr. Johnson, which some writers find more interesting, Mr. Lucas here and there makes concessions to the historical mania. One of these excursions into the past carried him to Edmonton and Ware on the track of John Gilpin, whose famous ride was supposed to take place about 1750. He discovered what one would have thought the reviewers of Cowper would have pointed out in their day, that the distance from Gilpin's house to Ware is twenty miles, so that we are to imagine that the Calender's hack galloped forty miles without stopping; that Mrs. Gilpin in her loaded chaise must have driven by the straight road to Edmonton while her husband went a long way round, for not only would he otherwise have overtaken her on his galloping horse, but the ballad tells us that he came to the Wash before he reached the Bell Inn, although the Wash is a mile farther from London than the Bell! But there is yet another difficulty. The horse, one remembers, was making for his own stable at Ware. When this happens a horse usually runs straight. But such was Gilpin's detour that when he passed the Bell and his wife, he was really galloping towards London again. Were this ballad an epic, these contradictions would be enough to prove that it was put together by more than one poet.

We have noted the following corrections: On page 205 for Ponte Vecchia, read Vecchio; on 226 for Apollo Musegates, read Musegetes; 227 for Astragali, read Astragali. There is one surprising omission. The only map is dated 1560, and is now of merely antiquarian interest. A good modern map is needed.

Four Centuries of the Panama Canal. By Willis Fletcher Johnson. With six colored maps and sixteen illustrations. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$3 net.

This is the most thorough and comprehensive work that has yet appeared on the Panama Canal; and it is especially interesting because, as its title indicates, it opens to view the long perspective of the great enterprise. Four hundred and four years ago this month Columbus sailed into Limon Bay, the Atlantic entrance to the canal, trying, as we are trying now, to find a way to get his ships through to Asia. For a hundred years and more thereafter navigators of all lands strove to discover "the secret of the Strait," and pushed their boats up every river, bay, and inlet from Magellan's Strait to the Hudson River. Balboa was the first to cross the American barrier by the shortest way, a little east of the present Isthmian route. It was "stout Cortez" who first ventured to suggest that if no strait could be found one could be made.

Mr. Johnson devotes a hundred solidly-written pages to the history of Panama from its discovery to the failure of the French. Then follow the American assumption of the task; the fight between the Nicaragua and Panama routes; the sharp bargaining with the French company; the still sharper bargaining with Colombia; the bloodless revolution (one Chinaman killed, but Chinamen do not count on the Isthmus); the swift recognition of the independence of the Republic of Panama; and the Taft visit, which the author narrates from personal observation. Mr. Johnson also tells how we asked advice from foreign engineers and rejected it; how we killed off the mosquitoes and thereby extinguished yellow fever; and how we hurried and worried through that terrible first year—all with fuller detail than in any other single work on the subject. Mr. Johnson has been diligent in the collection of material, much of which is hard to find; but he does not give us a single foot-note reference to the source or authority for his statements, some of them novel and surprising enough to invite further investigation. But he has quoted generously from original State papers; and by adding a good index and eleven appendices containing the text of such documents as the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty, the Spooner Bill, and the Panaman Declaration of Independence, he has given us a valuable reference book.

Fortunately, he has confined himself mainly to the bare narration of events, and the copying of official records; for where he writes with a freer hand he uses the pen of a partisan, or at least an advocate, rather than that of an historian. He writes about Panama as though he were a real estate agent seeking investors, but even a real estate agent would avoid such sweeping and unqualified statements as this about rubber culture:

You may plant a hundred trees on an acre, at a cost of only thirty dollars, and in a few years each tree will be yielding two to ten pounds of rubber a year, worth nearly a dollar a pound.

As a matter of fact, the most that can be said about rubber raising in Panama is that it is promising, but problematical. The same can be said of coffee, and as for indigo, which he recommends, its cultivation is

being abandoned everywhere because the artificial product is cheaper and better. The streets of the city of Panama, in his opinion, compare favorably with those of Boston and New York in straightness, lightness, breadth, and cleanliness. The keynote of the book is given in its first pages by the dedication to Secretary Taft, for whom the author has unbounded admiration. Mr. Johnson's views throughout are those of the Administration, and he rarely ventures an independent judgment of disputed questions. The critics of Isthmian affairs are indiscriminately denounced in the chapter headed "stultiloquentia," wherein, as he says, he puts the carrion in the pillory. He skates over thin ice in the most graceful manner. For example, from the slight reference on page 337 to the making and cancellation of the Markel contract for catering to the employees no one would suspect that if it had not been for a prompt and vigorous protest the men would have had to pay for their board, according to Chief Engineer Stevens, a million dollars a year more than it should cost them.

The discussion of the engineering side of the question is very inadequate. Although he mentions the adoption by Congress of the plan for a lock canal at the 85-foot level, he devotes all his attention to the other and rejected schemes, and does not include a map of it. The great dam at Gatun, which is the crucial point of the plan now being followed, is twice referred to, but only to say that it is impracticable. That statement may be true, but so ardent a champion of the powers that be should at least have mentioned some of the reasons that made Secretary Taft and President Roosevelt think it is practicable. Yet it is ungrateful to criticise Mr. Johnson for what he did not say when he has crowded so much information in his 450 pages. For a work of such detail, covering a new field, it is—except when the author gets enthusiastic and eloquent—remarkably free from errors.

The Spirit of the Orient. By George William Knox. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.50 net.

Amid the shoals of publications which pretend to appraise Asiatics, it is exhilarating to meet the work of a scholar who has made it his first aim to gain the right perspective, and then, by self-examination and sympathy, to utter truth concerning these people of other continents and inheritances. Dr. George William Knox lived long in Japan, studying especially the minds of the Japanese, as revealed in their literature, language, history, and present ambitions and attainments. After this he journeyed through China and India. Probably no other American has made so thorough a study of Confucianism, both in its Chinese development and, particularly, in its Japanese adaptations. Perhaps none has made such a qualitative analysis of Buddhism, especially that enormous modification of the faith, so called, under which Japan has been trained by action and reaction.

In the study of religion, Dr. Knox, knowing human nature well, puts difference between the height of religion as held by men capable of abstraction, who ponder upon the "changeless, timeless, limitless, indescribable, Ultimate and Absolute," and by the

average man, he to whom the struggle for existence as well as wife, children, parents, and self are very real things. Furthermore, the writer knows, as Burke has told us, that it is impossible to bring an indictment against a whole people. He therefore insists—and this seems to be the underlying thesis throughout his work—that fair judgment of Japanese, Chinese, Hindus, and other human beings on the great continent is to be made only by taking them as individuals. He will not have them all tarred with the same brush, but will know them only as good and bad, mean and noble, spiritual and gross.

Hence the charm of his book. It is one of the keenest in analysis, perhaps, of any book written on the Far East. He knocks to flinders the nonsense for which, among the unlearned, and we may add perhaps stupid, Kipling is responsible, that the Oriental and the Occidental are eternally separated. He notes how the British regiments in India come to church and chapel with their guns loaded, for the British conquerors take no risks. Yet Dr. Knox believes that there are ideals and a faith higher than any at present known in vision or attainment, and that it is possible to make of the nations of the earth one new man. Though he does not say it in so many words, he believes that we Westerners are to be as much influenced in every way by the Easterners as we are to influence them, and that our own religion, art, literature, customs, and theory of the universe are yet to suffer immense change. In other words, inquiring what gift the spirit of the East has to bestow upon the West, he answers, in effect: "We are already its debtors, but it has more to give, and we stand in need of the lesson which Asia can teach us." In the East the organism is supreme; in the West the individual. Although the spirit of the East has finished its course in Asia, it will introduce among us new elements into life and thought, while we shall teach the East the value of personality. In action and reaction shall be the powers of the world to come on this planet. He says: "Conquer the East by arms we cannot; we must depend upon truth, in science, in religion, and in commerce. Compel obedience we cannot; win agreement we must by the force of sympathy."

Dr. Knox's chapters show in detail the American and the Asiatic points of view, with concrete illustration. Then follow chapters on his experiences, or perhaps we should say his thoughts based on movement of body and mind in the three typical countries. His pages, so far from being heavy, are brightened with anecdotes and very modern instances. His concluding chapter, entitled, "The New World," was written since Japan showed her real spirit in collision with Russia. He believes that the Japanese are not likely to go to war again. As liberty is essential to progress, Japan made mighty sacrifices to secure liberty and truth, and her success has powerfully influenced India and China for good. He makes masterly answers to some of the foolish fears born of ignorance concerning peaceful China and progressive Japan. As in the Occident man has become at once scientific and free, enabling him to conquer both nature and himself, so the vision of this prophet takes in its ken a new East, with its stream of tendency unaltered, per-

haps, but informed with the same potencies. This is a book for the wise, and not for the vulgar. It is well-illustrated, but without an index.

Applied Sociology: A Treatise on the Conscious Improvement of Society by Society. By Lester F. Ward. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$2.50.

As its title implies, this work is a companion or complementary volume to the author's "Pure Sociology," which was published three or four years ago. Both works are but the further development of the social philosophy outlined in earlier treatises, of which the first, "Dynamic Sociology," appeared in 1883. Readers of the current literature of sociology are so familiar with the doctrines associated with the name of Mr. Ward, that it will suffice in this place to call attention to the specific contribution which this latest volume makes to the author's sociological system.

Mr. Ward's "Pure Sociology" presented his analysis of society as it is; and his most important conclusion was that, while social structure develops slowly and is hard to modify, nevertheless few if any social institutions are incapable of modification. The one thing requisite is the discovery of appropriate means of accomplishing desired changes, and scientific study shows that these are usually, or even invariably, of an indirect character. "Applied Sociology" treats of the methods of accomplishing desirable modifications in social structure and organization. From the pure science of society it learns the history and true nature of the institutions which are to be changed, and then it aims to discover the best means of working their gradual transformation. It is, therefore, a scientific theory of progress.

Part I. of "Applied Sociology" treats of movement; Part II. of achievement, and Part III. of improvement. That intelligently directed effort can produce desirable social movement was Mr. Ward's principal contention in his "Dynamic Sociology," and in this part of the present volume he travels tolerably familiar ground. Under the head of achievement, he considers the conditions favorable to progress; and rejecting the "exceptional-man" theory, argues that the equalization of opportunity, which means the equalization of intelligence, is the chief desideratum. His discussion of improvement, therefore, is mainly a discussion of the diffusion and practical utilization of knowledge, upon which social amelioration chiefly depends. Here again he adds little to the doctrines of his previous works, but reinforces the argument with pertinent illustrations drawn from a variety of sources, chiefly the anthropological and sociological literature of the last two decades.

In assessing the value of it all, much depends upon one's attitude toward what passes current as the science of sociology. While exhibiting some of the characteristic defects of its class, Mr. Ward's work is always marked by vigorous thinking and seldom fails to prove interesting and suggestive. As a treatise upon social reform the present volume could be perused with profit by many an ardent reformer inno-

cent of all acquaintance with sociological speculation. Mr. Ward's views upon scientific legislation do not have the suggestion of impossibility, the air of unreality, with which they probably impressed the average American reader when first presented in 1883. And his remarks about the true method of social reform will bear reproduction:

With the idea of reform has always thus far been associated that of heat rather than light. Reforms are supposed to emanate from the red end of the social spectrum and to be the product of its thermic and not of its luminous rays.

Whatever may come of the effort to produce a single comprehensive science of society, there will always, we opine, be room for sane discussion, like the present volume, of the conditions and agencies of social progress.

Drama.

MODERN BOOK PLAYS.

One of the most characteristic as well as one of the most pernicious features of the present dramatic era is the prevalence of the book play, a theatrical phenomenon due partly to the enormous increase in the output and consumption of sensational fiction, but still more largely, in all probability, to the system of profuse advertisement practised by many publishers of the modern novel. That any written legend or tale, containing strong dramatic elements, should in time find its way to the footlights is, of course, only the fulfilment of its natural destiny. Everybody knows that Shakspeare and other great Elizabethans, Molière and other moderns, never hesitated to appropriate the convenient plots of earlier or contemporary writers. But they used these only as a framework for their own dramatic structures, filling up the bare outlines with the riches of their own invention and imagination, vitalizing crude puppets by the infusion of divine fire, and thus transforming raw farce or melodrama into the high comedy or lofty tragedy of universal life. To-day the process is entirely different. The story selected for dramatization—and too frequently it is chosen on account of some moral or physical deformity, some aberration from what is sane or normal—is stripped, so to speak, to its bare bones and, robbed of whatever literary or other decorative attraction it may happen to have, is exposed in its unlovely nakedness for the gratification of depraved, stupid, or morbid tastes.

These remarks refer primarily to the "dramatization"—an essential but practically unavoidable misnomer—of the ephemeral novels of the last twenty years or so, though they might have a wider application. Plays founded upon books have been more or less common for nearly a century, but it is only recently that they have been coming in a flood. Many of them have been successful in a commercial sense, but speaking broadly, none of them has had any lasting value or artistic merit, except as regards the individual performance of some particular player. Probably not one would be included in any category of representative dramatic works. The innumerable pieces based upon the fiction of Sir Walter Scott, Dickens, Reade, Marryat,

Lytton, Alnsworth, and the rest are forgotten by all save the oldest playgoers. A few of the characters are associated with the memories of once popular performers; that is all. As literature and drama the plays themselves had little or no significance, though many of them afforded good and wholesome entertainment.

So much cannot truthfully be said of the great majority of the modern book-plays, which are seldom healthful or legitimately amusing. But the object of this article is not so much to consider their moral effect as the evil influence which they exert upon the theatre itself. They offer to managers a means of escape from their higher responsibilities; they encourage the breed of hack scribblers and mere theatrical tinkers, and destroy the field of the professional dramatist. In former times the manager of a first-class theatre in search of fresh attractions had to depend, to a considerable extent, upon his own judgment in the choice of the plays submitted to him by rival playwrights, and was a fairly capable judge of their literary or dramatic quality. The system of long runs had not then been organized, and he was frequently in the market for new pieces. Authors, well established in public repute, found it worth their while to write them, although the remuneration was much smaller than it is now. But the average manager of the present is neither inclined nor competent to deal with original stage matter. He must have something on which the stamp of public success has already been put. Hence, the active demand for translations of successful foreign plays or adaptations of novels whose titles, if not on everybody's lips, are at least to be found in large type, with the usual trade certificates, in the newspapers and magazines. It is in this way that the prevailing methods of literary advertisement have reacted upon the policy of the stage. Commercial managers were prompt to discern the advantage to a play of a title which had been kept for weeks or months before the public eye at a cost of tens of thousands of dollars paid by somebody else. They foresaw that a large proportion of the persons who had read or heard of the book would be attracted to the theatre by motives of mere curiosity. Thus was created the demand for the book-play, and the industry has been growing, like a rank weed, ever since. The managers found it profitable for various reasons. In the first place, the risk of absolute failure was greatly decreased by the fact that the play, whether well or badly made, or brilliantly or indifferently acted, was assured of a certain amount of patronage; and, secondly, the work of a professional adapter was less costly than that of an original author.

The managerial policy of clinging to adaptations or translations has necessarily been a great discouragement to such competent dramatists as might, under other conditions, have been willing to write for the stage. As for the smaller men, willing to do hack work, they naturally have not been averse to having their plots found for them, but few of them have manifested either the instinct or the skill necessary to actual dramatization. As a rule their sole aim has been to reproduce whatever was most strange, unnatural, extravagant, or startling in the original story, without ref-

erence to the qualifying or explanatory conditions of the written page, which might create the semblance of veracity or plausibility. No small part of the discredit among sensible men and women into which the theatre has fallen of late must be attributed to these uncouth bits of patchwork, which often are as unjust to the original creator as they are offensive to common intelligence. They are among the most flagrant products of the commercialism which now dominates the theatre, and the most dangerous symptoms of a progressive decadence.

Inasmuch as it is clearly impossible to compress a book into a play—there is no reference here to the use of some salient phase of a story for theatrical purposes, which is another affair altogether—without discarding most of its literary quality, it is plain that its true character is not necessarily indicated in any stage version. Thus it comes to pass that genius often lies at the mercy of audacious mediocrity. The most recent example of this is to be found in the cruel parody of Victor Hugo's wonderful work, "Les Misérables," recently produced in the Manhattan Theatre. In this case an actor of very ordinary calibre has converted a masterpiece into clumsy and tawdry melodrama, in order to provide himself with a prominent part and catch the crowd with cheap claptrap. The task which he attempted was, of course, impossible, but that does not alter the case, so far as Hugo or the stage is concerned. It is pleasant to note that a good many book plays have failed badly during the last few months, and that the most notable successes of the season have been won by pieces conceived and written for the stage and the stage only.

"THE DOUBLE LIFE."

"The Double Life," by Rinebart Roberts, presented in the Bijou Theatre on Monday evening, is a play founded upon a novel, though not entirely new, dramatic theme, which contains an interesting story and is animated by a definite purpose—three excellent qualifications. But unfortunately the play is much less skilful in construction than it is ingenious in conception. Its chief importance, perhaps, lies in the fact that it permits Henri de Vries to strengthen the high estimate of his abilities based upon "A Case of Arson." In that clever little sketch he availed himself liberally of the arts of theatrical disguise; in this instance he scarcely uses them at all, exhibiting his versatility in the depiction of character in a much more delicate and subtle way. The play purports to be a psychological study, but the problem involved is one of pure physiology. A young man, refined, prosperous, and eager, on the eve of his wedding starts on a long journey and is shot by outlaws in a desolate region. He recovers from the wound, but his memory is a perfect blank. He becomes a mine boss, in the course of the next twenty-five years, marries, and is a pattern husband and father. Then a sudden shock—the discovery, as he thinks, of his idolized daughter's shame—restores the recollection of his earlier, while destroying that of his intermediate, existence. His wife and child are strangers to him and his present condition a frightful puzzle. He is like a man

in a waking nightmare. Ignoring for the moment all questions of probability or pathology it is plain that these different phases of a single life demand, for a successful portrayal, great powers of intuition, discrimination, and interpretation. The actor has to assume the buoyancy and energy of cultivated youth; the rough virility of a shrewd but ignorant miner, and the chaotic distress of one suddenly awakening from a long trance to find himself robbed of the best part of his life and left in a state of pitiable isolation. Mr. de Vries played all these parts, if not with absolute success, at least with extraordinary comprehension, infinite variety of minute and appropriate detail, and with wonderful naturalness, maintaining the external identity, and marking the intellectual and social differences with veracity and assured skill, although hampered by a strange tongue which he still speaks with difficulty. To the connoisseur of highly finished acting, his performance was a continuous pleasure. The way in which he suited pose, gesture, voice, and manner to conditions, the appropriateness of every look, tone, and movement, the perfect control of facial expression, the complete absence of exaggeration or any mere straining after effect, marked the trained artificer and the born player. Better acting in domestic drama could not reasonably be asked for.

The latest book of Prof. Gregor Sarrazin, "Aus Shakespeares Meisterwerkstatt" (Berlin: Georg Reimer), exhibits the same qualities that have distinguished his previous work, namely, learning, ingenuity, and copiousness of ideas, but we fear we must add a radically unsound judgment. What are we to think of a critic who cites a couple of allusions to snow and ice in the "Two Gentlemen of Verona" as a proof that that play was written in the winter? We believe, however, that the palm for fantastic criticism will have to be awarded to Prof. Sarrazin's identification of the characters in the "Henry IV." plays with various contemporaries of Shakspeare. According to this scheme, which the author proposes with an enthusiasm commensurate with its ingenuity, Falstaff is George Peele, Pistol is Marston, and Prince Hal is the Earl of Southampton. The book, indeed, is a perfect mine of wild suggestion. Nevertheless, the author has mastered the critical literature relating to the plays with which he deals, viz., those of Shakspeare's earlier periods down to "Hamlet" (inclusive), and he discusses these plays from practically every point of view except that of characterization, so that the reader who is duly endowed with the spirit of skepticism may extract from the volume a great deal of interest and something of profit.

The Early English Drama Society is prepared to publish a second series of seventy plays belonging to the Bacon-Shaksperian period.

An Ibsen association has been organized by the admirers of the great dramatist in the Rhenish province of Prussia, the purpose of which is to study his writings and to reproduce them on the stage. Beginning with the new year regular *Mitteilungen* are to be published, and in Düsseldorf Ibsen plays will be given.

Otho Stuart seems to have abandoned his

notion of making the London Adelphi Theatre the home of the higher drama. "A Midsummer Night's Dream" will soon give way to Hall Caine's "The Bondsman" and "The Prodigal Son."

Music.

English Music. Lectures given at the Music Loan Exhibition. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.25 net.

Tchaikovsky. By Edwin Evans. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.

One of the most interesting illustrations of the theory of evolution and the survival of the fittest may be found in art museums that have collections of old and obsolete forms of musical instruments. Many of these are as grotesque as the alleged simian ancestors or relatives of man, and apparently about as musical. Two years ago an exceptionally varied collection of what may be called ancestral instruments was put on exhibition by the Worshipful Company of Musicians, which is one of the ancient guilds of the City of London, with a history tracing back to the times of the minstrels. A special feature of the exhibition was a series of seventeen lectures, covering nearly every side of vocal and instrumental art, and designed to explain the development of music and musical instruments during the last three centuries. These lectures seemed altogether too valuable to serve a merely temporary purpose, and they have therefore been printed in a volume, together with 115 illustrations, depicting some of the most interesting of the exhibits—manuscripts, autograph scores, and portraits, as well as instruments.

To the student of English music this book is indispensable. The writers who have contributed to it, and all but five of whom are members of the Musicians' Company, are T. L. Southgate, W. H. Cummings, Henry Watson, E. Markham Lee, J. Finn, Frederick Bridge, Algernon S. Rose, A. H. D. Prendergast, F. J. Sawyer, G. F. Huntley, D. J. Blaikley, F. W. Galpin, W. W. Cobbett, J. E. Borland, A. H. Littleton, and Ernest Clarke. The year 1604 is taken as the starting point, and Sir Frederick Bridge cites Erasmus, who wrote in that year that England had the most handsome women, kept the best tables, and was most cultivated in music of all people in the world—not a mean compliment, inasmuch as there were on the Continent at that time such noted musicians as Peri, composer of the first opera; Carissini, "whose works were so very useful to our dear old Handel when he was pressed for time," and Monteverdi, who asked his orchestral players to do such difficult things that they went on a strike. Mr. Southgate gives an exceptionally clear account of the evolution of the pianoforte from the dulcimer of the ancient Assyrians, and the mediæval clavicord and harpsichord. He explains the origin of the name *pianoforte*, and expresses the opinion that some of the shapely and fanciful English music of the seventeenth century is still worth hearing. Believing that the great charm of the pianoforte is its evanescent tone, he does not think it is desirable to foster devices for giving it greater sustaining power—a point on which most musicians will disagree with

him. Dr. Cummings discourses on old English songs, Dr. Watson on early English viols. A specifically English branch is discussed by Dr. Lee, in a lecture on madrigals, rounds, catches, glee, and part-songs. There are chapters on instruments of the flute family, on dances of bygone days, masques and early operas, ancient and modern organs, brass-wind instruments, early printed music, English opera after Purcell down to Sullivan and Stanford, etc., making up together an exceptionally valuable contribution to musical literature.

Books on Tchaikovsky are multiplying. It is easy to write them now since Mrs. Newmarch has issued her admirable translation of the elaborate and exhaustive life and letters of the great Russian composer by his brother Modest, published by the John Lane Co. Mr. Evans's monograph is, of course, based on that, yet not so exclusively as to make one question its *raison d'être*. Inasmuch as Tchaikovsky is known in England—everywhere, in fact, except in Russia—chiefly by his instrumental works, especial attention is paid to these, although the songs and the operas are not overlooked. The author refers to the fact that Tchaikovsky's operas are at times aggressively national, but this does not explain why they are neglected outside of Russia. It is their national coloring that gives his orchestral works one of their chief charms. At the same time, it is odd that two other popular and esteemed orchestral writers of his time—Dvorák and Saint-Saëns—have composed a number of operas which, popular at home, have not been acclimated in other countries. A valuable feature of Mr. Evans's book is a chronological table of Tchaikovsky's compositions. One wonders at the author's peculiar logic which led him to give elaborate analyses of the first four (and comparatively inferior) symphonies and then dispose of the immortal fifth and sixth in a few paragraphs because they are played so often and "every concert-goer necessarily has a programme containing the fullest analytical notes." Did he write this volume for Londoners only?

Both of the rival opera houses gave performances last week of Verdi's "Aïda." At the Metropolitan Mr. Conried had the incomparable Caruso in the rôle of Radames, while at the Manhattan Mr. Hammerstein brought forward Mr. Bassi, a tenor new to local audiences, but one endowed with a splendid voice which thrills like a trumpet in the high notes. Chorus and ensemble were much the better at the Manhattan, thanks to the really wonderful musicianship of Cleofonte Campanini, who has demonstrated to astonished audiences that the orchestral conductor really plays almost as important a rôle in a Verdi opera as in a Wagner music drama. Another notable event at the Manhattan was the first appearance as Escamillo in "Carmen" of M. Renaud, who is not only a fine singer but an actor of the first rank—the equal, in his line, of Campanini. Mme. Melba will reappear at this house next week. At the Metropolitan the next revival is to be Delibes's "Lakmé," to-morrow night, with Mmc. Sembrich as the heroine.

Of recent concerts two call for attention. The Russian Symphony Orchestra brought forward one of the most gifted of the

younger Moscow composers and pianists, Alexander Scriabine. He played his own concerto and some short pieces, proving himself a player of good technique and correct musical instincts. As a composer he suggests the influence of Chopin rather than of the nationalists of his country. He will be heard in a special recital of his compositions at Mendelssohn Hall on January 3. He is, like another pianist now giving concerts in this country—Lhévinne—a pupil of Safonoff. This "high-pressure conductor" (an enemy called him that and he accepted it as a great compliment) made a sensation at the last Philharmonic concert by an interpretation of Wagner's "Tannhäuser" overture which stirred even the staid and dignified afternoon audience to almost unprecedented demonstrations of delight. The climax at the end, where Wagner engulfs the worldly element in a mighty vortex of sacred sound (the Pilgrims' Chorus), was overwhelming. The effect was due partly to his bringing out the inner melody in this outburst of brass—an effect first secured by Nikisch and promptly adopted by Seidl and other great Wagnerian leaders.

It is definitely announced that Madame Nordica will not sing in opera here this season. Her only New York appearance is at Carnegie Hall, January 8, with the assistance of the New York Philharmonic Society. She will also be heard at the Twenty-third Regiment Armory, Brooklyn, December 29, with the assistance of Fagnani, the baritone; Dethier, violinist; Charles Anthony, the Boston pianist; the Twenty-third Regiment Band, and a large chorus. The "Inflammatus" from Rossini's "Stabat Mater" will be given.

Reginald de Kovens's romantic opera, "The Student King," with Miss Lina Abarbanell in the principal part, will be sung for the first time in this city on Christmas night at the Garden Theatre.

Art.

THE WINTER ACADEMY.

There is an especial interest in the exhibition of the National Academy of Design now open at No. 215 West Fifty-seventh Street, in that it is the first exhibition held by that body since its union with the Society of American Artists, and the consequent changes in its constitution and in its methods of selection. Certainly the change has infused new vitality into the Academy, and it was the almost universal opinion of artists and laymen at the Varnishing Day and the Opening Reception that this is the best exhibition held by the Academy in many years. There is an air of life and vigor and freshness about it that is rare anywhere in the world, and the level of technical achievement is remarkably high. It is an exhibition to which one might take an intelligent foreigner with the assurance that it not unfairly represents the promise of the American school of painting, and the foreigner would probably admire it more than we do, and find in it evidences of spontaneity and a national point of view that escape our accustomed eyes. Yet it is an exhibition held at an unfavorable season, when the year's work

of the artists is yet uncompleted—an exhibition from which an unusual number of our best men are, for one or another reason, absent. No change in organization or machinery can bring together work that does not exist, and there are no revelations of unfamiliar talent; but either because the new methods have resulted in better selection and more intelligent display of work submitted, or because these methods have inspired a confidence that has resulted in the submission of better work, there can be no doubt that the artists present are seen pretty nearly at their best. A good deal of the effect is certainly due to the intelligent efforts of the Hanging Committee, which has performed its task to admiration.

That an American school of painting, with characteristics of its own, is disengaging and affirming itself, there can no longer be any doubt. The imitation of this or that foreign school or master is less and less apparent and technical fads and movements are of decreasing importance. The work shown is not only eminently vigorous, but is eminently sane. The excesses of Impressionism, for instance, are already of the past. Almost the only work in the exhibition which shows the Impressionist influence in a noticeable degree is that of Childé Hassam, and Mr. Hassam has profoundly modified the Impressionist method, has bent it to new ends and to the expression of a new personality, so that his production is essentially original as it is essentially artistic. There is nothing in him of Monet's temper of scientific demonstration—it is beauty he is after, a new beauty revealed in a new way—not a theory of light. His "Little June Idylle" is delicious, alive with the shimmer of sunlight and the tremble of leaves, as modern as Monet, yet as poetic, as classic, as Corot. The tradition of Whistler and Monet is visible in the work of Robert Henri and of a few others, but here again the tradition has been modified, and Mr. Henri, in particular, has an unmistakable personality of his own, rude at times, but vigorous and capable on occasion of subtlety, as in the "Girl in the Fur Cape." The methods of the modern Dutch school are reflected here and there, and other evidences indicate that our painters are still willing to take lessons where they can find them; but the most notable pictures are of native inspiration, and can be attached to no foreign school. Take, as examples, Winslow Homer's "Gulf Stream" and George De Forest Brush's "Mother and Child"—both, one is happy to say, the property of public museums; Mr. Brush's picture being lent by the Corcoran Gallery, while the Metropolitan Museum has done itself honor in accepting the suggestion of the Academy Jury and purchasing Mr. Homer's, the first American picture to be bought by the Wolf fund. "The Gulf Stream" is, in spite of evident crudities, a masterpiece of extraordinary power; perhaps the greatest work of our most original painter. The "Mother and Child" is one of the richest and most sober productions of a master of elevated style. Neither of them could conceivably have been produced in any other country than this or by any other than its author.

There are still sketches and studies and notes to be found in this as in all our exhibitions, but they are no longer, even

numerically, in the ascendant. Everywhere there are evidences that our artists are ready to produce real pictures, conceived, designed, and composed; that the qualities of thoroughness of design and power of color which mark the two great canvases just mentioned are to be the characteristics of the American school of the future. As instances, in figure and landscape painting, take two of the newer comers to our exhibitions, men of only a few years' standing, but already Associates of the Academy, Hugo Ballin and Paul Dougherty. Mr. Ballin's "Sibylla Europa" is not altogether the best picture he has painted, but it shows clearly his preoccupation with decorative beauty, with balance of mass and flow of line, with fulness and variety of color. Mr. Dougherty's picture, "Land and Sea," is, on the other hand, the strongest thing he has yet shown. There is a surge and rush and weight to his waves that is exhilarating, as is the quality of fresh and independent observation of nature; but there is present also a grandeur of design and a deep-chorded harmony of color which is the result of conscious art. If there is a thought too much insistence upon yellow as the dominant note, it is almost the only fault in what is a work not of promise but of achievement.

There are scores of pictures in the exhibition that it would be a pleasure to praise, but I am trying rather to note tendencies and to find general significance than to award credit for individual performance. There is little sculpture shown, the most important of that little being the small animal groups of F. G. R. Roth. This paucity of interesting works of sculpture in our exhibitions is one of the most regrettable results of that lack of adequate gallery space which is the greatest problem before the Academy. Let it be understood that the desire for greater exhibitions does not mean a desire to exhibit work of inferior quality now refused. It means a desire to exhibit together and at once the work of high quality now exhibited at different times and places or not exhibited at all. Here is an exhibition of unusually high quality which quite fills the available wall space of the only public galleries we have, yet it is quite certain that an exhibition as good or better, as large or larger, will fill these same rooms three months from now. Add to these two exhibitions that which is annually held by the Ten American Painters, and the numerous private exhibitions held at this or that dealer's gallery, and you have, in oil paintings alone, an annual output of acceptable work, which no jury would think of refusing, sufficient to thrice fill the Fine Arts Galleries. Add to this again the watercolor exhibitions, the exhibition of the Architectural League, the work in sculpture and in black and white which is rarely exhibited at all, and you would have something which might be called an American Salon—a great exhibition which should really represent American art and would end by attracting foreign artists also. When are we to have it? The artists, in composing their differences and in forming one organization which really represents American painting and sculpture and will in time include the best architects and original engravers also, have done their part. They are not business men, and it is not to be wished that they should stop producing works of art and give their time

to providing facilities for showing them. This is the work of the state, the city, the public, and the patrons. There is little hope that the state or the city will perform it. Will not the enlightened patrons of art take it up? KENYON COX.

The winter exhibition of the National Academy of Design opened to the public on Saturday. There are 355 paintings and sixteen pieces of sculpture. Of the pictures only about 150 are by members. The Carnegie prize of \$500 has been awarded the "Misty Night," by Ben Foster, a low-toned landscape that takes in a wide range of river and hills. The Proctor prize has been awarded to a portrait of a child, "Dorothy B.," by William T. Smedley. The exhibition will remain open through January 19.

Versailles and the Trianons. By Pierre de Nolhac. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$3.50 net.

The director of the Versailles museum writes with affection on a subject which one would hardly have supposed likely to arouse much enthusiasm. He realizes that it has been the practice for almost a hundred years to speak of the symmetry of the Versailles palace as unnatural and of the stateliness of its park as passing beyond elegance into monotony and stiffness; and without attempting to revive a dead taste he manages to persuade us of the advantages, to students of history and of art, of possessing so complete a type of qualities which, after all, made a great epoch. He regards the grounds, buildings, and interior decorations of the old residence town as forming a total effect which may be termed Versailles art, and of this he remarks:

It is now recognized that the building, as a whole, as well as the details that adorn it, show all the merits of balance, proportion, and dignity. It is of course allowable to prefer other qualities to these; it may be thought that they tend to hold creative imagination in check; but it is a fact that they represent the essential characteristics of French art.

M. de Nolhac indicates, in a large and poetic description, how much artistic stimulus the place contains and will increasingly disengage as "the art of Versailles" recedes into a softened perspective.

The illustrations, by René Binet, were evidently intended to heighten whatever of glamour and mystery lurks in the formal avenues of Versailles, and as the place is not really a congenial abode of this shy nymph, and the pictures are excessively vague in outline and audacious in coloring, the result is far from truthful. It is a pity that no credit is given to the painstaking and able translator.

An exhibition of oil paintings and watercolors by Jonas Lie is open at the New Gallery, No. 15 West Thirtieth Street, till January 5. Many of these pictures, fruit of a visit to Norway, Mr. Lie's birthplace, give proof that he is fulfilling the extraordinary promise of his earlier work. Mr. Lie is an artist of unusual force and individuality, who expresses a striking and somewhat sombre feeling for nature in terms of actual and keenly noted appearances. He has not yet, we hope, equipped himself with all the technical assurance of which he is capable. There are still traces in this work of handling which is

not expressive, of brush strokes which suggest no conformation in the scene, of paint that suggests the color of itself rather than of anything else. But where he succeeds he succeeds with something very like genius. His composition shows that he has the eye to see his subject detached from the confusion of insignificant detail, and to present it as a singularly vivid and unified impression. His vigorous treatment of detail, on the other hand, shows that the breadth of his arrangements is obtained by no over-simplification.

Collections of Dutch and French pictures are on view at Oehme's Galleries and Tooth's, in this city. At Oehme's there are, among other paintings, work by Israels, Blommers, J. H. van Mastenbroek, Evariste Pieters, Mauve, Weissenbruch, Theophile De Bock, Harpignies, Dupré, Diaz, Daubigny, Corot, Henner, Roybet, and Ziem; at Tooth's, by Jacob Maris, Weissenbruch, De Bock, Thaulow, Joseph Bail, Ziem, Harpignies, and Gérôme.

The modern Germain paintings which are to be exhibited at the Albright Gallery in Buffalo will include works by Franz von Stuck, Heinrich Zugel, Hans von Bartels, Gotthard Kuehl, Thoma, Bracht, Truebner, Leistikow, Schonleber, Herrmann, Lepsius, Von Kardorff, Skabina, Adolf von Menzel, Wilhelm Leibl, Max Koner, and Franz von Lenbach.

The annual convention of the American Institute of Architects is to be held at Washington on January 7, 8, and 9. The custom of presenting a gold medal of honor will be begun. The recipient next month will be Sir Aston Webb, the English architect.

The works of the Society of Western Artists, now on view in the Art Institute, Chicago, will be taken to St. Louis, Indianapolis, and Cincinnati at the close of the present exhibition.

The annual exhibition of the Royal Hibernian Academy will open on February 4, a month earlier than usual.

The Munich artists of the "Secession" hold a winter meeting from December 28 to February 3.

The various art purchases and "commandes" of the French Government for 1906 are now on exhibition at the Paris École des Beaux-Arts. There are in all 381 numbers—pictures in oils, water-color, and other drawings, engravings, and sculpture. The sculpture includes three works by Rodin—his "Belloué," and busts of Berthelot and Falguière.

A bequest of twenty-seven pictures by Italian masters has recently been made to the National Gallery, England, by Miss Lucy Cohen. The collection includes examples by Sandro Botticelli, Lorenzo Costa, Pietro Pallajuolo, Bronzino, Francesco Zuccarelli, Bernardino Luini, Alessandro Bonvicino, better known as "Il Morretto", Giovanni Battista Moroni, Antonella da Messina, Girolamo Romanino, Paris Bordone, Francesco Guardi, Giovanni Tiepolo, Jacopo Marieschi, Enrico Fiammingo, Annibale Carracci, Benedetto Gennari, Salvatore Rosa, and Bonifazio Veronese.

At Christie's auction rooms in London on December 8, the following pictures were sold: J. C. Cazin, Stacks and Sheaves, £430; J. Israels, Study, £126; J. L. E. Meis-

sonier, Charles I. on Horseback, £378; F. Roybet, The Cavalier in Green, £262.

On Friday and Saturday of this week C. F. Libble & Co. of Boston offer at auction some mezzotints, etchings, and engravings from two private collections. Among the mezzotints are flower and fruit pieces by Earldom after Van Huysum; portraits by Valentine Green, Joshua Reynolds, Hald, Houston, and Watson; and Savage's own portfolio of proof mezzotints, including the rare full-length portrait of Washington, 1801, the Washington Family, Thomas Jefferson, Eruption of Mt. Etna, Landing of Columbus, also an unfinished pencil drawing. Among the line engravings are proofs by Edward Mandel, Bartolozzi, Toschi, Mercuri, Van Dyck, and Caroline Watson; there are copper plates by Dürer, Rembrandt, Holler, and Lucan van Leyden. The Washington portraits include the pair of mezzotints of George and Lady Washington by Charles Wilson Peale, the mezzotint by Hamlin, and the Doolittle portrait. There are also many pictures for extra illustrating.

Science.

The Bird; Its Form and Function. By C. William Beebe. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$3.50 net.

It is no small compliment to Mr. Beebe's book to say that among American works it invites comparison only with Part II. (General Ornithology, pp. 59-221) of the late Dr. Coues's classic "Key to North American Birds." This section of the "Key," however, has been published separately only in England, and the present volume is, therefore, the first in this country to be devoted wholly to a study of the relations existing between a bird's structure and its habits. The author emphasizes the difference between the physical and the mental life of the bird, and here restricts himself to a consideration of the former. "Ancestors," "Feathers," "Framework of the Bird," "Organs of Nutrition," "Muscles and Nerves," "Senses," "Beaks and Bills," "Heads and Necks," "Wings," "Feet and Legs," and "Tails," are among the chapter headings.

The book appears opportunely. Bird collecting, until recently the chief, if not only, outlet of ornithological endeavor, is now commonly discouraged, unless it be pursued with a definite object. Biographical studies which will add to our existing information of the habits of the more readily observed birds, require continuity of effort possible to but few; but an investigator with limited opportunity for field work may take up one of the many problems presented by the external or internal anatomy of birds and with a small number of dead or living specimens make acceptable contributions to the science of ornithology. Feathers, their structure, growth and molt, the nature of their pigmentation, the influence on their color of controlled conditions of food, temperature, or moisture; the skeletal, muscular, visceral, and psychical system of the bird; the bird in the egg and the earlier stages of its physical and mental development—all these offer an inviting field not alone to the professional, but to

the amateur with no time for out-door studies.

In promoting work of this kind, Mr. Beebe's book should exert a wide influence. While, of necessity, it is in part a compilation, it contains much original matter. As curator of birds in the New York Zoological Park he has had an opportunity to study intimately many species of birds under what are, for a zoological garden, exceptionally favorable conditions. Thus, with the assurance born of personal observation he can state well-known facts as well as present the results of important experiments. The discovery, for example, that the subjection of a bird to moisture-laden air through only two molts will materially change the color of its plumage, has a wide bearing on the general subject of the relation between color and climate.

So many of the 370 odd illustrations were made by the author from living birds, either in nature or in captivity, that they constitute an actual addition to our sources of information. While, from the nature of the case, they do not all reach the standard of technical excellence set by the best, they are far more effective and convincing than drawings of the same subjects.

Mr. Beebe's style is in itself pictorial; but in clothing his facts with "living interest," as he says in his preface, he occasionally passes the boundary line between warrantable deduction and pure fancy, as in the attempt to explain the diversity of habit among warblers (pp. 362-366). In the main, however, he holds the rein more tightly, and accomplishes his expressed intent to capture the attention of the layman while winning the approval of the professional. Considering the wide field covered, actual errors are infrequent. We note the following: The autumn molt of the male scarlet tanager gives him not the entire, but only the body plumage of the female, the wings and tail being black as in the spring; the wearing away of the brown edges of the snow-bunting's feathers is not postponed until "the spring in their Northern home," but begins in the autumn; the bobolink does not become black and buff by a loss of the brown tips of the autumnal "female dress," but the bird undergoes a complete molt in the spring, in which the black feathers, at first yellow-fringed, are acquired; the adult sooty tern has no "transverse lines of white across the back" to "totally destroy the symmetry of form."

The book is carefully printed, and there are but few typographical slips. The use, however, of extremely heavy, highly glazed, clay-coated paper adds unnecessarily to the weight of the volume, and detracts from the ease with which it is read.

We cannot close this review without congratulating the New York Zoological Society on the possession of a curator who is more than a keeper of animals. Zoological gardens are so frequently considered as merely collections of animals to be looked at through bars or in paddocks, that it is a satisfaction to learn of one in which original research is encouraged.

In the "Immediate Care of the Injured" (W. B. Saunders Company), Dr. A. S. Morrow hopes to be useful to physicians, nurses, and the laity, but he fails to preserve a just balance of the requirements of these

classes of readers. About a third of the book is given to a description of the parts of the body and their functions. This is perhaps as well done as the space permits, but the beginner will hardly realize that a large part of the liver is gone from fig. 31 unless he compare it very carefully with a previous picture. In the matter of accidents and other emergencies the advice is for the most part good, and is clarified by numerous illustrations of the pathology as well as the methods of treatment. The ordinary "emerger" or "first aider," already tempted to do almost too much, will hardly learn the use of the hypodermic syringe from the text and figure (p. 161), and if she apply the blanket according to the picture (p. 210), she will probably smother the patient as well as the fire. The section on the transportation of the injured is excellent.

Two Arctic explorers now in the far North have the same object in view. They are A. H. Harrison, an Englishman, and Eric Mikkelsen, a Dane. Both are seeking to discover, by sledging from Banks Land, west or northwest, whether there is land in the unknown seas to the north of the western part of the American continent. According to a report received by the Royal Geographical Society, Harrison reached Banks Land last July, but was forced to abandon his plan to spend this winter there because the captains of the whaling ships he met could not give him the provisions he asked. He is, therefore, again wintering at the mouth of the Mackenzie, and will not be able to undertake his exploring trip to the west until February, 1908. Meanwhile, Mr. Harrison has made some valuable observations of the polar drift. He concludes that there is a northeasterly current from Point Barrow, which, meeting north of Herschel Island the waters of the Mackenzie, is turned in a west-north-west direction corresponding to the drift of the Jeanette and the Fram. Mikkelsen, who has his own ship, the *Duchess of Bedford*, has reported from Point Barrow under date of August 18, complaining bitterly of the abnormal summer, which brought nothing but winds and currents straight from the North, with extraordinarily heavy coast ice. His scientific companion, Detlevsen, he lost because of sickness. Naturally, Mikkelsen despaired of reaching Banks Land this year.

At the American Museum of Natural History in this city the busts of prominent scientists, presented to the museum by Morris K. Jesup will be unveiled on Saturday afternoon. J. Pierpont Morgan, vice-president of the museum, will preside at the exercises. Dr. Hermon C. Bumpus, the director, will make the presentation on behalf of Mr. Jesup. Joseph H. Choate will accept the gift; and brief memorial addresses on the work of the scientists will be made as follows: Dr. S. Weir Mitchell of Philadelphia on Benjamin Franklin; Baron Speck von Sternburg on Alexander von Humboldt (read by Count Hatzfeldt); Dr. C. Hart Merriam on James Audubon; Dr. Nathaniel L. Britton on John Torrey; Dr. Robert S. Woodward on Joseph Henry; the Rev. Edward Everett Hale on Prof. Louis Agassiz; Dr. Arthur Twinning Hadley on James Dwight Dana; Dr. Hugh M. Smith on Spencer Fullerton Baird; Dr. William Keith Brooks of Johns

Hopkins University on Joseph Ledy; and Dr. Henry Fairfield Osborn on Edward Drinker Cope.

The next International Agricultural Congress has been called to meet in Vienna, May 21 to 25. It is the eighth convention of the kind, the first having been held in Paris in connection with the exposition of 1889.

An international exhibition of scientific and technical journals is to be held in May of the coming year in Copenhagen under the auspices of the Danish Society for Technical Journalism.

The death is announced of Ernst Pfitzer, for thirty years professor of botany at Heidelberg. Among his works are "Belträge zur Kenntnis der Hautgewebe," "Grundzüge einer vergleichenden Morphologie der Orchideen," "Über die Geschwindigkeit der Wasserbewegung in der Pflanze," and "Verfahren zur Konservierung von Blüten und zarten Pflanzen."

Finance.

END-OF-THE-YEAR MARKETS.

People who watch Wall Street, without the benefit of personal experience in its vicissitudes, must have been impressed this season by the constant prediction that, whatever happened before the last weeks of December, financial markets would then have a dangerous bridge to cross. With this prediction, moreover, was always coupled the further assurance that, the "turn of the year" once made, there need be no further cause for disquiet. In Wall Street vernacular, "December stringency" would normally be followed by "January ease."

This double phenomenon has become so familiar to financial markets that people seldom stop to ask the reason for it; yet the question is worth considering. Why should the money market, and with it the market for securities, be subject to violent disturbance in the last days of a year, and promptly emerge from trouble as the new year opens? The calendar year is not in reality the financial year; that may be said to begin in the spring, when new crops have been planted and the fundamental influence in the industrial fortunes of a dozen nations can for the first time be measured. In December, the conditions underlying a year's prosperity or adversity are familiar to every one, and in January, nothing more can be known than in December. Yet of the general truth of the financial tradition regarding these two months, there is no doubt whatever.

To take only a few typical instances: It was at the end of December, 1893, when markets had for three months been recovering from the midsummer panic, that the strain on corporation credit reached the breaking point, and two great railways went into bankruptcy. In 1899, the "Boer war panic" had passed away before November; yet it was just before the opening of December that the Bank of England rate went up to 6 per cent.; and it was in the last days of December that Wall Street witnessed a Stock Exchange panic and a 186 per cent. rate for money. There had been trouble in Wall

Street in October, 1902; it had blown over; but in the latter part of December, disturbance again became so grave that the banks had to announce publicly that if necessary, they would advance \$50,000,000 to avert a panic. The last days of December, 1905, were marked by the famous 125 per cent. call money rate.

Nevertheless, each of these incidents was followed by a tranquil January. The year 1894 opened with easy money and a surplus bank reserve rising to the largest recorded figures; money rates promptly fell to 4 per cent., and the bank surplus rose to \$29,000,000. Almost exactly the same result was witnessed in January, 1900, in January, 1903, and in January, 1906. This is the basis for such confidence as exists that the violently unsettled markets of last week and this week, with their repeated collapse on the Stock Exchange, their 8 and 10 per cent. rates for time loans, their charge of 10 to 14 per cent. for advance of money on American stocks at London, will lead to a calm and untroubled market when we get into 1907.

What is the explanation of this abnormal strain at the end of a calendar year, so suddenly relaxed? The first and most obvious cause is the so-called "coupon payments" of January 1. It is estimated that on or about that date there are paid to holders of American corporation stocks or bonds, in dividends or interest, not less than \$150,000,000. This capital, it is true, is in the market before the day of payment as well as after; but it is present in a different way. Banks or trust companies, holding this enormous sum in the last weeks of December, can indeed lend it out; but they can lend it only temporarily. By December 31, they must have it back again. The borrower who relies on loans thus conditioned may presently find his position most precarious. Theoretically, all this \$150,000,000 might be recalled at one moment from outstanding loans—which, in a highly speculative market, might mean disaster. As a matter of fact, part of it is not loaned out at all in the last week of the year, and efforts are made to replace what is recalled, about the 31st, by money procured from banks of other cities where the "coupon disbursements" are not so important a factor. But even these mitigating arrangements mean tightening money rates and reduction in the normal supply of capital. Once this huge fund is, however, distributed to its proper beneficiaries, it flows back unconditioned to the depository institutions, where it is loaned out again in the routine way. Hence, the quick relief of January.

Much the same state of things occurs at the other "semi-annual coupon day," July 1. But a summer market is something different from the market around the close of the year. At the end of June the crops have not been harvested; trade is dull throughout the interior of the country, and New York has little difficulty in borrowing all it needs from inland banks. The January payments fall at a time when harvests are all in, when the farm communities and the cities which supply their needs are doing the heaviest business of the year, when every one, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, is spending money and drawing on his bank deposit to get the money to spend. Wholly apart from the needs of speculative Wall Street, therefore, demand for

capital is at high notch for the year.

Added to this, and by no means a negligible influence, is a process for which the London market has invented the name of "window-dressing." This means that certain financial institutions, which have to report their sworn condition to the Government on December 31, call in their loans before that date to reduce their liabilities in the statement, and sometimes draw out in cash their balances in some larger institution, to add to their own reserve. This pressure, too, is bound to relax automatically after January 1.

The question of the present moment is, how far rule and precedent are to be relied on in looking for financial comfort next month. A rather manifest decrease in the confidence of predictions to that effect has been witnessed during the past few weeks, and for this, apparently, the cause has been

the heaping-up of obligations which, though their settlement has been deferred until next month, must be positively settled then. We have heavy repayments of this sort to make a few weeks hence to Europe; others must be made to the Treasury. Along with this has arisen some doubt as to whether interior banks, which usually send back currency to New York when their local trade grows lighter after the year is over, will be able next year to spare such reserves as early and as abundantly as usual. Probably these misgivings apply with more force to later weeks or months than to January, when at least some tangible relief is sure to come. What doubters have in mind is the fact that, throughout 1906, each successive spell of returning ease was speedily cut short by a renewed financial strain, growing in severity as the months went by.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bardeen, C. W. *The Cloak-Room Thief*. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
 Cambridge Church Records, 1632-1830. Boston: Eben Putnam. \$6.
 Coleman, Helena. *Songs and Sonnets*. Toronto: William Briggs.
 Fogazzaro, Antonio. *The Patriot*. Putnams. \$1.50.
 Hugo's *Quatre-Vingt-Treize*. Edited by C. Fontaine. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
 Lane's *Arabian Nights*. Edited by Stanley Lane-Poole. Vol. III. Macmillan Co. \$1 net.
 Lau, Robert Julius. *Old Babylonian Temple Records*. Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.
 Ledoux, Louis V. *The Soul's Progress and Other Poems*. John Lane Co. \$1.25 net.
 Leonardo Da Vinci's *Thoughts on Art and Life*. Translated by Maurice Baring. Boston: Merrymount Press.
 Lewis, Mary E. *The Ethics of Wagner's Ring of the Nibelung*. Putnams. \$1.50 net.
 Logan, John Daniel. *Preludes*. Toronto: William Briggs.
 Nelson's *Encyclopædia*. Edited by F. M. Colby and G. Sandeman. Vol. x. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
 Prince, John T. *School Administration*. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
 Report of the New York Produce Exchange.
 Strong, Anna Louise. *The Song of the City*. Oak Park, Ill.: Oak Leaves Press.
 Vincent, James Edmund. *Highways and Byways in Berkshire*. Macmillan Co. \$2.

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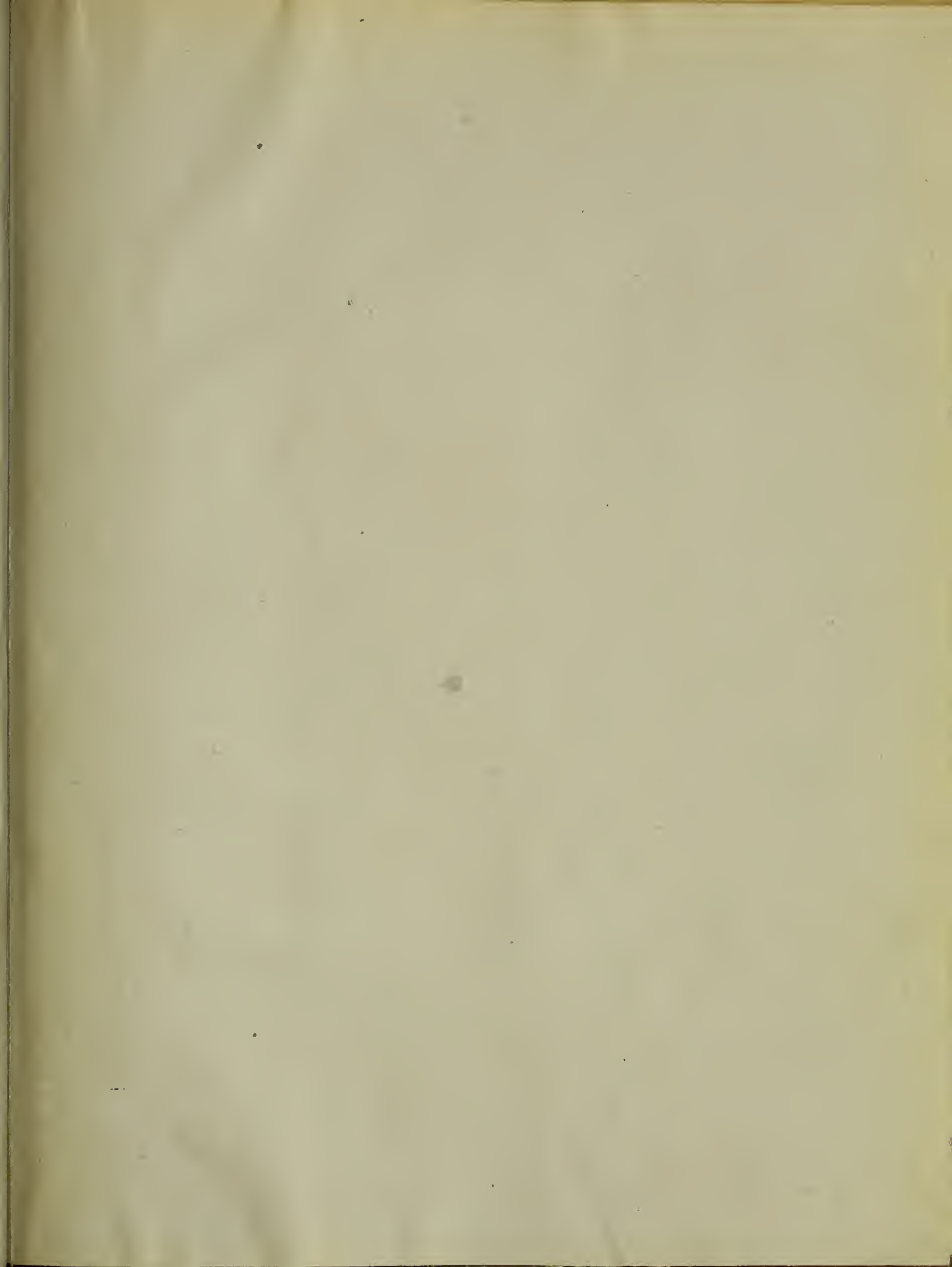
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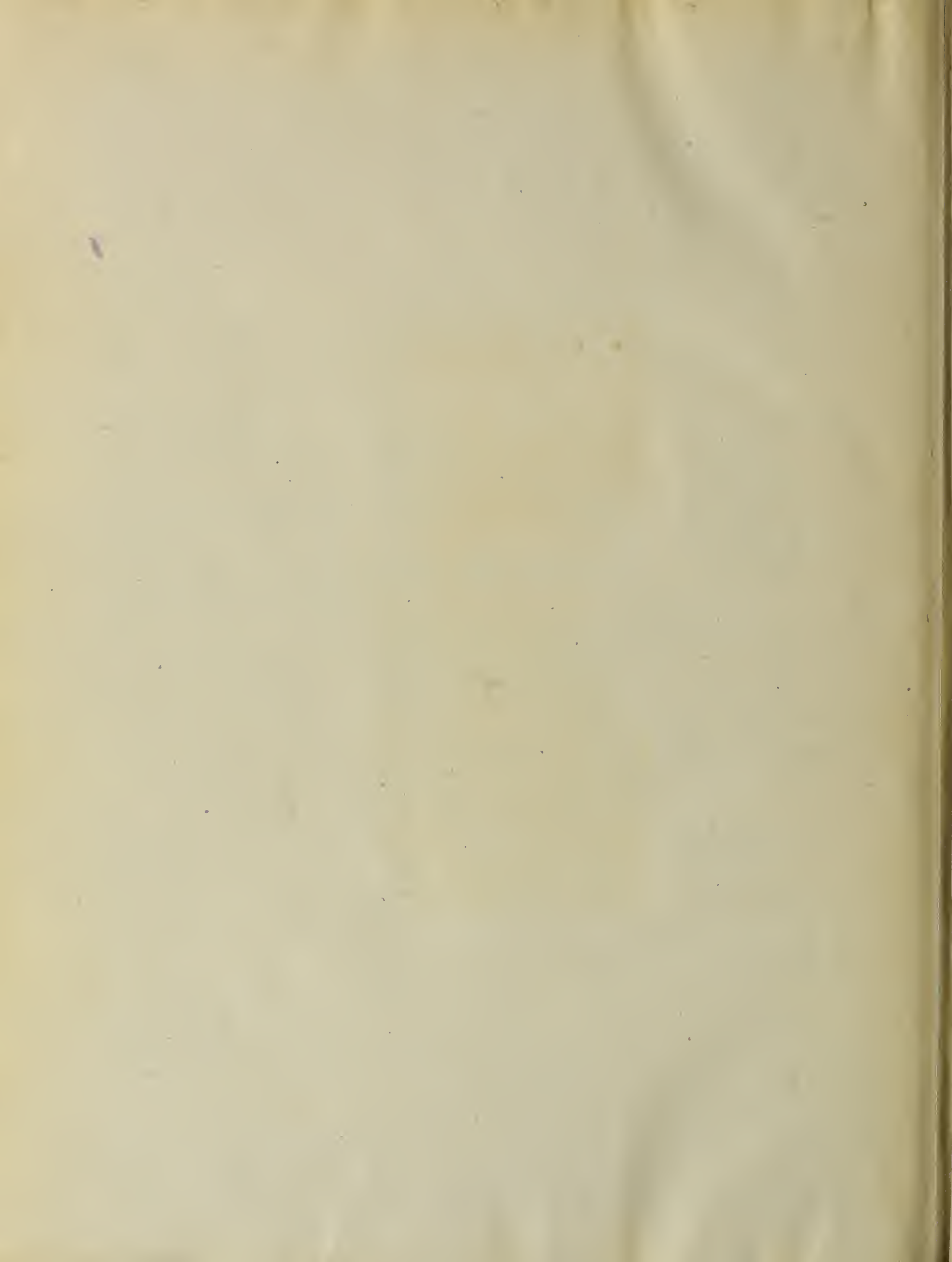
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